

**UNIVERSITY OF GHANA**

**WORKERS' PERCEPTIONS OF SOURCES OF  
MOTIVATION IN PUBLIC ORGANISATIONS  
A CASE STUDY OF THE GHANA  
POLICE SERVICE**

**BY**

**EBENEZER SAM**

**(10020942)**



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### Declaration

I, hereby, declare that, except for references to other peoples' works which have been duly acknowledged, this work is the result of my own research carried out in the Sociology Department, University of Ghana, Legon, under the supervision of Dr. Dan-Bright S. Dzorgbo and Dr. Stephen Afranie. This research has not been presented elsewhere for another degree and all errors in the presentation are solely mine.

.....

EBENEZER SAM

(STUDENT)



.....  
DR. DAN-BRIGHT S. DZORGBO

(SUPERVISOR)

.....  
DR. STEPHEN AFRANIE

(SUPERVISOR)

## Dedication

To God [the author of my life] be the glory

To my dear wife, Rebecca Afua Sam, my son Angel Gabriel Fiifi-Sam and everyone who has made our running smooth and faster and added zest, laughter and love to the race.

.....



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## Abstract

The Ghana Police Service (GPS) relies to a large extent on human labour. Motivation is critical in service delivery in the area of protection of lives and property, maintenance of law and order, as well as public safety and internal security. This study, therefore, adopted the needs-based theory in examining the perceptions of personnel salary, training, promotion and fringe benefits as a set of motivational tools. In addition, study assesses the perceptions of personnel of managerial and workplace conditions, supervision and interpersonal relationships, workload and participation in decision-making. It also examines ways by which the personnel of the GPS can be effectively motivated to enhance performance. The study employed both qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection, where publications, journals, personal interviews and other literary work were used. The systematic sampling technique was used to select personnel; data were collected by use of self-administered structured and semi-structured questionnaires. Findings of the study revealed that, although the personnel of the GPS considered all the variables presented to them as sources of motivation, not all of these variables were perceived as motivating. Among the nine motivational tools, only fringe benefits, workplace conditions, and supervision and interpersonal relationships were perceived as motivating by the personnel. There rest, including the salary levels and participation in decision-making did not motivate personnel. Some motivational tools which could motivate personnel were not in the notice of management. In conclusion, the study recommends that the management of the GPS should review the motivational strategies in the Service. This is because the elements of motivation in the Ghana Police Service contribute immensely to the performance of the personnel. Second, management of the GPS should include the personnel in the review of the motivational tools. This will enhance the decision-making process of the Service which the respondents considered non-participatory.

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## CHAPTER ONE

### MOTIVATION IN THE PUBLIC ORGANISATIONS

#### 1.0 Introduction

Motivation is an indispensable subject as far as performance in public organisations is concerned. The willingness of workers to exert and maintain an effort towards organisational mission is to great extent a function of their motivation levels. Thus, when existing elements of motivation are not perceived to be satisfactory by workers, they are likely to find ways to compensate for this. For instance, they will become more concerned with earning enough to cover their basic needs in ways other than to concentrate on their duties. Alternatively, workers may also resort to strike actions as Ghana has been experiencing for the past years as far Government workers are concerned. In recent years, government workers are not only criticized for non-performance, they also criticized by the general public for issuing threats of boycotts and strike actions or embarking on them.

Ghana Police Service is one of the public organisations that has received its fair share of public criticisms with regards to public expectations and performance. The Service is perceived as corrupt, slow and irresponsive in the area of its mission of maintaining law and order as well as ensuring safety and security (Myjoyonline.com: July 9, 2013). Unfortunately, by the very nature of its mandate, the Police personnel are not supposed to embark on strike action to register their grievances when they feel to do so. The gap between public expectations and the actual performance of police personnel suggests the need to re-visit the organisational drivers of human performance in the Service.

Moorhead and Griffin (1995) associate the difference between highly effective organisation and less effective to the motivational profiles of their employees. For Moorhead and Griffin, human beings work for a wide variety of reasons. Some want money, some want challenge, and some want security. This means that determining motivation to work requires taking into consideration individual uniqueness. This study is an attempt to contribute to the discussion on performance management by drawing attention of the Service to personnel's perceptions of sources of motivation in designing appropriate motivational packages to influence employees towards achieving organisational goals. It is appropriate to engage in this research on account of the pressing need to get the police personnel to improve upon their performance in the light of increasing demands on the Service.

