KWAME NKRUMAH UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

INSTITUTE OF DISTANCE LEARNING

KNUST

THE DETERMINANTS OF EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION IN THE SHAMA DISTRICT ASSEMBLY IN THE WESTERN REGION-GHANA.

By

Ampaw Kenneth

(PG 3035209)

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COMMONWEALTH EXECUTIVE MASTERS IN BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work towards the Degree of Commonwealth Executive Masters of Business Administration and that, to the best of my knowledge, it contains no material previously published by another person nor material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree of the University, except where due acknowledgement has been made in the text.
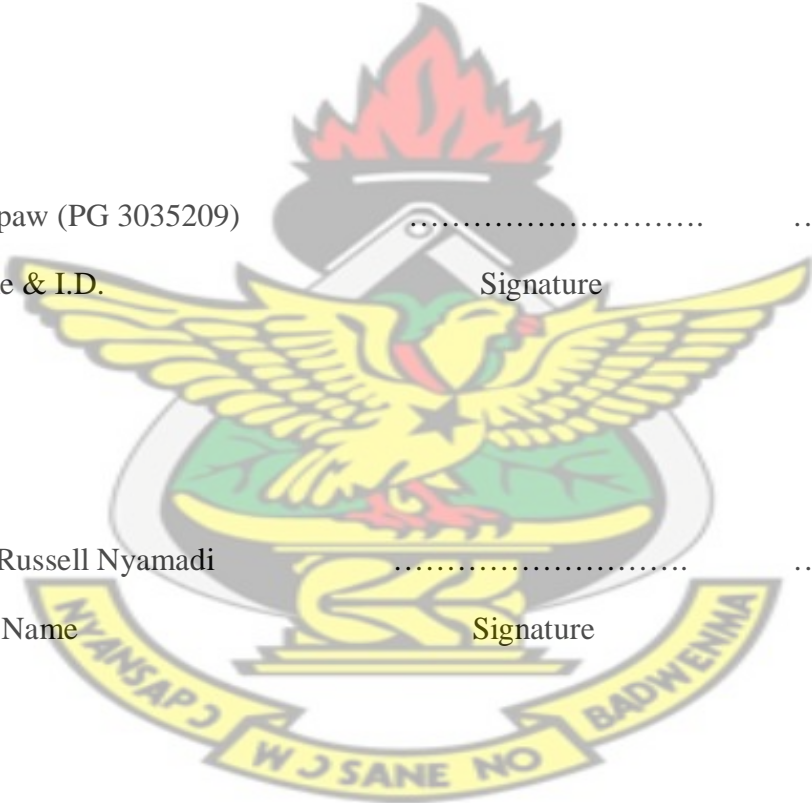
Kenneth Ampaw (PG 3035209)   ………………………….   …………………

Student Name & I.D.   Signature   Date

Certified by:

Mr Franklin Russell Nyamadi   ……………………..   …………………

Supervisor's Name   Signature   Date

Certified by:

Professor I.K. Dontwi   ……………………...   …………………

Dean, I.D.L.   Signature   Date

DEDICATION

I dedicate this study to my sweet mother, Madam Ama Serwaah, my father the late Mr Alex

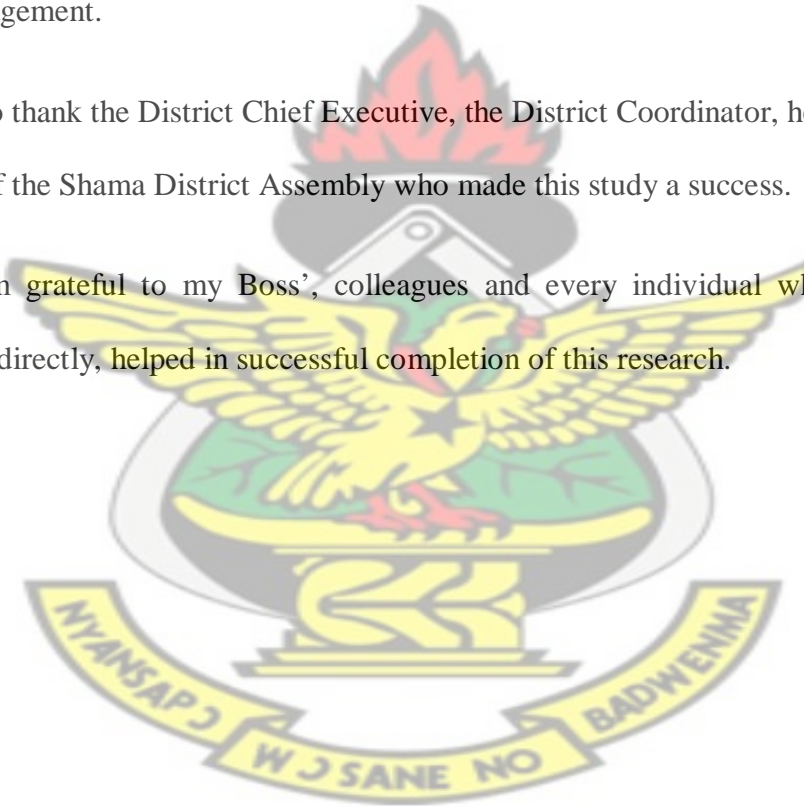K. Gyimah, my Dear wife and son Kofi. P. Ampaw and my unborn children.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

ABBREVIATIONS

ERG :   Existence, Relatedness and Growth needs.

TAT: Thematic Apperception Test .

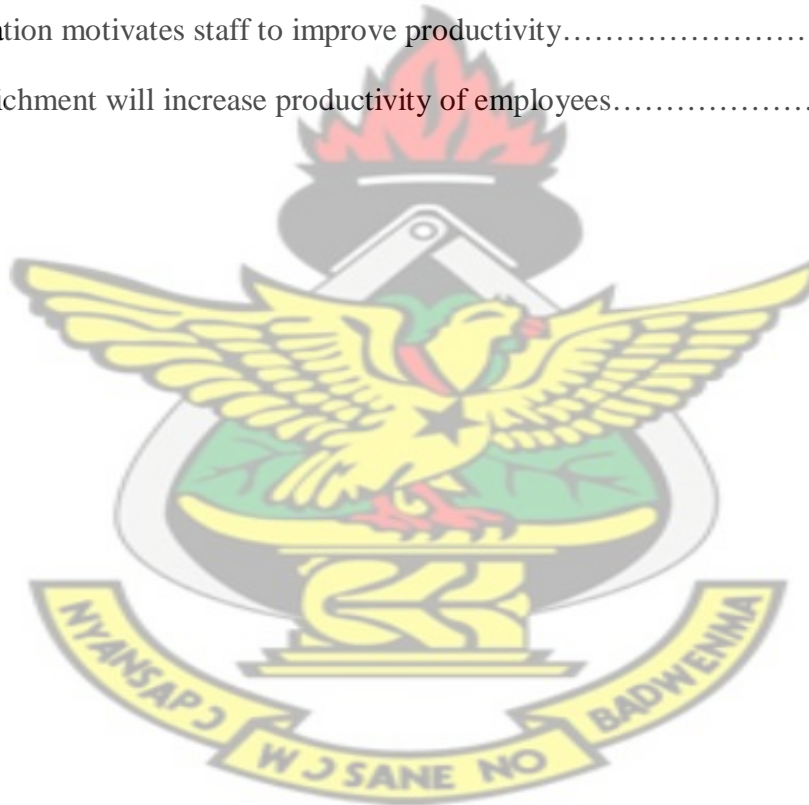QWL: Quality of Work Life .

i.e: That is

et al: And others

ABSTRACT

The study was to identify the effect of motivation on the productivity of the staff of the Shama District Assembly. In all, fifty respondents were selected randomly from the population of one hundred and forty. A questionnaire of forty closed and opened ended questions were administered to them and the answered questionnaires were collected and analysed for the study. The results of the study showed that, various forms of motivation were identified to exist at the District Assembly which includes trust, respect and high expectation, staff development, praise and recognition, good accommodation, rewards, staff participation in goals and targets setting, job design and these did motivate them to improve productivity. Again, the study revealed that large number of staff did not participate in goals and targets setting. Moreover, bonuses, car loans and rent allowances if available would motivate the staff to improve productivity. In addition, the study revealed that staff of the Assembly agreed that the presence of the needs identified by Maslow (1954) would motivate them to improve productivity. However, the findings of the study did show that their need levels did not correspond with that of Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs. The study also revealed that, good working environment, promotion, job security, appropriate disciplinary actions and interpersonal relationship gave the staff job satisfaction whereas their salary as it stands now did give them job dissatisfaction. Finally, the study recommended that Management of Shama District Assembly should try and include bonuses, car loans and rent allowance, accommodation facilities since the study revealed that such motivational forms when provided would help improve staff productivity. Also Management should identify the individual needs of their staff and satisfy them accordingly. Again, Management should try and improve the salary level of staff since they were dissatisfied with it and also engage staff if not all, most of them in goals and target setting for the Assembly.

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CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The critical workforce management challenges of the immediate future driven by corporate re-engineering and restructuring efforts, loyalty concerns, and fierce competition for key talents are closely linked to the emerging issues of employee commitment and productivity. In any organization, the issue about productivity of employees is partly related to the subject of motivation.

Motivation is the driving force within individuals that drive them physiologically and psychologically, to pursue one or more goals to fulfill their needs or expectations (Lam & Tang: 2003). Scheer (1979), espoused that motivation is to create and perpetuate the climate which brings harmony and equilibrium into the entire work group for the benefit of all who are involved. Since it is the work of a manager to employ effective motivation, he/she should always be aware of the environment and the condition of his or her employees.

Furthermore, motivation means an inner wholesome desire to exert effort without the external stimulus of money. It is the ability of indoctrinating the personnel with a unity of purpose and maintaining a continuing, harmonious relationship among all people (Thwala and Monese, 1998).

Motivation plays a vital role in reaching and fulfilling the goals and objectives of an organization by trying to motivate, inspire, and raising their satisfaction and self-esteem in order to be highly productive that in turn would lead to the fulfillment of organization's goals and objectives. According to DeCenzo (1995), cited by Thwala and Monese,(1998) motivation is "the willingness to exert high level of effort to reach organizational goals, conditioned by the ability to satisfy some individual needs." Campbell and Pritchard (1976), defines motivation as a dependent and independent set of relationships which explains the direction, and persistence of a behavior holding constant the effects of skills, aptitude, and understanding of a task and the constraints operating in the work environment. Hence, the necessity of understanding the nature of motivation and its underlying principles and theories are all important in order that improper application of motivation could be deduced and avoided. Nevertheless, all motivational processes and strategies are beneficial yet, not all of them could be applied in certain organization.

1.2 STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

There is a problem of how to motivate employees to give of their best to improve productivity in their institutions. An investigation at Shama District Assembly revealed there is a problem of how and which type of motivation should be administered by management to improve productivity at the Assembly. The purpose of this study therefore is to find empirical evidence of how the staff of the Shama District Assembly could be motivated to improve productivity at the Assembly.

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1.3.1 GENERAL OBJECTIVE

The general objective of the study was to examine whether motivation in any form have the effect of improving productivity of employees of the Shama District Assembly

1.3.2 SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

Specific objectives of the study include to:

i. examine whether properly designed jobs motivate employees to improve productivity at the Shama District Assembly

ii. identify whether rewards motivate employees to enhance productivity at the Shama District Assembly

iii. explain whether employee participation in goal and target setting motivates staff to improve productivity at the Shama District Assembly

iv. identify factors that causes job satisfaction and dissatisfaction at the Shama District Assembly

v. examine whether individual needs have an effect on the productivity of employees of the Shama District Assembly.

vi. identify whether the various forms of motivation could enhance the productivity of employees of the Shama District Assembly

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

i. Does the various forms of motivation improve productivity among employees of the Shama District Assembly?

ii. Does individual needs affect productivity of the employees of the Shama District Assembly?

iii. What factors causes job satisfaction and dissatisfaction among the employees of the Shama District Assembly?

iv. Does the reward system of the Shama District Assembly motivate its employees to improve productivity?

v. Do properly designed jobs motivate employees of the Shama District Assembly to improve productivity?

1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The significance of the study would be as most useful in terms of instilling awareness to Ghanaian institutions, small business employees, as well as other involved parties in the management of organizations.

The findings of this study would be used to implement motivational indicators or factors to position and empower employees to improve productivity at the Shama District Assembly. The results of the study would further help managers to administer the right forms of motivation to enable their

employees improve their productivity and services to better the people and various communities that consumes their products and services.

1.6 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

With about two hundred and twelve (212) District Assemblies in the country, this study would solely focused on Shama District Assembly, at Shama in the Western Region of Ghana. However because of proximity and time constraint only fifty (50) out of the One hundred and forty employees of the Assembly would be selected to respond to the questionnaire.

1.7 LIMITATIONS AND EXPECTED SOLUTIONS

This study was limited by financial and time constraints. Also the availability and the unwillingness of employees of the Shama District Assembly to answer questionnaires was another limitation. However enough time was given to respondents to enable them respond freely to questions asked. In spite of the above problems conscious efforts was made to bring these limitations to a negligible level, so that the outcome of this study would be reliable and authentic as expected.

1.8 ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY

In order to organize the idea in a systematic order, the study was divided into five chapters. The first chapter provides background information of the study, problem statement, objectives, research questions, significance, scope, limitations and organisation of the study.

The second chapter involves the review of relevant literature to obtain detailed knowledge on the topic being studied while the third chapter explains the various methods and procedures employed in the study to enable the researcher achieve the objectives of the study. It includes research design, the population, sampling and sampling procedures, instrumentation, source of data and data presentation and analysis procedures.

Chapter four analyses and discusses results of the study while chapter five summarizes all the findings made, offer recommendations for further studies and draws conclusion from them.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides a theoretical framework and empirical analysis related to effect of motivation on productivity of employees.

2.1 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The whole issue of motivation and organizational productivity has captured the attention of many psychologists, managers, businessmen and women, researchers and students over the years. These have not only raised motivation and productivity as a topic of discussion but also have caused

people to research and alert others on how to handle motivational issues in their various organisations. Many studies and theories have been developed in this topic area, some supporting the fact that motivation relates to organizational productivity whilst others refuting it which are outlined below.

Theories of motivation assumes that individual's posses the same set of needs and therefore prescribed the characteristics that ought to be present in jobs. It attempt to explain and describe the factors within a person that energize, direct, sustain and stop behavior. They provide a frame work for managers to gain insights about their employee's internal state. The major theories of motivation include Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Alderfer's ERG theory, McClelland's learned theory of needs, McGregor's theory X and Y, and Herzberg's Two Factor theory.

2.1.1 MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS

According to Maslow (1954) hierarchy of needs theory, once an individual had satisfied one need in the hierarchy, it ceases to motivate their behavior and hence, are motivated by the need at the next level up the hierarchy. The hierarchy include from the least to the highest need as shown in Figure 2.1 below.
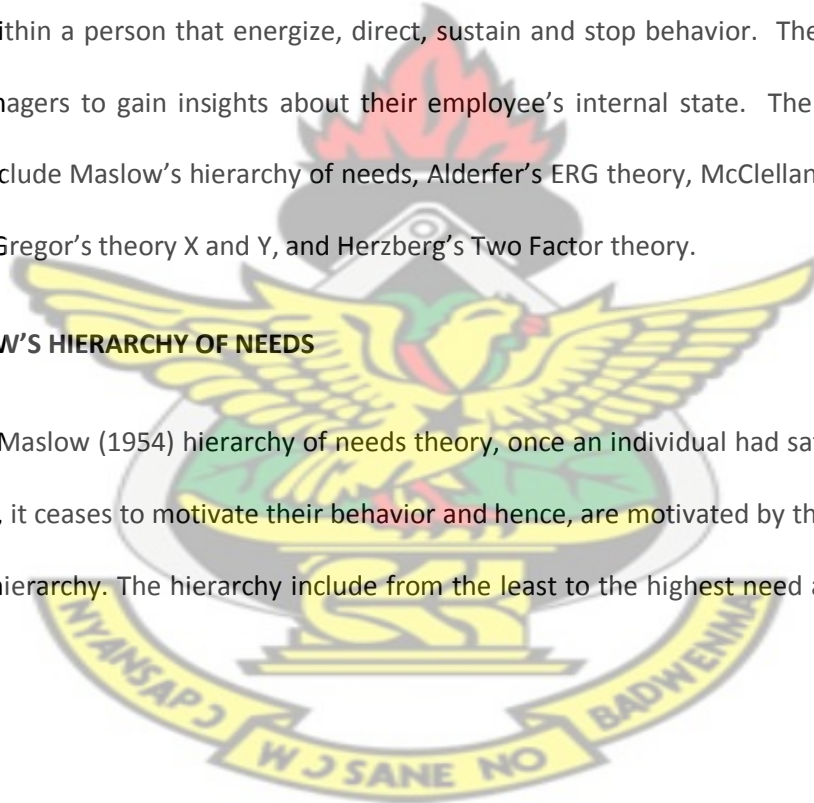
FIGURE 2.1 HIERACHY OF NEEDS
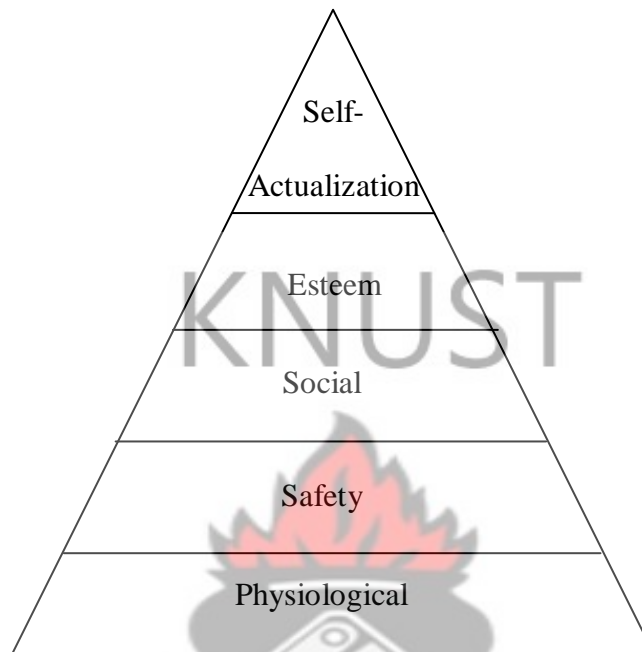
Source: Mullins (2007) Management and Organizational Behaviour.

Maslow's (1954) assumes that a person attempts to satisfy the more basic needs

(physical) before directing behavior towards satisfying upper level needs

(self actualization). According to him, a satisfied need ceases to motivate a person.

When a person decides that he is earning enough pay for contributing to the

organisation, money loses it power to motivate her. Nevertheless, there are

numerous difficulties in relating Maslow's (1954) theory to the work situation which

include the doubt about the time, which elapses between the satisfaction of lower –level

need and the emergence of a higher-level of need, whilst some rewards or outcomes at

work satisfy more than one need. For example, higher salary or promotion could be

applied to all levels of the hierarchy. Even for people within the same level of hierarchy,

the motivating factors would not be the same for there are many different ways in

which people might seek satisfaction, thus their esteem needs.

Maslow's (1954) viewed satisfaction as the main motivation outcome of behavior. But job

satisfaction does not necessarily lead to increased productivity. People do not necessarily satisfy

their needs, especially high-level needs just through the work situation but rather satisfy them

through other areas of their life as well. Therefore the manager would need to have a complete

understanding of people's private and social life, not just their behavior at work. (Mullins 2007) But

it must however be noted that, several needs may be activated at the same time and individuals

may progress down the hierarchy.

2.1.2   ALDERFER'S ERG THEORY

Alderfer (1972) proposed a modified need hierarchy theory.   His model compresses

Maslow's (1954) five levels of need into only three levels.

Existence needs, which include nutritional and material requirements (at work this

would   include pay and conditions.)

Relatedness needs, which are met through relationships with family and friends and at work with colleagues.

Growth needs, which reflects a desire for personal psychological development.

Alderfer (1972) three needs – existence (E) relatedness (R) and growth (G) or ERG corresponds to Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs, in that the existence needs are similar to Maslow's physiological and safety categories; the relatedness needs are similar to the belongingness, social and love category; and the growth needs are similar to the esteem and self-actualization categories.

In addition to the number of categories, Alderfer (1972) and Maslow (1954) differ on how people move through the different sets of needs. Whilst Maslow (1954) proposed that unfulfilled needs at one level are of most importance and that the needs of the next higher level are not activated or trigged until the current important needs were adequately satisfied. Thus, a person only progresses up the needs ladder once one level of need had been effectively met. In contrast, Alderfer's (1972) ERG theory suggests that in addition to the satisfaction – progression process that Maslow (1954) proposed, a frustration – regression process was also at work. That is, if a person was continually frustrated in attempt to satisfy growth needs, relatedness needs remerge as a major motivating force, causing the individual to redirect efforts toward exploring new ways to satisfy this lower – order need category.

Both Alderfer (1972) and Maslow (1954) need theories of motivation have been criticized as lacking verification and support by other theorists such as Mahmond and Bredwell (1973). Need theories have been regarded as just simple and easily expressed views of human behaviour (Gibson et al, 2000: 132-133)

2.1.3 MCCLELLAND' S LEARNED THEORY OF NEEDS

McClelland (1988), proposed a learned needs theory of motivation closely associated with learning concepts. He believed that many needs are acquired from the culture of a society. Three of these learned needs are the need for achievement, power, and affiliation. According to him, some people have a compelling drive to succeed. Such people are driven by personal achievement rather than anything the organisation could provide them. Such people would seek situation in which they could attain personal responsibility of finding solutions to problems and would also value receiving rapid and unambiguous feedback on their productivity in order to tell whether they are improving productivity or not.

On the other hand, a need for power was the desire to have impact and to be influential. Such people enjoy being in charge of their work. They also value having the opportunity to influence others. They also preferred to be in competitive and status-orientated situations.

The third need, affiliation, was one's desire to be liked and accepted by others. Such individual's tend to strive for friendship and preferred co-operative situations rather than, competitive ones and desires relationships involving a high degree of mutual understanding. The point behind

McClelland's (1988) theory was that you need to be in jobs that best reflect your personality. For example, if you are high in the need for affiliation and work in a competitive environment (i.e. such as sales) your ability to excel would be affected.

Regardless of his contribution, McClelland (1988) was criticized for the use of projective techniques to determine the three needs because the interpretations and weighing of a story are at best an art than a science. Some scholars such as Maslow (1954) and Greene (1991) questioned how Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) was validated. McClelland's (1988) claimed that achievements could be learned was in conflict with a body of knowledge stating that motives were normally acquired in childhood and were difficult to alter in adulthood but acknowledged this problem which was evidenced in politics and religion to indicate that adult behaviour could be changed. Again, his notion of learned needs was questioned by scholars on the grounds that whether needs were permanently acquired or not. Research was needed to determine whether acquired needs last over a period of time. (Gibson, et al, 2000: 136 – 139)

However, the relative intensity for motivating needs varies between individuals and occupations. McClelland (1988) suggested that managers generally had strong needs for achievement and power, but low on affiliation needs. In spite of the fact that those who have strong achievement needs tend to advance faster than others, it was worth noting that managers required other characteristics in addition to a drive for success and achievement. The need for affiliation was equally important, as the manager had to work and get well with people, as well as to co-ordinate their efforts within the organisation. Therefore, it was important for managers to recognize which need was dominant in each individual in the organisation, since need could affect the way a person could be motivated.

2.1.4. MCGREGOR'S THEORY X AND Y

McGregor (1960) theory X was based on the assumption that people are inherently bad which represented a pessimistic view of human nature. According to this theory, people do not really want to work but have to be pushed, closely supervised, and be threatened with some type of punishment before working. He believed that workers have little or no ambition for work, but preferred to avoid responsibility and seek security as their major goal.