## 1.2

## Background

### **and Structure of the Ghana Police Service**

The Ghana Police Service (GPS), as a law-enforcement agency, has undergone much transformation, dating back from the pre-colonial times, through the colonial period, to the post-independence era (GPS; Strategic Policing Plan, 2010). The coming into force of the 1992 Constitution of Ghana signaled the beginning of an epoch of revolutionising the principles and practice of policing to make the Police Service human-centred with public safety and human rights issues becoming the core components that influence and guide the operations and strategies for realising the overall objectives of protecting life and property and maintaining law and order (GPS; Annual Report, 2009).

“The Force predates the country’s independence, in 1957, by over one hundred years. The first Gold Coast Militia and Police were known to have been put together by the British around 1844 from private troops guarding the coastal forts and castles” (GPS; Strategic Policing Plan, 2010 : p.23). The Gold Coast Militia and Police operated as armed force or private army. They were formed to protect the colonial regime and for that matter the interest of the British. The personnel were used to protect the British officials as they engaged in escort duties, safeguarded government strategic installations and enforced law and order. This the personnel did by use of brutish force. They had power to take people into custody.

The British had full control over the Gold Coast in 1871 and by 1876 “the Force was renamed the Gold Coast Constabulary with about 700 men. At this period, the line of authority or hierarchy could be explained as master-servant relations rooted in Douglas McGregor’s Theory X (McGregor, 1960). In this type of hierarchical relations, the personnel were to obey orders from above. Besides, powers were concentrated at the top to the extent that the personnel having little regard for the use of discretion. Threats and coercion were, therefore, used to gain compliance from subordinates. It was at this period that the personnel had very little motivation to work. Two factors could be attributed / related to this. First, the recruitment into the Service was a matter of force. The chiefs at the time were used by the British Government to forcefully recruit young energetic men into the Service. As a result of people’s general dislike for British rule, these personnel were seen not only as part of exploitative machinery used by the British Government but also stooges who run the errands of the “Whiteman” without questioning. Second, the personnel of the Service had little respect and motivation as most of them entered the Service against their will. Besides, the use of coercive force by the personnel in their

operations to achieve the objectives of the colonial masters made the Service quite unattractive. Perhaps, the only motivation available at the time could be the training offered to personnel, provision of logistics as well as the chance of taking part in missions abroad.

By independence, “the work force had expanded to 6,000 officers and to about 19,000 in 1970 / 71. The size of the Police Service declined to 15,484 in 1992 and by 2001 there were 14,412 officers servicing a population of 18.9 million, which is more than double the population of 1970 / 1971” (GPS; Strategic Policing Plan, 2010: p.24). In December 2005 the GPS had 17,944 officers serving a population of 21.12 million – hence - indicating a police-population ratio of 1:1,178. By December, 2008 there were 23,702 officers, serving a population of 23.9 million Ghanaians, resulting to a police - population ratio of 1:1,008 (GPS; Strategic Policing Plan, 2010).

Since independence, the Service has played a principal role as far as the criminal justice system of the country is concerned. The Service is the most visible arm of government as the symbol of law and order to the people of Ghana. The work of Ghana Police is guided by the 1992 Constitution of Ghana, the Police Service Act, 1970 (Act 350) as well as the Police Force (Amendment) Act 1974 (NRC D. 303). The Service is also governed by the Police Service (Administration) Regulations, 1974 (LI 880) and the Police Service (Disciplinary Proceedings) Regulations, 1974 (LI 993) (Ministry of the Interior, 2010). It is one of the fourteen public services in Ghana by Article 190 (1) (a) of the same Constitution (GPS; Strategic Policing Plan, 2010).