Theory X reflects the "carrot and stick" philosophy, combining punishment and rewards to motivate employees. This approach, however, has two major drawbacks.

 Managers who accept theory X as valid tend to use stick more than carrot. "if I ever fall behind in my quota," one worker says, "you can bet I hear about it, but if I break my back to get a job done, not a word." The general belief or management under this theory is that workers are paid to do a good job; management function is to supervise the work and correct employees if they go off course.

The "carrot and stick" image itself creates a negative attitude toward workers. The manager or supervisor who view others as lazy, incompetent, reluctant to accept responsibility and interested only in a paycheck often treat subordinates with distrust, suspicion and little

respect. This leads to a form of supervision where fault finding, blaming and reprimands are frequent. (Reece and Brandt, 1996:163-164)

When managers have low expectations about his employees, his expectations tend to become self-fulfilling prophecies. If a manager believes his employees are bad, employees tend to behave in displeasing ways. This is the negative side of the Rosenthal effect. (Middlebrook, 1980:27).

On the other hand, McGregor (1960) theory Y was premised on the assumption that people are inherently good which reflects an optimistic view of human behavior. According to this theory, work was natural to people as play or rest. People's attitudes toward work depend on their previous job experiences and the conditions surrounding the job itself. If employees are able to understand and relate their personal goals, to organizational goals, they would be coerced into working. When given the proper encouragement, people would seek rather than avoid responsibility, and they would often exercise considerable imagination and creativity in carrying out their duties.

A healthy, mutually, supportive relationship based on trust, openness and mutual respect can create a work climate in which employees want to give more of them. (Reece and Brandt 1996:164-165). The above work, climate or environment also promotes a Pygmalion effect, thus, managers expects more from employees. As a result, they simply perform more than expected. (Gibson et al, 2000:151)

When managers have high expectations about their employees, their expectations tend to become self-filling prophecies. If a manager believes his employees are good, they tend to behave in pleasing ways, thus, a positive side of the Rosenthal effect (Middlebrook 1980:27).

According to McGregor (1960) a manager's negative attitude toward employees that was characterized by mistrust, punishment and general disrespect, only help to engender mistrust, disrespect, sabotage and generally negative attitude within employees. Even the organisation that feeds everyone suffers lukewarm attitudes to work Conversely, a manager's positive attitude towards employees characterized by trust, support, openness, unconditional mutual respect help instill the same values in employees. This creates a win-win situation for all including the organisation.

However, theory X of McGregor (1960) assumes that Maslow's (1954) lower level needs dominate in employees whereas theory Y of McGregor (1960) assumed that Maslow's (1954) higher level needs dominate among employees.

2.1.5 HERZBERG'S TWO FACTOR THEORY

Herzberg (1959) developed two distinct lists of factors to measure motivational levels of workers. One set of factors causes happy feelings or good attitudes among workers, and these factors on the whole, are task related. These intrinsic sets of factors called motivators include recognition, achievement, advancement, responsibility, growth and the work itself.

The other groups of factors were primarily identified when a feeling of unhappiness or bad attitude was evident, but these factors were not related to the job itself, but to the conditions that surround doing the work. This second group of factors, referred to as hygiene factors (extra – job factors) by Herzberg (1959) include salary, interpersonal relation – supervision, interpersonal relation – peers, jobs security, and interpersonal relation – subordinate, working conditions, company policy and administration, and status. Hygiene factors created a favourable environment for motivation to prevent job dissatisfaction. However, because of individual differences, different factors could cause job dissatisfaction for different people.

According to Herzberg (1959), motivators referred to factors intrinsic within the work itself like recognition after a task was completed. Conversely, hygiene factors tend to include extrinsic factors like relation with co-worker, which did not pertain to the workers actual job. Intrinsic factors are related to job satisfaction, while extrinsic factors are associated with job dissatisfaction.

Gibson et al, (2000:134), espoused that motivators pertain to the job content. Their absence does not prove highly dissatisfying. But, their present builds strong work motivation that result in good job performance. Therefore, they are called motivators or satisfiers. On the other hand, hygiene factors relate to the job context. The presence of these conditions to the satisfaction on the employee does not necessarily motivate him, but their absence result in dissatisfaction. This was because they are needed to maintain at least a level of "no dissatisfaction", in the job they do.

Prior to Herzberg's (1959) view of motivation, theorists studying motivation saw job satisfaction as a unidirectional concept, that is, they placed job satisfaction at one end of the continuum and job dissatisfaction on the other end of the same continuum. The interpretation given to this view was that if a job condition caused job satisfaction, removing it would cause dissatisfaction of the job. Similarly, if a job condition causes job dissatisfaction, removing it would cause job satisfaction which Herzberg (1959), however, differed from this view but assumes that job satisfaction was not a unidirectional concept. He concluded that two continuous directions of his theory were needed to interpret job satisfaction correctly.

In Herzberg's (1959) view, motivators or satisfiers determines whether a person have low job satisfaction or high job satisfaction. Similarly, dissatisfiers or hygiene factors determine whether a person have low job dissatisfaction or high job dissatisfaction.

Criticism leveled at Herzberg's (1959) motivators – hygiene factor theory revolved around the small sample of accounts and engineers he used as subjects. The issue was whether results from such small sample could be generalized to other occupational groups and other countries.

The other criticism was a time factor. Herzberg's methodology requires people to remember critical incidences in their past that made them happy or unhappy. Memory, primacy and telling ability become crucial points in this context. They also believed that Herzberg's analysis ignores subconscious factors. Herzberg (1959) offered no explanations as to why the various extrinsic and intrinsic job factors should affect performance.

The two continua of Herzberg's theory (1959) presented a problem in terms of interpreting job experience and high job dissatisfaction. When one has low job dissatisfaction, does one simultaneously experience high job satisfaction? (Gibson et al, 2000:134-135).

Herzberg Two-Factor theory helps the researcher to identify the factors that caused job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. Certain characteristics tend to be consistently related to job satisfaction while others to job dissatisfaction. It also helped the researcher to examine the forms of motivation that was intrinsic and extrinsic in the organisation.

2.1.6 PROCESS THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

The study would examine process motivation theories, which attempt to explain and describe some of the factors typically outside the individual that energize, direct, sustain, and stop behavior. The major process theories of motivation to be discussed include equity theory, job design theory and goal setting theory.

2.1.7 EQUITY THEORY

Adams (1965), while working as a research psychologist with the general

electric company in Crontonville, New York, developed and tested an equity

theory of motivation. The essence of the equity theory of motivation is that

employees compare their efforts and rewards with those of others in similar

work situations. This theory of motivation is based on the assumption that,

individuals' who work in exchange of rewards from organisation are motivated

by the desire to be equitably treated at work. A key management role

was the maintenance of employee's perception of equity in the workplace.

Equity exists when employees perceive that the ratio of their inputs (efforts) to their outcomes (rewards) was equivalent to the ratio of other similar employees. Inequity exists when these ratios are not equivalent, thus, an individual's own ratio of inputs to outcomes could be greater than that of others (Gibson, et al, 2000:164-165).

Critics of this theory firstly questioned the extent to which inequity that results from overpayment (rewards) leads to perceived inequity simply because employees are seldom told they are overpaid. Secondly, equity research focuses on comparisons among employees within their immediate environment

Equity theory ignores reactions to experienced inequity. It's not likely that two people would react somewhat differently to the same magnitude of inequity if they believe different things caused the inequity (Gibson, et al, 2000- pg 167). However, it must be noted that feelings of inequity were bound to arise because each individual sees his or her reward differently.

In practical terms, what the theory says about reward is that if employees judge their inputs (efforts) in the organisation to be rewarded fairly and justly in comparison to others doing the same job, employees would be motivated to work even harder to earn those rewards. If however, employees perceived that their inputs (efforts) were not rewarded fairly and justly in comparison to others doing the same job, employees would be less motivated and therefore exert less effort in their jobs. In this context, the role of the managers was critical in ensuring that employees do not feel cheated by the organization, inputs (efforts) were recognized and remunerated fairly, and outcomes as in pay and benefits were fairly and justly distributed amongst all shareholders. This would in turn ensure that tensions and negative attitudes were not allowed to take root, in the organisation which may assist in keeping workers happy and productive.

2.1.8 JOB DESIGN THEORY

Task characteristics (job design) theory seeks to identify how these characteristics combined to form different jobs and their relationship to employee motivation, satisfaction and performance. (Kini and Hobson, 2002:605) DeCenzo and Silhanek (2002) suggested two ways of designing jobs to increase employee's motivation outlined below.

One of the more popular ways of increasing employee's motivation is to have employee's job enriched. This allowed employees to assume that, some of the task was typically done by their supervisor. Enrichment required that employees have more input into planning and controlling of their work, with less supervision. It also means giving them an opportunity to evaluate their performance themselves. This would help employees have a better quality of work life (QWL), the

degree to which workers were motivated, supported and encouraged by their work environment. However, enrichment would be successful only if employees find that their needs were being met by the enrichment.

Job rotation, another motivational strategy that allowed an employee to diversify activities to offset boredomness. Horizontal job transfers could break up the boredom inherent in almost any job after one's skills have been refined and the newness of the job have worn off. Opportunities to learn new skills, change supervisors, relocate, or make new job acquaintances could deter or slow the onset of boredom from jobs that have become habitual. Job rotation therefore, could renew your enthusiasm for learning and to motivate one to perform better, and build solid skills foundation for production

However, since employees take part in several simplified jobs, there was lack of specialization in job rotation. Also, this can affect outputs since employees will have to learn new skills in order to perform the new job.

Moreover, job design could affect job satisfaction because people were more satisfied with certain job configurations than with others, it was important to be able to identify what makes a "good" job.

Hackman et al (1975) suggested that jobs differ in the extent to which they involve five core dimensions which include skill variety (the variety in a job that lets one different skills and talents), identifiable task (the variety for one to complete the whole job or an identifiable piece of work), task significance (the effect one's job have on him or work of other people), Autonomy (the freedom and independence one has in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out), and task feedback (getting direct and clear information about ones performance).

Hackman et al (1975) contended that providing employees with task variety, identifiable task, task significance, task autonomy, and feedback, would lead to three critical psychological state (experienced meaningfulness of the work, experienced responsibility for outcomes, and knowledge of the actual results) which, in turn would lead to high internal motivation, high quality work performance, high work, satisfaction and low absenteeism and turnover.

The implications of this theory for management are that, in order to keep employees motivated and satisfied in their jobs, managers must provide their employees with a variety of skills in the workplaces, change the nature of employees' jobs from time to time to prevent boredom, constantly point out that task that employees do for the organisation was important in achieving objectives of the organisation, managers must give employees the freedom and independence to structure and schedule (within the constraints of the company) their task, and most importantly, mangers must provide constant feedback as to how employees were measuring to set goals. (Mc Afee and Ardalan 1995)

It was important to note that, individual responses to jobs vary. A job may be motivating to a person but not to someone else, and depending on how jobs are designed, they may provide more or less opportunity for employees to satisfy their job-related needs. Job design theory helps the researcher to identify ways in which jobs can be redesigned in the institution to motivate employees to increase or decrease productivity.

2.1.9 GOAL-SETTING THEORY

The goal-setting theory is based mainly on the work of Locke (1968) assumes that people's goals or intentions play an important part in determining behavior. Moreover, Locke (1968) proposed that the intentions to work toward a goal are a major source of work motivation, that is, goals tell an employee what needs to be done and how much effort would need to be expanded. Specific goals increase performance; that is difficult goals, when accepted, result in higher performance than easy goals.

IMPLICATION OF GOAL-SETTING THEORY

Miner (1980) provided a summary of the numerous practical implications of the goal-setting theory for managers, including the following:

Specific performance goals should systematically be identified and set in order to direct

behaviour and maintain motivation.

Goals should be set at a challenging but realistic level. When goals are specific and challenging, they function more effectively as motivating factors in both individual and group performance.

Complete, accurate and timely feedback and knowledge of results is usually associated with high performance. Feedback helps individuals to adjust their work methods when necessary and to encourage them to persist in working towards goals.

Goals could be determined either by a superior or individuals themselves. Employees' motivation and commitment are higher, leading to higher performance, when they participate in the setting of goals.

2.1.10 DEFINITION OF JOB PERFORMANCE/PRODUCTIVITY

According to Compbell (1990) job performance is a commonly used yet poorly defined concept in industrial and organisational psychology; the branch of psychology that deals with the workplace. It most commonly refers to whether a person performs his/her job well. Despite the confusion over how it should be exactly defined, performance is an extremely important criterion that relates to organizational outcomes and success.

Compbell further describes job performance as an individual level variable. That is, performance is something a single person does. This differentiates it from more encompassing constructs such as organizational performance or national performance which are higher level variables. There are

several key features to Campbell's conceptualization of job performance which help clarify what job performance means.

First, Campbell (1990) defines performance as "behaviour". It is something done by the employee. This concept differentiates performance from outcomes. Outcomes are "the result of an individual's performance, but they are also the result of other influences". In other words, there are more factors that determine outcomes than just an employee's behaviour and actions. He further allows for exceptions when defining performance as behaviour. For instance he clarifies that performance does not have to be direct observable actions of an individual. It can consist of mental productions such as answer of decisions. However, performance needs to be under the individual's control, regardless of whether the performance of interest is mental or behavioural.

According to him, the difference between individual controlled actions and outcomes is best conveyed through examples. On a sales job, a favourable outcome is a certain level of revenue generated through the sale of something(merchandise, some service, insurance). Revenue can be generated or not, depending on the behaviour of employees when the employees performs this sales job well, she is able to move more merchandise. However, certain factors other than employees' behaviour influence revenue generated. For example, sales might slump due to economic conditions, changes in customer performance, production bottlenecks, etc. in these conditions, employees performance can be adequate, yet sales can still be low. The first is performance and the second is the effectiveness of that performance. These two can be decoupled because performance is not the same as effectiveness.

Other closely related construct are productivity and utility. Productivity can be thought of as a comparison of the amount of effectiveness that result from certain level of cost associated with that

effectiveness. In other words, effectiveness is the ratio of outputs to inputs – those inputs being efforts, monetary costs, resources, etc. Utility is another related construct which is defined as "the value of a particular level of performance, effectiveness, or productivity". Utilities of performance, effectiveness, and productivity are value judgment.

2.2 EMPIRICAL ANALYSES

This section provides empirical analyses of studies related to the study starting with studies in Ghana and the world over outlined below.

The issue of employees' performance in furtherance of organisational objectives has occupied management attention for long. Differences in levels of performance have been attributed to differences in skills and abilities on the one hand, and to different theories of money on the other. A study by Boachie-Mensah (2011) to examine the issue of performance-based pay as a motivational tool for achieving organisational performance, using the situation in a manufacturing company in Ghana as a case study. The result of the study revealed that the effect of performance-based pay on employee performance was minimal, and the motivational effect of merit pay is often blunted by biased performance appraisal.

Furthermore, Owusu-Acheaw (2002) examined whether staff development policies exist in three special libraries in Ghana, and whether training programmes were being offered to

increase staff competence, efficiencies and performance. The survey revealed that all the organizations under study have staff development policies and training programmes for staff to enhance their capabilities and efficiency. Again, the survey revealed that staff welfare was catered for since several motivational avenues and incentive packages are available to boost their morale.

Nabb et al (1998), using the 1990 workplace industrial relations survey data on motivation and performance among workers found financial participation being positively related to financial performance. But they also showed a strong interaction effect meaning that, the influence of financial participant's schemes cannot be analysed independently from other types of employee participation scheme and that the effect of problem solving schemes, for example were dependent on the linkage with financial participation scheme, while downward communication tends to have a positive effect on the workers.

Quinn et al, (1969) in their study to find out what motivate workers to increase productivity identified that praise, recognition, awards and titles were part of the series of motivational patterns used in personnel management to motivate staff and thus, increased productivity. It was a common practice, particularly in western culture for individuals to receive no monetary reinforcement of various sorts, ranging from praise, titles and honorific awards in order to be motivated. However, the extent to which the effect of external rewards could be explained as operant conditioning remained an open question.

However, according to Bateman and Snell (1999), study that tried to find out, what kinds of goals most effectively motivate people? How can managers set motivating goals for the people who report to them?

Bateman and Snell (1999) study found out that goals should be acceptable to employees. This means, among other things that goals should not conflict with people's personal values. Allowing people to participate in setting their work goals – as opposed to having the boss set goals for them was often a great way to generate goals that people accept and pursued willingly. Secondly, goals should be acceptable and maximally motivating goals should be challenging but attainable. In order words, they should be high enough to inspire better performance but not so high that people could never attain them.

Thirdly, goals should be specific, quantifiable, and measureable. Ideally, goals do not merely exhort employees to improve performance, start doing their best, increase productivity, or decrease the length of time that customers must wait to receive service from them. However, goal-setting works well for simple jobs such as clerks, typists, loggers and technicians, but not for complex jobs. Goal setting in jobs in which goals are not easily measured such as teaching, nursing, engineering and accounting will cause some problems.

Some criticisms leveled at Locke (1968) goal-setting theory include goal – setting being rather complex and difficult to sustain, encourage game playing (setting lower goals to look good later is on game played by subordinates who do not want to be caught short). Managers play the game of setting an initial goal that was generally not achievable and then finding out how subordinates react.

Goal accomplishment could become an obsession. In some situations, goal setters have become so obsessed with achieving their goals that they neglect other important areas of their jobs (Gibson et al 2000:172-173)

Porter et al (1972) in conducting an investigation of what motivate employees to perform. Five hundred and sixty three (563) questionnaires from managers in seven different industrial and government organizations. The main focus of the study was on pay as an outcome performance. The questionnaires obtained measures from the managers for a number of variables such as value or reward, effort-reward probability, role perceptions, perceived equitable rewards, and satisfaction. Information on the managers' effort and performance was obtained from their superiors.

The results indicated that where pay was concerned, value of reward and perceived effort-reward probability did combine to influence effort. Those managers who believed pay to be closely related to performance outcome received a higher effort and performance rating from their superiors while those managers who perceived little relationship between pay and performance had lower ratings for effort and performance. The study by Porter and Lawler (1972) also demonstrated the interaction of effort and role perceptions to produce a high level of performance. Their study also suggested that the relationship between performance and satisfaction with their pay held good only for those managers whose performance was related directly to their actual pay.

Greene (1991) studied the evidence concerning the role of rewards in determining performance and job satisfaction, identified three basic propositions of performance namely:

Satisfaction – causes – performance

Performance – causes – satisfaction; and

Both satisfaction and Performance are caused by an additional variable(s), primarily, rewards.

But empirical support was more promising for the third that satisfaction and performance are caused primarily by rewards

Goldthorpe et al, (1968) in their study of what motivates people at job found out that, pay was the dominant factor in the choice of the employer and consideration of pay seem most powerful in building people to their present job. Money could therefore provide positive motivation in the right circumstance, not only because people need and want money but also because it serves as a highly tangible means of recognition. But badly designed and managed pay systems could de-motivate people.

Jaques (1961), in assessing the reward systems of employers using survey revealed that, reward should be clearly related to effort or level of responsibility and people should not receive less money than they deserved compared with their fellow workers for which Jaques (1961) called the 'Felt-Fair' principle.

Galbraith and Cummings (1961) investigated whether intrinsic and extrinsic rewards motivate employees to increase production and they suggested that approval from one's superior was like

pay and extrinsic reward and as such must be tied to performance to be effective for increasing productivity. Chief Executives could avoid inequity and make their approval part of the system reward by speaking words of encouragement to every hard worker. They could in the alternative decide to single out some hard workers for special approval.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the various methods employed to espouse information from respondents in order to achieve the goals of this study through a research design, population, sampling and sampling procedures, instrumentation, data presentation and analysis procedures.

3.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

This study was a survey in nature which tried to identify problems and make appraisals on the effect of motivation on employees productivity. The study is non-intervention, thus, the use of descriptive study to interpret the opinion of the Shama District Assembly on the issue of motivation and its effect on productivity. This was chosen since it would make data collection and analyses easier.

3.2 POPULATION

The study was conducted among the staff of Shama District Assembly. The population of the Shama District Assembly is one hundred and forty (140) employees. But only fifty (50) respondents were chosen for the study which includes both junior and senior staff of the District Assembly.

3.3 SAMPLING AND SAMPLING PROCEDURES

The sample size is the portion of the population used for the study, Opoku (2005). This was fifty (50) staff of the Assembly. Respondents were selected through simple random sampling where

everybody was equally likely to be included in the sample in order to avoid any form of bias. This

type of selection would make room for each person in the population to be selected.

3.4 INSTRUMENTATION

Questionnaires which were used to collect responses from respondents were developed for the

study. Some interview guide was done with respondents on their knowledge in the study areas.

3.5 SOURCES OF DATA

The data was collected from both primary and secondary sources. That is data already available and

those gathered through the survey and observations.

3.6 DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS PROCEDURES

The data gathered would be read and sorted, and percentages would be calculated for the various

responses. The results then would be presented on tables in the form of frequencies, percentages

and among others. The responses would be compared and used for the analysis. The results from

the comparison would be used to draw conclusion and compared with other existing theories and

empirical evidence.

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSES AND DISCUSSIONS OF RESULTS

4.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter analysis and discusses data collected from staff of the Shama District Assembly to assess their opinion on effect of motivation on their productivity.

4.1 DEMOGRAPHIC DATA OF RESPONDENTS

The demographic data discusses the sex, age, position of respondents, how long they have worked in the organisation, their departments and educational attainment in order to have the view of the Staff of the Shama District Assembly on effect of motivation on productivity.

Distribution of respondents according to sexes was vital in order to have views from both sexes about the effect of motivation on productivity. From Table 4.1 below, majority of respondents were males (i.e. 70 percent) as compared to the remaining 30 percent (i.e. minority) being females.

Table 4.1: Sex distribution of respondents

Sex	Frequency	Percentage%
Male	35	70%
Female	15	30%
Total	50	100%

Source: Field Survey, June 2011

This distribution helped in getting fair view of what motivates employees at the Shama District Assembly to work as there was the likelihood that people with the same sex would have the same motivational factors influencing their productivity.

Table 4.2: Age distribution of respondents

Ages (years)	Frequency	Percentage%
20 - 30	30	60%
30 - 40	13	26%
40 - 50	4	8%
50 - 60	3	6%
Total	50	100%

Source: Field Survey, June 2011

To help determine what motivate staff to increase productivity at the work place with respect to Shama District Assembly, different age groups had different factors motivating them at any given point in time, the age distribution of respondents was sought. Tables 4.2 above showed that majority (i.e. 60 percent) of respondents were identified to be between 20 – 30 years old as compared with only 6 percent of the remaining respondents who were between 50-60 years old. Again, about 26 percent of the remaining respondents were within 30 – 40 years, while 8 percent of respondents were within the age range of 40 – 50 years.
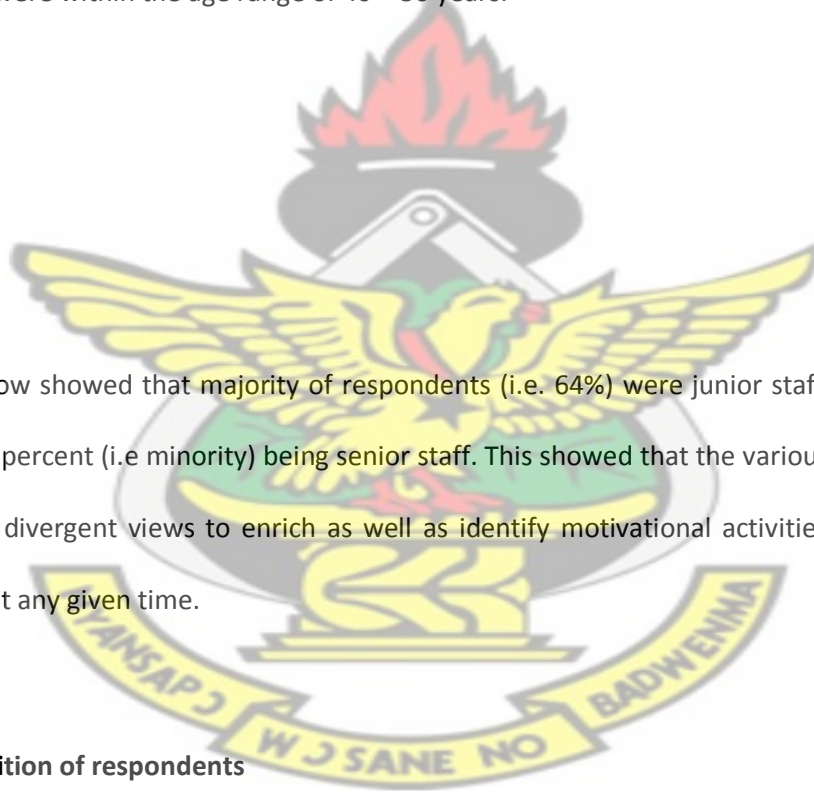
Table 4.3 below showed that majority of respondents (i.e. 64%) were junior staff compared to the remaining 36 percent (i.e minority) being senior staff. This showed that the various groups would be able to offer divergent views to enrich as well as identify motivational activities influencing their productivity at any given time.