However, since the Service retain most of the structure and the principles bequeathed them by the British, one can find an element of this sort of relations in the Service presently. In its current structure, the Ghana Police Service maintains a regimented and hierarchical arrangement with the Inspector-General of Police (IGP) at the top, followed by the Deputy Inspector-General of Police (DIGP) who assists the IGP in the management of the Service. There are also eleven (11) Director-Generals and twelve (12) Regional Commanders who head various Schedules and Police Regions respectively. These Schedules and Regions are divided into Departments, Units, Divisions, Districts, Stations and Posts which are headed by appropriate Senior Police Officers and personnel at the inspectorate level (GPS; Strategic Policing Plan, 2010). The structure and hierarchal nature of the Service could be the consequences of the way it was organised by the British. The personnel took instruction from their European superiors and administrators. They were made to safeguard the regime rather than seeking the needs and providing security to the people.

Nevertheless, this kind of relationship had been modified to suit the present democratic principles of the country. As the current name implies, the Service (Force) has undergone some transformation since Ghana's independence from its crude force orientation and operation to a Service, particularly with the coming into force of the 1992 Constitution of Ghana, focusing on the protection of the public and community safety with individual rights being the major factor that determines and direct the operations and strategies for reaching out to the public, particularly the vulnerable.

The Constitution enjoins the Service to run on independent policing principles. Currently, the Service is dedicated to a constant transformation of its services from traces of its martial and coercive policing outlook into one functioning on the democratic viewpoint and globally accepted best practices of providing safe, calm and non-violent community policing services (GPS; Strategic Policing Plan, 2010).

The responsibilities of the Police Service are to protect life and property, prevent and detect crime, apprehend offenders, maintain law and order as well as ensure safety of persons and property (Ministry of the Interior, 2010). Though these responsibilities have been specified or spelt out and the institutions governing them have also been developed over the years, these do not necessarily guarantee maximum performance by the personnel. Experts indicate that workers do perform in relation to availability / existence of certain motivational elements (Adkins, Werbel, and Fahr 2001; Ashford, Lee, and Bobko 1989; Davy, Kinicki, and Scheck 1997). Therefore, to improve the performance of the Ghana Police Service personnel, management of the Service cannot disregard motivation.

One aspect of motivation that has been taken for granted over the years but being considered in this work is how the perceptions of personnel of sources of motivation affect the efficacy of those motivational elements.

### **1.3 Statement of the Problem**

The mission of the Ghana Police Service is “to deliver services in crime prevention, detection, apprehension and prosecution of offenders, consistent with the expectation of Ghanaian

stakeholders for maximum protection, safe, secure and peaceful communities” (Ghana Police Service, 2010: p.13). This mission cannot be materialized exclusive of the desire of the police personnel to bring to bear and sustain an effort towards organisational goal. Motivation to accept a post, to remain at that post and perform to expectation is related to meeting needs of job security and salaries among other factors. As noted by Herzberg (1959), an organisation or institution can attract and retain personnel in their posts through good salaries, allowances, favourable working environment and the availability of equipment among others. Moreover, once conditions of work are not felt to be adequate and inspiring by personnel of the Service, they are may be tempted to sacrifice the organisational goals at the expense of personal interest. The personnel possibly will take on other engagement that will bring them additional resources to make up their unmet desires instead of concentrating on their corporate responsibilities.

Since perception is how an individual considers, thinks and understands the value of something in relation to his / her life; finding the personnel’s perceptions of sources of motivation should precede the adoption of a particular theory of motivation. Failure to do this would likely result in a one-size-fit-all theory or system of motivation. Such a theory would result in the provision of certain conditions which would not motivate the intended target. Unfortunately, studies about workers motivation have focused on elements of motivation such as job satisfaction (Adkins, Werbel, and Fahr 2001; Ashford, Lee, and Bobko 1989; Davy, Kinicki, and Scheck 1997), organisational commitment (Adkins, Werbel, and Fahr 2001; Ashford, Lee, and Bobko 1989; Davy, Kinicki, and Scheck 1997; Pfeffer 1998), performance bonus (Heinrich, 2005) and job insecurity (Burchell 1999), rather than the perception of workers about these elements to inform decision-making.

Internal security is deemed to be critical not only for accelerated socio-economic development, but also for the attainment of sustainable development, which is contingent on the maintenance of peace, security and stability. Peace, security and favourable environment are sine qua non for successful execution of critical developmental projects, be it in the oil or the manufacturing industry, agriculture, health, education, tourism and Foreign Direct Investment. Thus, accelerated socio-economic development can only succeed in a safe and secure environment.