Table 4.3 Position of respondents

Position	Frequency	Percentage%
Senior staff	18	36%
Junior staff	32	64%
Total	50	100%

Source: Field Survey, June 2011

Table 4.4 Number of years worked with the District Assembly

Number of years	Frequency	Percentage%
Below 1	12	24%
1 - 5	32	64%
6 - 10	6	12%
11 - 15	0	0%
16 - 20	0	0%
20 - 25	0	0%
Total	50	100%

Source: Field Survey, June 2011

Table 4.4 above showed that majority of respondents (i.e. 64%) had worked in the Assembly for 1 –
5 years as compared to 12 percent (i.e. minority) who have worked between 6-10 years and the 24
percent who were below 1 year respectively. This indicated that, the largest respondents have
worked for 1 – 5 years, where the least respondents have worked between 6 – 10 years. The period
of time employees have worked in the Assembly helped obtained what motivates them to improve
upon productivity at the Assembly. However, it was identified that none of the respondents had
worked for the Assembly beyond 11 years through to 25 years respectively.

Table 4.5 Department respondents' work in at the Shama District Assembly

Department	Frequency	Percentage%
Administration	10	20%
Budget	3	6%
Environmental Health	5	10%
Community Development	3	6%
Finance/Revenue	10	20%
Stores	3	6%
Social Welfare	3	6%
Security	8	16%
Works	5	10%
Total	50	100%

Source: Field Survey, June 2011

Majority of respondents (i.e. 20%) worked in the administration and the Finance department of the Assembly respectively as compared with 6 percent (i.e. minority) each who were in the budget, community development, stores and social welfare departments respectively. Furthermore, the

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Environmental health and Works department had 10 percent of respondents respectively. (See Table 4.5 above)

Table 4.6 Educational attainment of respondents

Educational level	Frequency	Percentage %
Elementary/basic	0	0%
Secondary	18	36%
Polytechnic	12	24%
University	16	32%
Professional	4	8%
Total	50	100%

Source: Field Survey, June 2011

In finding out the educational attainment of respondents, majority of the respondents (i.e. 36 percent) were identified to have completed their Secondary school education as compared to 8 percent (i.e. minority) being Professional certificate holders. Moreover, about 32 percent of the remaining respondents were University graduates, 24 percent had completed Polytechnic education. However, none of the respondents was identified to have only completed Elementary/Basic education without furthering. (See Table 4.6 above)

4.2 IMPROVING LEVELS OF PRODUCTIVITY THROUGH MOTIVATION

This section discusses the various forms of motivation such as trust, respect and high expectation, money, staff development, praise and recognition, bonuses, good accommodation, car loans, and rent allowances and whether they really motivated staff of the District Assembly to improve productivity.

In assessing whether trust, respect for employees and high expectations did motivate employees of the Shama District Assembly to improve upon their contribution to productivity, about 46 percent and 40 percent strongly agreed and agreed respectively to the above assertion as compared to only 6 percent of the remaining respondents who disagreed to this assertion. However, only 8 percent of respondents were uncertain to the above assertion while none of the respondents strongly disagreed to the view that when trust, respect, and high expectation were inculcated into staff of the Assembly, their dedication as well as contribution to work would improve. (See Table 4.7 below)

Table 4.7 Trust, respect and high expectation motivate employees

Options	Frequency	Percentage %
Strongly Agree	23	46%
Agree	20	40%
Uncertain	4	8%
Strongly Disagree	0	0%
Disagree	3	6%
Total	50	100%

Source: Field Survey, June 2011

This findings confirmed McGregor's (1960) theory Y that assumes that people are inherently good, given a healthy, mutually, supportive relationship based on trust, openness and mutual respect would create a favourable working climate, in which employees would want to give more of themselves. (Reece and Brandt 1996, pg.164-165). Meaning with this atmosphere, the staff of the Assembly were motivated to increase their productivity.

In assessing whether money was a motivator among the staff of the Shama District Assembly to improve productivity, majority of respondents (i,e 40%) agreed that money is a motivator compared with 8 percent (i.e. minority) who disagreed. Also 34 percent of respondents strongly agreed that, money is a motivator compared with 10 percent who strongly disagreed. The remaining 8 percent were uncertain. (See table 4.8 below)

This study confirmed Goldthorpe, et al, (1968), findings that money provided a positive motivation in the right circumstance, not because people need and want money but because it serves as a highly tangible means of recognition.

Table 4.8 Money is a motivator

Response	Frequency	Percentage %
Strongly Agree	17	34%
Agree	20	40%
Uncertain	4	8%

Strongly Disagree	5	10%
Disagree	4	8%
Total	50	100%

Source: Field Survey, June 2011

This study again confirmed the fact that money motivated employees to improve productivity, and further conformed one of the important terms upon which Equity theory by Adams (1965) was based. The term is outcome thus, what the person received from the job not forgetting the benefits and pay as out come from his or her job. This indicated that with money, staff were motivated to increase productivity.

Next, an effective process to enhance staff's technical know-how as well as skills would contribute immensely to improve productivity at the Shama District Assembly. According to respondents interviewed, it was revealed that majority of them (i.e. 54 percent) strongly agreed to the assertion that staff development was a good motivator in enhancing their knowledge and skills to productivity followed by about 40 percent of remaining respondents who also agreed to the above assertion whereas no respondent even strongly agreed or disagreed respectively. However, about 6 percent of the remaining respondents were uncertain as to whether staff development processes been provided by the Assembly was a good motivator or not. (See Table 4.9 below)

Table 4.9: Staff development is a good motivator

Response	Frequency	Percentage %
Strongly Agree	27	54%
Agree	20	40%

Uncertain	3	6%
Strongly Disagree	0	0%
Disagree	0	0%
Total	50	100%

It can be concluded that staff development is a good motivator among the staff of the District Assembly looking at the strong agreement on the fact that staff development is a good motivator.

Again, as to whether recognizing as well as praising staff of the Shama District Assembly was assumed to be a good motivator, majority of respondents (i.e. 48 percent) answered in the affirmative as compared to about 10 percent of the remaining respondents (i.e. minority) who were however uncertain as to whether praise and recognition served as a good motivator to enhance their performance. On the other hand, about 42 percent of the remaining respondents strongly agreed that praise and recognition served as a good motivator for them to continue offering their service to the Assembly. However, no respondent was identified to either disagreeing or strongly disagreeing to the above assertion respectively. (See Table 4.10 below)

Table 4.10: Praise and recognition is a good motivator

Response	Frequency	Percentage %
Strongly Agree	21	42%
Agree	24	48%
Uncertain	5	10%
Strongly Disagree	0	0%

Disagree	0	0%
Total	50	100%

Source: Field Survey, June 2011

This confirmed Herzberg's (1959) set of factors that cause happy feelings within workers which are task related. Their intrinsic factors, called motivators include recognition, praise, responsibility and among others as well as Quinn et al, (1969) study that concluded that praise, recognition, awards and titles were part of the series of motivational patterns used in personnel management to motivate staff and thus, increase productivity

In examining whether bonuses motivated employees of the Shama District Assembly to improve productivity. The study revealed that, majority of respondents (i.e. 52%) strongly agreed that bonuses motivated them to improve productivity compared with 6 percent of respondents who strongly disagreed. Furthermore, 40 percent also agreed that bonuses motivated them, whilst the remaining 2 percent (i.e. minority) were uncertain, there was no respondent identified for disagreement. (See Table 4.11 below). Therefore it can be concluded that bonuses really motivated the employees of the District Assembly to improve productivity.

Table 4.11: Bonuses motivate employees to improve productivity

Response	Frequency	Percentage %
Strongly Agree	26	52%
Agree	20	40%

Uncertain	1	2%
Strongly Disagree	3	6%
Disagree	0	0%
Total	50	100%

Source: Field Survey, June 2011

In assessing whether good accommodation motivated employees of the Shama District Assembly to perform well, the study revealed that majority of respondents (i.e. 42%) strongly agreed and agreed respectively that good accommodation motivated them to perform well compared with 2 percent (i.e. minority) who strongly disagreed. Whilst the remaining 14 percent were uncertain, there was no respondent for disagreement. (See Table 4.12 below)

Table 4.12 Good accommodation motivates employees to perform well.

Response	Frequency	Percentage %
Strongly Agree	21	42%
Agree	21	42%
Uncertain	7	14%
Strongly Disagree	1	2%
Disagree	0	0%
Total	50	100%

Source: Field Survey, June 2011

This study therefore confirmed Maslow (1954), security needs which includes; shelter or accommodation and protection which motivates individuals to perform. It could then be concluded that the staff   strongly agreed that accommodation, as a factor is a good motivator of the staff of the Shama District Assembly to improve productivity.

It is perceived that car loans as a form of motivation motivate employees to improve productivity. In examining whether car loans motivated staff of the Shama District Assembly to improve productivity the study revealed that, majority of respondents (i.e. 38%) strongly agreed that car loan motivated them to improve productivity compared with 14 percent who strongly disagreed. Again 32 percent of respondents also agreed that car loans motivated them to improve productivity compared with 6 percent (i.e. minority) who disagreed, the remaining 10 percent were uncertain. (See Table 4.13 below)

This study further confirmed that car loans motivated the staff of the Assembly to improve productivity.

Table 4.13 Car loans motivate staff to improve productivity

Response	Frequency	Percentage %
Strongly Agree	19	38%
Agree	16	32%
Uncertain	5	10%
Strongly Disagree	7	14%

Disagree	3	6%
Total	50	100%

Source: Field Survey, June 2011

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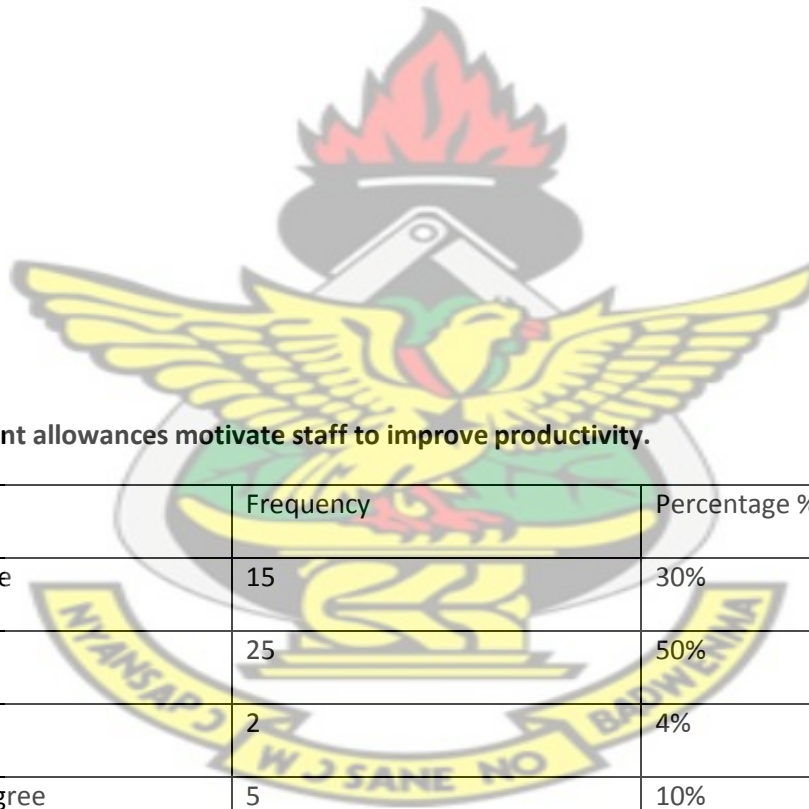
Table 4.14 Rent allowances motivate staff to improve productivity.

Response	Frequency	Percentage %
Strongly Agree	15	30%
Agree	25	50%
Uncertain	2	4%
Strongly Disagree	5	10%
Disagree	3	6%
Total	50	100%

Source: Field Survey June 2011

Another form through which worker could be motivated was by paying them rent allowances, in assessing whether rent allowances motivated the staff of Sham District Assembly to improve productivity, this study revealed that, majority of respondents (i.e. 50%) agreed that rent allowances motivated them to improve productivity compared with 6 percent who disagreed. Also 30 percent of respondents strongly agreed that rent allowances motivated them to improve productivity compared with 10 percent of respondents who strongly disagreed, the remaining 4 percent (i.e. minority) were uncertain. (See Table 4.14 above) Looking at the percentages of respondents who agreed, it could be concluded that, staff of the Assembly could be motivated by getting rent allowance to improve productivity.

4.3 EFFECTS OF INDIVIDUAL NEEDS ON PRODUCTIVITY OF EMPLOYEES

This section discusses the individual needs of the staff of the Shama District Assembly base on Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs (i.e. physiological, safety, social, self esteem, and self actualization needs) and how its important in motivating them to improve productivity.

In trying to explain how important the individual needs of Maslow (1954) was for the productivity of the employees of the Shama District Assembly, the study revealed that majority of respondents (i.e. 56%) ranked physiological needs as the most important need of Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs. This was followed by safety needs with 32 percent of respondents, self esteem need with 8 percent and social needs and self actualization had 2 percent (i.e. minority) each respectively. (See Table 4.15 below)

Furthermore, from table 4.15 below, majority of respondents (i.e. 50%) ranked safety need as important followed by 36 percent for physiological need, 8 percent for social needs, 4 percent for self esteem and 2 percent (i.e. minority) for self actualization.

In addition, from Table 4.15 below majority of respondents (i.e. 42%) were uncertain about the important of safety need in motivating them followed by 32 percent for social needs, 10 percent of respondents for physiological and self actualization need respectively and the remaining 6 percent (i.e. minority) for self esteem needs.

Moreover, Table 4.15 below showed that, 32 percent of respondent being majority represented physiological and self esteem needs each respectively were ranked as not important needs for motivating the staff of the Assembly to improve productivity, followed by 20 percent of respondent for safety need, (12%) for social needs and the remaining 4 percent (i.e. minority) for self actualization.

Again from Table 4.15 below, 42 percent being majority of respondents ranked self actualization need as the least important in motivating them to improve productivity followed by 26 percent for safety needs, 16 percent for safety and physiological needs each, 10 percent for social and the remaining 6 percent (i.e. minority) being for self esteem need.

Table 4.15 Ranking of employees needs

Ranking	Physiological Need		Safety Needs		Social Needs		Self Esteem Need		Self Actualization		Totals	
	Frequency	Percentage %	Frequency	Percentage %	Frequency	Percentage %	Frequency	Percentage %	Frequency	Percentage %	F	%
Most impor-tant	28	56	16	32	1	2	4	8	1	2	50	100
Impor-tant	18	36	25	50	4	8	3	4	1	2	50	100
Uncer-tain	5	10	21	42	16	32	3	6	5	10	50	100
Not impor-Tant	16	32	10	20	6	12	16	32	2	4	50	100
Least impor-Tant	8	16	13	26	5	10	3	6	21	42	50	100

Source: Field Survey, June 2011

The results confirmed Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs but revealed that, the staff of the Shama District Assembly believed in the physiological needs as being most important, followed by safety need, self esteem needs, social needs and self actualization. Therefore, the needs level of the staff of the Assembly did not conform to that of Maslow's (1954) hierarchy. In other words the Staff of the Shama District Assembly considered self esteem needs most important before the social and the self actualization needs.

4.4 EFFECT OF JOB SATISFACTION AND DISSATISFACTION ON PRODUCTIVITY OF EMPLOYEES

This section discusses job satisfaction and dissatisfaction factors such as salary, working environment, promotion, job security, appropriate disciplinary actions and interpersonal relationship. This section examined how these factors mentioned above causes job satisfaction and dissatisfaction among the staff of the Shama District Assembly and its effect on their productivity

It is common knowledge that people mostly work for salary however this study examined whether the salaries of staff of Shama District Assembly gave them job dissatisfaction and the results showed that, majority of respondents (i.e. 36%) agreed that their salary gave them job dissatisfaction compared with 6 percent (i.e minority) who disagreed. Again 14 percent of respondents strongly agreed that their salary gave them job dissatisfaction compared with 18 percent of respondents who strongly disagreed, whilst the remaining 26 percent were uncertain on their salary and their satisfaction level. (See Table 4.16 below)

However, this study seems to support Porter and Lawler (1972) investigation that where a higher pay is known by employee it enhances his/her performance and satisfaction. In other words, evidence rightly showed, the staff of the Assembly are dissatisfied with their salary hence the reasons why they thought their salaries gave them dissatisfaction since they claim it's scanty.

This empirical evidence also supported Hertzberg's (1959), Two factor theory confirming that when hygiene factors such as employees salaries present are not satisfactory to employees, they would be dissatisfied as in the case of Shama District Assembly

Table 4.16 My salary gives me job dissatisfaction

Response	Frequency	Percentage %
Strongly Agree	7	14%
Agree	18	36%
Uncertain	13	26%
Strongly Disagree	9	18%
Disagree	3	6%
Total	50	100%

Source: Field Survey, June 2011
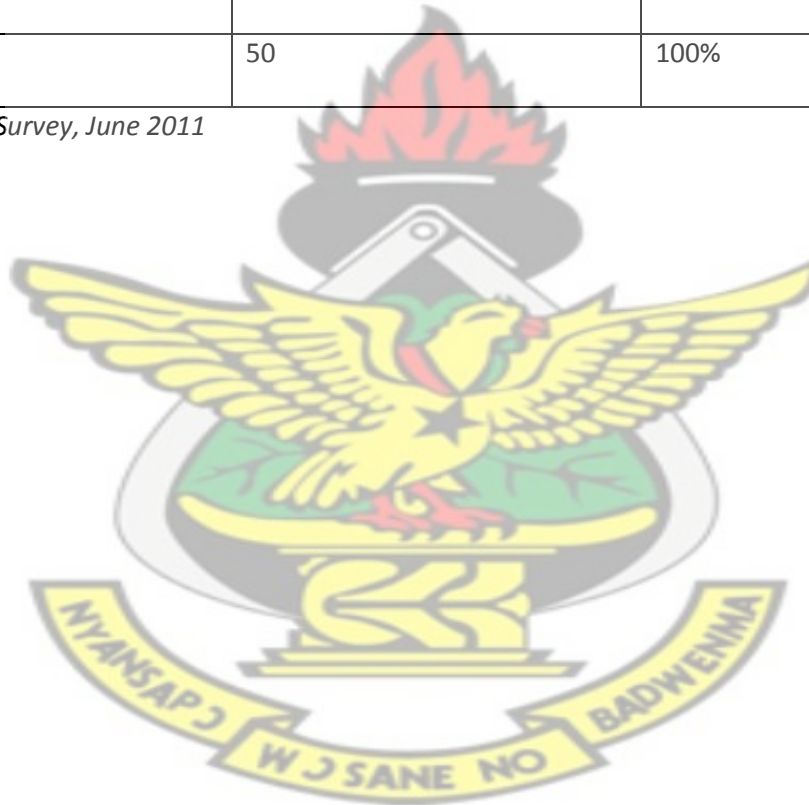
Table 4.17 A good working environment gives me job dissatisfaction

Response	Frequency	Percentage %
Strongly Agree	7	14%
Agree	13	26%

Uncertain	3	6%
Strongly Disagree	21	42%
Disagree	36	12%
Total	50	100%

Source: Field Survey, June 2011

In examining whether good working environment gave job satisfaction or dissatisfaction to staff of the Shama District Assembly the study revealed that, majority of respondents (i.e. 42%) strongly disagreed that a good working environment gave them job dissatisfaction compared with 14 percent who strongly agreed. On the other hand 26 percent of respondents agreed that a good working environment gave them job dissatisfaction compared with 12 percent who disagreed. The remaining, 6 percent (i.e. minority) were uncertain on the fact that good working environment gave them dissatisfaction. (See Table 4.17 above)

It can therefore be concluded from the results that good working environment gave job satisfaction to employee of the Shama District Assembly, refuting the fact of Herzberg's (1959), Two factor theory which identified good working environment as a cause of job dissatisfaction since it is an extrinsic factor.

In assessing whether promotion gave job satisfaction to staff of the Shama District Assembly the study showed that, majority of respondents (i.e. 44%) agreed that promotion gave them job satisfaction compared with 4 percent who disagreed. Again 36 percent of respondents strongly agreed that promotion gave them job satisfaction, compared with 2 percent (i.e. minority) who strongly disagreed and the remaining 14 percent were uncertain. (See Table 4.18 below)

Table 4.18 Promotion gives me job satisfaction

Response	Frequency	Percentage %
Strongly Agree	18	36%
Agree	22	44%
Uncertain	7	14%
Strongly Disagree	1	2%
Disagree	2	4%
Total	50	100%

Source: Field Survey June 2011

This result gave empirical evidence that the staff of the Shama District Assembly were motivated and satisfied to improve productivity when they are promoted.

Another way by which workers could be satisfied on their job includes salaries, job security just to mention two. This study tried to examine whether job security did give the staff of the Shama District Assembly job dissatisfaction and the result showed that majority of respondents (i.e. 36%) strongly disagreed that job security gave them job dissatisfaction compared with 16 percent who strongly agreed. Furthermore, 22 percent of respondents agreed that job security gave them job dissatisfaction compared with 14 percent who disagreed and the remaining 12 percent (i.e minority) were uncertain.(See Table 4.19 below)

Table 4.19 Job security gives me job dissatisfaction

Response	Frequency	Percentage %
Strongly Agree	8	16%
Agree	11	22%
Uncertain	6	12%
Strongly Disagree	18	36%
Disagree	7	14%
Total	50	100%

Source: Field Survey, June 2011

This study confirmed Herzberg's (1959) second group of factors called the hygiene factors which includes salary, interpersonal relationship job security just to mention a few. These factors creates favourable environment for motivation and prevented job dissatisfaction.

Furthermore, this study assessed whether appropriate disciplinary actions did make staff of the Shama District Assembly satisfied on their job and the results revealed that, the majority of respondents (i.e. 64%) agreed that appropriate disciplinary actions made them satisfied on their job compared with 4 percent who disagreed. Also 16 percent of respondents strongly agreed that appropriate disciplinary actions made them satisfied on their job compared with 2 percent being (i.e. minority) who strongly disagreed that disciplinary actions made them satisfied on their job and the remaining 14 percent of respondents were uncertain. (See Table 4.20 below)

Table 4.20 Appropriate disciplinary actions makes me satisfied on the job

Response	Frequency	Percentage %
Strongly Agree	8	16%
Agree	32	64%
Uncertain	7	14%
Strongly Disagree	1	2%
Disagree	2	4%
Total	50	100%

Source: Field Survey, June 2011

This again confirmed that appropriate discipline actions made the staff of Shama District Assembly satisfied on their job.