The Police play a critical role in ensuring peace, security and maintenance of law and order. In that respect, motivation should be of concern to management of the Service. In Ghana, the Police are often seen as corrupt, slow and ineffective. For instance, the 2013 Global Corruption Barometer released by Transparency International indicated that, Police Service was for the third year running, ranked as the institution perceived to be the most corrupt in the country (Myjoyonline.com: July 9, 2013). This raises the question whether the Police are not motivated enough. Since Police personnel are the law enforcers, if they are not motivated enough, it means peace and order which is most important for social existence, investment and development cannot be achieved.

Ghanaians are anxiously hoping for a more peaceful, safe, and orderly society. It is therefore, of paramount importance to empirically discern the feelings and attitudes that the key actors (police personnel) have about their job experiences, their current expectations, and available alternatives. A progressive approach must be developed to maximize satisfaction of these diverse groups' needs and minimize subordination of the organisation's good to their personal goals. The study is intended to create an avenue for in-depth discussions of the perceptions of the elements of

motivation of the personnel of the Ghana Police Service. The study contends that motivation strategies cannot achieve the intended results unless their adoption is informed by the perceptions of the majority of the target personnel. The study therefore seeks to contribute in this direction by highlighting how the workers' perceptions of sources of motivation will tend to influence how they respond to a particular motivational element adopted by management.

#### **1.4 Objectives of the Study**

The general objective of this study is to examine police personnel perceptions of sources of motivation and their general level of satisfaction with conditions of service in the Ghana Police Service. Specifically, the study seeks:

1. To examine personnel's perceptions of salary, training and career development, promotion and career progression, and fringe benefits as a set of motivational tools and strategies.
2. To assess personnel's perceptions of workload, participation in decision-making, workplace characteristics, supervision and interpersonal relationship, and managerial characteristics.
3. On the basis of the research findings recommend ways by which the personnel of the Ghana Police Service can be effectively motivated to enhance performance.

#### **1.5 Significance of the Study**

The study is significant in many ways. First, it seeks to add to the research in the field of public sector performance management. Thus, the study is to fill some of the existing gaps in the literature regarding workers' perception of sources of motivation in the public sector in general and the Ghana Police Service in particular.

Second, by investigating the problem from social psychological lenses, the study seeks to unravel the extent of adequacy of existing motivators from the personnel's point of view. It is believed that knowing how the personnel perceive the existing system of motivation will not only add to the body of knowledge in Social Psychology, but it will also provide room for continuous research, as well as serve as useful material to researchers and students in the related fields of study.

Third, the study seeks to provide useful information on issues of motivation which is essential to performance management. The management of the Ghana Police Service may find the result of this study beneficial as they pursue their mission of protecting life and property.

The findings of the study will be useful for policy formulation and decision-making in the Service's efforts of transforming its operations to be in line with new democratic principles and to offer a more peaceful, safe, and orderly society for Ghanaians. It is expected that, the output of the research will assist the management of the Service to empirically discern the mind-set and attitudes that personnel have concerning their job experiences and their present expectations. This will provide an in-depth knowledge on alternatives as far as an effective strategy of motivating personnel of GPS is concerned. This should aid the management of the Service to adopt appropriate progressive approach to maximize satisfaction of the varied needs of personnel so as to reduce the tendency of sacrificing the organisation's good on the altar. In this case, the practices and actions of the personnel are expected to be line with organisation goals.

## 1.6 Definition of Key Concepts

The following concepts have been defined to assist in understanding of the work since they will be used extensively in the study.

**Perception:** Is how an individual considers, thinks and understands the value of something in relation to his / her life Kroeger and Thuesen (1992). In this way, if a person feels that the existing elements of motivation will help to improve his / her well being, he / she will react positively and exert greater effort. Contrarily, if a person feels that the existing elements of motivation is not beneficial in relation to his / her life, it is likely that he /she will not be motivated to excel – hence will react negatively.

Therefore in an organisational setting, the interpretation that an employee gives to sources of motivation influences his / her attitude toward an organisational goal. For instance, in a situation where an employee feels that there exist well structured opportunity for career advancement and it happens that, career advancement is what that individual is yearning for; then it is likely that he / she will be encouraged to give off his / her best in anticipation of such an opportunity than otherwise.