In examining whether interpersonal relationship did give the staff of the Shama District Assembly job dissatisfaction the study showed that, majority of respondents (i.e. 30%) disagreed that interpersonal relationship gave them job dissatisfaction compared with 26 percent of respondents who agreed. On the other hand, 24 percent of respondents strongly disagreed that interpersonal relationship gave them job dissatisfaction compared with 8 percent (i.e. minority) who strongly agreed whilst the remaining 12 percent were uncertain. (See Table 4.21 below)

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Table 4.21 Interpersonal relationship gives me job dissatisfaction

Response	Frequency	Percentage %
Strongly Agree	4	8%
Agree	13	26%
Uncertain	6	12%
Strongly Disagree	12	24%
Disagree	15	30%
Total	50	100%

Source: Field Survey, June 2011

Furthermore, this empirical evidence again supported Herzberg (1959) hygiene factors which includes; salary, interpersonal relationship and job security. These factors creates favourable environment for motivation and prevented job dissatisfaction.

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4.5 THE EFFECT OF REWARDS ON PRODUCTIVITY OF EMPLOYEES

Reward is a form of motivation in most organisations. This section discusses the effectiveness of rewards as a means of motivating the staff of the Assembly to improve productivity.

Table 4.22. Do you earn overtime for working extra hours

Response	Frequency	Percentage %
Yes	3	6%
No	47	94%
Total	50	100%

Source: Field Survey June 2011

In Ghana it is believed that most organizations work for 8 hours per day and any extra hour worked for after the normal time is termed overtime. In assessing whether the staff of the Shama District Assembly did earn overtime for working extra hours the study showed that, majority of respondents (i.e. 94%) said they did not earn overtime for working extra hours compared with 6 percent (i.e. minority) who said they did earn overtime. (See Table 4.22 Above)

Thorough investigation revealed that the Assembly did not have proper policy for overtime payment and even if they would pay, it takes a long time for them to pay such scanty allowances.

Again, an effective way of sustaining organizational productivity was rewarding high productivity. In examining whether high productivity should be rewarded among the staff of the Shama District Assembly the study revealed that, majority of respondents (i.e. 70%) strongly agreed that high productivity should be rewarded compared with 30 percent who also agreed. There was no respondent for strongly disagreed, uncertainty and disagreement. (See Table 4.23 below)

Table 4.23 High productivity should be rewarded

Response	Frequency	Percentage %
Strongly Agree	4	70%
Agree	13	30%
Uncertain	6	0%
Strongly Disagree	12	0%

Disagree	15	0%
Total	50	100%

Source: Field Survey, June 2011

In view of this result, it can be concluded that the evidence supported one of the factors given in Vroom's (1964) Expectancy Theory which suggested that outcomes with high valence should be used as incentive for improved performance. Henceforth high productivity should be reward as shown by the response of the Shama District Assembly staff.
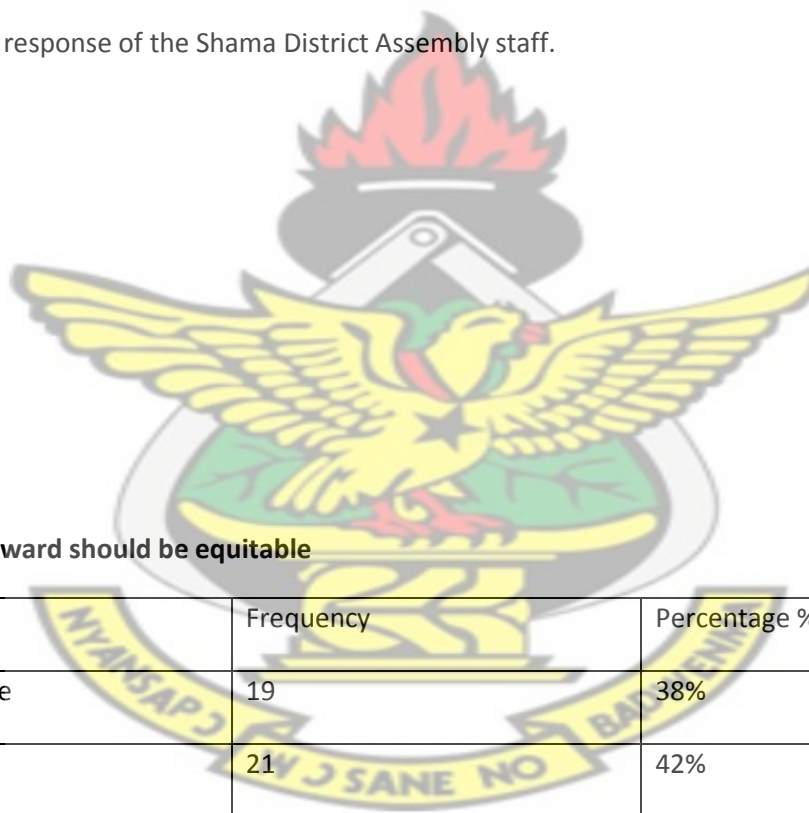
Table 4.24 Reward should be equitable

Response	Frequency	Percentage %
Strongly Agree	19	38%
Agree	21	42%
Uncertain	6	12%
Strongly Disagree	3	6%
Disagree	1	2%
Total	50	100%

Source: Field Survey, June 2011

In examining whether rewards should be equitable among the staff of the Shama District Assembly the study revealed that, majority of respondents (i.e. 42%) agreed that rewards should be equitable compared with 2 percent (i.e. minority) who disagreed. On the other hand, 38 percent of respondents strongly agreed that rewards should be equitable compared with 6 percent of respondents who strongly disagreed and the remaining 12 percent of respondents were uncertain. (See Table 4.24 above)

The results from the staff of the Assembly confirmed Adams' (1965) equity theory that assumed that individuals who work on exchange of rewards from organization are motivated by the desire to be equitably treated at work. It could also be concluded that the staff agreed to the fact that, the ratio of their effort to their reward is equivalent to the ratio of other similar employees. (Gibson, et al, 2000, 164 – 165)

This study supports Jaques' (1961) research that revealed that reward should be clearly related to effort or level of responsibility and people should not receive less money than they deserve compared with their fellow workers which he called Felt Fair Principle.

Table 4.25 Rewards should be tied with productivity

Response	Frequency	Percentage %
Strongly Agree	18	36%

Agree	25	50%
Uncertain	1	2%
Strongly Disagree	4	8%
Disagree	2	4%
Total	50	100%

Source: Field Survey, June 2011

In addition the study tried to assess whether rewards should be tied with productivity among the staff of the Shama District Assembly and the results showed that, majority of respondents (i.e. 50%) agreed that rewards should be tied with productivity compared with 4 percent who disagreed. Again 36 percent of respondents strongly agreed that rewards should be tied with productivity compared with 8 percent of respondents who strongly disagreed, the remaining 2 percent (i.e. minority) were uncertain.(See Table 4.25 above)

It can therefore be concluded from the findings that staff of the Shama District Assembly agreed that, they could be motivated to improve productivity when their rewards are tied with their productivity.

Table 4.26 Organization must meet employees need in order to increase productivity

Response	Frequency	Percentage %
Strongly Agree	22	44%
Agree	24	48%

Uncertain	4	8%
Strongly Disagree	0	0%
Disagree	0	0%
Total	50	100%

Source: Field Survey, June 2011

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Again, in assessing the view of the staff of the Shama District Assembly on whether the organisation should meet employees need in order for them to increase productivity the study revealed that, majority of respondents (i.e. 48%) agreed that the organization must meet employees need in order to increase production compared with 8 percent of respondents (i.e. minority) who were uncertain, the remaining (44%) also strongly agreed that the organization must meet employees need in order to increase production, There was no respondent for disagreements. (See Table 4.26 above)

This empirical evidence supported the needs theories of Maslow (1954) and Alderfer (1972) that in whatever way the needs of employees should be met in order to motivate them to increase production which the staff of the Shama District Assembly are no exception.

4.6 THE EFFECT OF EMPLOYEE PARTICIPATION IN GOAL AND TARGET SETTING ON PRODUCTIVITY

This section discusses and explains whether really employees participation in goal and target setting have any effects on the productivity of the staff of the Shama District Assembly.

In assessing whether goals must be acceptable to employees to enable them work achieved them, an interviewed among the staff of the Shama District Assembly showed that, majority of respondents (i.e. 62%) agreed that goals must be acceptable to employees. Again, 38 percent strongly agreed that goals must be acceptable to employees. There were no respondents for disagreements and uncertainty. (See Table 4.27 below)

Table 4.27 Goals must be acceptable to employees

Response	Frequency	Percentage %
Strongly Agree	19	38%
Agree	31	62%
Uncertain	0	0%
Strongly Disagree	0	0%
Disagree	0	0%
Total	50	100%

Source: Field Survey, June 2011

This study confirmed Bateman and Snell's (1999) study findings that goals must be acceptable to employees so that they have reason to pursue the goals. It can therefore be concluded that the staffs of the Shama District Assembly believes that goals should be acceptable to them in order for them to be motivated to improve productivity.

Table 4.28 Goals should be specific, quantifiable and measurable

Response	Frequency	Percentage %
Strongly Agree	25	50%
Agree	20	40%
Uncertain	5	10%
Strongly Disagree	0	0%
Disagree	0	0%
Total	50	100%

Source: Field Survey, June 2011

Furthermore, it is believed that goals should be specific, quantifiable and measurable for them to be achievable. An interview among the Staff of the Shama District Assembly to assess whether goals should be specific, quantifiable and measurable showed that, majority of respondents (i.e. 50%) strongly agreed that goals should be specific, quantifiable and measurable compared with 10 percent (i.e. minority) who were uncertain. The remaining 40 percent of respondents also agreed that goals should be specific, quantifiable and measurable. On the other hand, there were no disagreements. (See Table 4.28 above)

The results again supported Batman and Snell's (1999) findings that goals should be specific, quantifiable and measurable. It can therefore be concluded that the staff of the Shama District Assembly accepted the fact that, for goals to be motivating to improve productivity it should be specific, quantified and measureable.

Table 4.29 Setting target with subordinates improve productivity

Response	Frequency	Percentage %
Strongly Agree	17	34%
Agree	27	54%
Uncertain	4	8%
Strongly Disagree	0	0%
Disagree	2	4%
Total	50	100%

Source: Field Survey, June 2011

Again it is assumed that employees participation in goals and target setting did motivate them to improve productivity and an interview among the staff of the Shama District Assembly revealed that majority of respondents (i.e. 54%) strongly agreed that setting targets with subordinates improved productivity compared with 4 percent (i.e. minority) who disagreed. Moreover 34 percent of respondents also strongly agreed that setting targets with subordinate, improved productivity, but 8 percent of respondents were uncertain. There were no respondent for strongly disagreement. (See Table 4.29 above) It could henceforth be concluded that staff of the Assembly agreed that targets setting with subordinate improve productivity.

This study supported Miner's (1980) practical implications of goal setting that "employee motivation and commitment are higher, leading to higher performance, when they participate in setting of goals".

Table 4.30 Do you participate in setting targets

Response	Frequency	Percentage %
Yes	18	36%
No	32	64%
Total	50	100%

Source: Field Survey, June 2011

In assessing whether the staff of the Shama District Assembly did participate in setting targets the study showed that, the majority of respondents (i.e. 64%) did not participate in settings targets compared with 36 percent (i.e. minority) who did participate in setting targets.

Further investigations revealed that it is only the senior staff who are part of management (that is heads of departments) did participate in setting targets. This in other words revealed that, due to this problem, other staff's who are majority and not part of the setting of targets have difficulty in helping to achieve the targets.

4.7 JOB DESIGN MOTIVATES EMPLOYEES TO IMPROVE PRODUCTIVITY

The issue of how job should be designed has always been a problem in organizations. This section discusses and examines whether job design and it forms such as job rotation and enrichment motivated the staff of the Shama District Assembly to improve productivity.

Job design is claimed to be one of the ways by which employees could be motivated to give of their best. Therefore an investigation to assess the effect of properly designed jobs on the productivity of the Shama District Assembly revealed that, majority of respondent (i.e. 54%) agreed that properly designed jobs motivated them to improve productivity as compared to 4 percent of respondents (i.e. minority) who strongly disagreed. Again 32 percent of respondents strongly agreed that properly designed jobs motivated them to improve productivity whilst the remaining 10 percent of respondents were uncertain. There was no respondent for disagreement. (See Table 4.31 below)

Table 4.31 Properly designed jobs motivate staffs to improve productivity

Response	Frequency	Percentage %
Strongly Agree	16	32%
Agree	27	54%
Uncertain	5	10%
Strongly Disagree	2	4%
Disagree	0	0%
Total	50	100%

Source: Field Survey, June 2011

This can therefore be concluded that, properly designed jobs motivated staff to improve productivity as a result of the study among staff of the Shama District Assembly.

In assessing whether job rotation did motivate the staff of the Shama District Assembly to improve productivity, according to respondents interviewed revealed that majority of respondents (i.e. 48%) agreed that job rotation motivated them to improve productivity compared with 2 percent (i.e. minority) who strongly disagreed. On the other hand 18 percent of respondents strongly agreed that job rotation motivated them to improve productivity compared with 12 percent of respondents who disagreed. However, the remaining 20 percent of respondents were uncertain that job rotation motivated them to improve productivity. (See Table 4.32 below)

Table 4.32 Job rotation motivates staff to improve productivity

Response	Frequency	Percentage %
Strongly Agree	9	18%
Agree	24	48%
Uncertain	10	20%
Strongly Disagree	1	2%
Disagree	6	12%
Total	50	100%

Source: Field Survey, June 2011

This empirical evidence confirmed DeCenzo and Silhanek's (2002), job designed theory that suggested that job rotation could renew employees enthusiasm for learning and motivate them to perform better.

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Finally, in examining whether job enrichment would increase productivity among the staff of the Shama District Assembly, according to respondents interviewed showed that majority of respondents (i.e. 32%) agreed that job enrichment increased their productivity compared with 4 percent (i.e. minority) who disagreed. Furthermore, 30 percent of respondent strongly agreed that job enrichment increased their productivity compared

with 8 percent who strongly disagreed. However, the remaining 26 percent of respondents were uncertain that job enrichment would increase their productivity. (See Table 4.33 below)

Table 4.33 Job enrichment will increase productivity of employees

Response	Frequency	Percentage %
Strongly Agree	15	30%
Agree	16	32%
Uncertain	13	26%
Strongly Disagree	4	8%
Disagree	2	4%
Total	50	100%

Source: Field Survey, June 2011

The results above, again supported DeCenzo and Silhanek's (2002) job designed theory that job enrichment increase employee's motivation and give them better quality of work life (QWL). Therefore increasing production as indicated by the staff of the District Assembly.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter summarizes the findings made, offer recommendations and draw conclusions for the study.

5.1 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The study was to identify the impact of the various forms of motivation among staff of the Shama District Assembly. In all, fifty respondents were selected randomly from the population of one hundred and forty. A questionnaire of forty closed and opened ended questions were administered to them and the answered questionnaires were collected and analysed for the study.

The results of the study showed that, various forms of motivation were identified to exist at the District Assembly which includes trust, respect and high expectation, money, staff development, praise and recognition, and good accommodation motivated them to improve productivity. However, bonuses, car loans and rent allowances which are also forms of motivation were not

available currently but from the findings, the staff agreed its availability would motivate them to improve productivity.

In addition, the study tried to identify the individual needs that motivated the staff of Shama District Assembly to improve productivity. This study revealed that staff of the Assembly agreed that the presence of the needs identified by Maslow (1954) motivated them to improve productivity. However, the findings of the study did show that after physiological and safety needs, the self esteem needs should be satisfied before the social and self actualization need which was contrary to Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs. Henceforth, for management of the Assembly to improve productivity, they should meet the needs of its staff.

This study also revealed that, good working environment, promotion, job security, appropriate disciplinary actions and interpersonal relationship gave the staff job satisfaction whereas their salary as it stands now gave them job dissatisfaction therefore, hindering productivity of the Shama District Assembly.

Moreover, the study identified whether rewards did motivate staff to improve productivity at the Shama District Assembly. The Assembly was identified as not paying staff overtime allowance for working extra hours. Again, the staff agreed that high productivity should be rewarded, equitable and tied to productivity.

This notwithstanding, the study also explained whether staff participation in setting goals and targets motivated them to improve productivity. However, findings showed that most staff did not participate in setting goals and targets for the Assembly. Though, staff agreed that setting targets with them would help improved productivity. The research findings also revealed that goals should be acceptable to employees, should be challenging but attainable and should be specific, quantifiable and measurable.

Finally, the study examined whether properly designed jobs and forms of job designed did motivate staff of the Shama District Assembly to improve productivity. The findings again revealed that forms of job design such as job rotation and job enrichment did motivate staff to improve productivity

5.2 Recommendations

The following recommendations outlined below if heeded to would help improve the very few motivational strategies used by the management of the Assembly to further encourage staff of the Shama District Assembly to contribute immensely to improve productivity. Among these were firstly, the management of the Assembly should try and include bonuses, car loans and rent allowance for those who do not have access to the assembly's accommodation facilities since the study revealed that such motivational forms when provided would also help improve staff productivity and by identifying the individual needs of their staff and satisfying them accordingly would enable them improve their productivity.

Again, management should try and improve the salaries structure of staff since they were dissatisfied with their salaries and was affecting productivity.

In addition, management should ensure that, productivity of staff were awarded and rewarded equitably.

Finally, the findings revealed that large numbers of staff were not involved in goal and target setting. The study recommended that management should try and engage staff if not all, most of them in goals and target setting for the Assembly.

5.3 Conclusion

The findings of the study revealed that motivational forms such as trust, respect and high expectation, money, staff development, praise and recognition, bonuses, good accommodation, car loans and rent allowance motivated staff of the Assembly to improve productivity.

Again, employees' individual needs should be taken into consideration when planning for the Shama District Assembly, since its identification and satisfaction motivated staff of the Assembly.

Furthermore, rewards should be tired with productivity and should be equitable in order to enhance improved productivity of staff of the Assembly. Moreover, staff should also be involved in goal and target setting to motivate them to work towards achieving it.

Finally, the study confirmed it objectives indicating that motivation have drastic positive effect on productivity of the staff of the Shama District Assembly. Also conforming Owusu-Acheaw's (2002) study that revealed that where staff welfare was catered for, several motivational avenues and incentive packages available boost the morale of staff to improve productivity as in the case of the three special libraries in Ghana.

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APPENDIX A

Questionnaire for staff of Shama District Assembly.

This questionnaire has been designed to obtain information on the effect of motivation on organizational productivity of employees. It is in partial fulfillment of the award of master's degree from KNUST. Any information given would be treated as confidential. THANK YOU.

Section A: **Demographic information of respondents**

1.   Sex of respondents: (a) male [   ]   (b) female [   ]

2.   Age of respondents: (a) 20-30 [   ]   (b) 30-40 [   ]   (c) 40-50 [   ]   (d) 50-60 [   ]

3.   Position of respondents: (a) Senior member   [   ]   (b) Senior staff [   ]   (c) Junior staff [   ]

4.   How long have you worked in the organisation: (a) Below 1 year [   ]   (b) 1-5years [   ]

        (c) 6-10years [   ]   (d) 11-15years [   ]   (e) 16-20years [   ]   (f) 20-25years [   ]

5.   Which Department do you work?..

6.   What is your educational attainment? (a) Elementary/Basic [   ]   (b)   Secondary [   ]

(c) University [ ]   (d) Polytechnic [ ]   (e) Professional [ ]

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Section B: forms of motivation (Please tick appropriate columns below)

(a) SA – Strongly agree, (b) A-Agree, (c) U – Uncertain, (d) SD – Strongly Disagree,   (e) D – Disagree
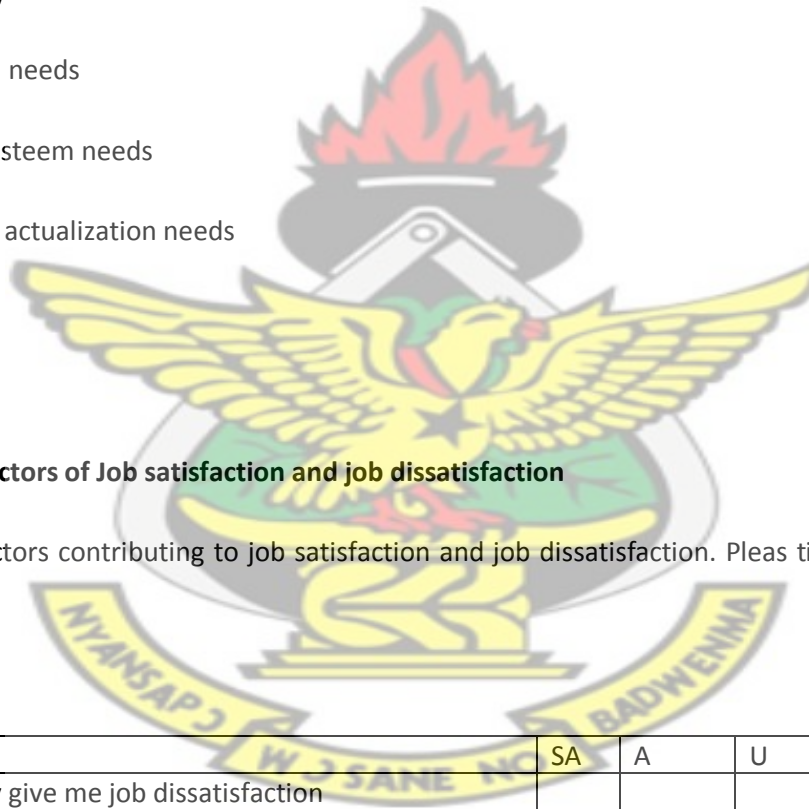
Statements	SA	A	U	SD	D
7. Trust, respect and high expectation motivate employees					
8. Money is a motivator					
9. Staff development is a good motivator					
10. Praise and recognition is a good motivator					
11. Bonuses motivates employees to improve productivity					
12. Good accommodation motivates employees to perform well					
13. Car loans motivates staffs to improve productivity					
14. Rent allowances motivates staffs improve productivity					

Section C Individual needs

The following five terms are employees needs at the workplace, please rank them from 1 to5. A ranking of 1 is the most important and 5 is the least important. (1-most important,

2-important, 3-Uncertain, 4-not important, 5-least important)

15.   Physiological needs

16.   Safety needs

17.   Social needs

18.   Self-esteem needs

19.   Self – actualization needs

Section D: **Factors of Job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction**

Below are factors contributing to job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. Pleas tick the appropriate column.

Statements	SA	A	U	SD	D
20. My salary give me job dissatisfaction					
21. A good working environment gives me job dissatisfaction					
22. Promotion gives me job satisfaction					
23. Job security gives me job dissatisfaction					
24. Appropriate disciplinary makes me satisfied on the job					
25. Employees assistance programs gives me job satisfaction					
26. Interpersonal relationship gives me job dissatisfaction					

Section E: **Rewards for productivity**

27.   Do you earn overtime for working extra hours? (a) Yes   [ ]   (b) No [ ]

28.   Give reasons for your answer in question 27……………………………………………

Statements	SA	A	U	SD	D
29. High productivity should be rewarded					
30. Rewards should be equitable					
31. Rewards should be tied with productivity					
32. The organization must meet employees need in order to increase productivity					

Section F: Goal and target setting

Statements	SA	A	U	SD	D
33. Goals must be acceptable to employees					
34. Goals should be specific, quantifiable, and measurable					
35. Setting targets with subordinates improve productivity					

36.   Do you participate in setting targets?   (a) Yes [ ]   (b) No [ ]

37.   Give reasons for your answer in question 36…………………………………………….

……………………………………………………………………………………………

Section G: Jobs redesign

Statement	SA	A	U	SD	D
38. Properly designed jobs motivates staffs to improve productivity					
39. Job rotation motivates staffs to improve productivity					
40. Job enrichment will increase productivity of employees					