**Motivation:** A set of forces that initiate behaviours and determine its form, direction, intensity and duration. “Motivation has been defined as an act of stimulating someone to take a desired cause of action – to push the right button to get a desire reaction. Motivation concerns itself with the will to work. It seeks to know the motive for work and to find out ways and means, by which their realisation can be helped and encouraged” (Ghosh, 2000, p152).

**Reward:** Something that is given or received in return for working. Public organisations employees receive monthly salary as their reward. Rewards are of two types – intrinsic and extrinsic. Both are desirable outcomes but Porter and Lawler (1968) are of the view that the

intrinsic rewards are much more likely to produce aptitude about satisfaction that is related to performance.

**Reward System:** A set of package or benefits that is made available to employees. There can be monetary rewards and non-monetary rewards.

**Salary:** The money paid to somebody for regular work done. It is usually paid at the end of the month.

**Promotion:** The process of raising somebody or of being raised to a higher position for a more important job. A job could have an excellent promotion prospects and that may motivate employees to aspire higher. “A promotion is the transfer of employee to a new position which commands higher pay, privileges or status compared with the old. It is a vertical move in rank and responsibility. Promotion usually implies several things to the person concerned – higher status, both at work and in the community, more pay and fringe benefits, perhaps greater security and a more senior position from which a person renders better services to his company”(Ghosh, 2000 : p103)

**Training:** The process of preparing employees to perform a particular job or skill well or it is the acquisition of skills, which are needed to perform a particular job. The term training indicates the process involved in improving the aptitudes, skills and abilities of the employees to perform specific jobs. Training helps in updating old talents and developing new ones. (Ghosh, 2000: 205) Training has a more immediate concern and has been associated with improving the

knowledge and skills of non managerial employees in the present job. Example of training is IT training.

**Development:** This is a process of helping managers acquire emotional and intellectual abilities necessary for improving performance. Example is helping managers acquire decision making and time management skills.

**Career Development:** Individual career development focuses on assisting individuals to identify their major career goals and to determine what to do to achieve these goals. Organisational career development looks at individual filling the needs of the organisation and individual's personal work irrespective of where this work is performed.

**Benefits:** These consist of all rewards that are not included in direct financial compensation. Unlike pay for performance, programmes and incentive plans, benefits are made available by the organisation to employees as long as they remain with the institution.

**Fringe Benefits:** These are extra benefits given especially to an employee in addition to salary or wages. This may include the use of official car and free health care.

**Conditions of Service:** Terms of employment including salary, allowances, housing, medical care, promotion, retirement and other benefits.

## **1.7 Organisation of the study**

The first chapter of the study deals with the introduction, the background of the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study (general objective, specific objectives), purpose of study, significance of the study, explanation of terms and organisation of the study. Chapter two discusses different theories and approaches to motivation. Here, emphasis is placed on literature review of works done by others in the area of motivation and conditions of service. This chapter also describes the study area.

In chapter three, the research method of the study is dealt with. There is a brief description of the study area, target population, sample size and sample techniques. It also discusses instruments of data collection, research tools and methods of analysis. Finally, ethical considerations, research limitations and dissemination of the result of the study are also captured in this chapter.

Furthermore, chapter four deals with the presentation of findings and discussions. The data collected are analysed and discussed vis-à-vis theories of motivation. Here, an attempt is made at discussing the result in the areas such as personnel's perceptions of sources of motivation such as salary, fringe benefits, promotion, training and career development; workplace condition, supervision and interpersonal relationship, workload and participation in decision-making as well as managerial characteristics. It also looks at how personnel can be effectively motivated. Finally, the discussions of key findings, summary, conclusion and recommendations of the study are put together as chapter five of this research.

## CHAPTER TWO

### THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.0 Introduction

There exist some theories and concepts on motivation as well as research works and scholarly publications on workers' perception of sources of motivation. This chapter discusses the theoretical framework of the study. It seeks to situate the study in an appropriate conceptual context in Sociology. Sociologists are interested in workers' perceptions of sources of motivation in to e extent that these perceptions affect social life, group interaction and policy making in organisations. Many theories on motivation have been propounded by both sociologists and psychologists. The study however adopts needs-based theories due to their appropriateness.

#### 2.1.0 Theoretical Framework

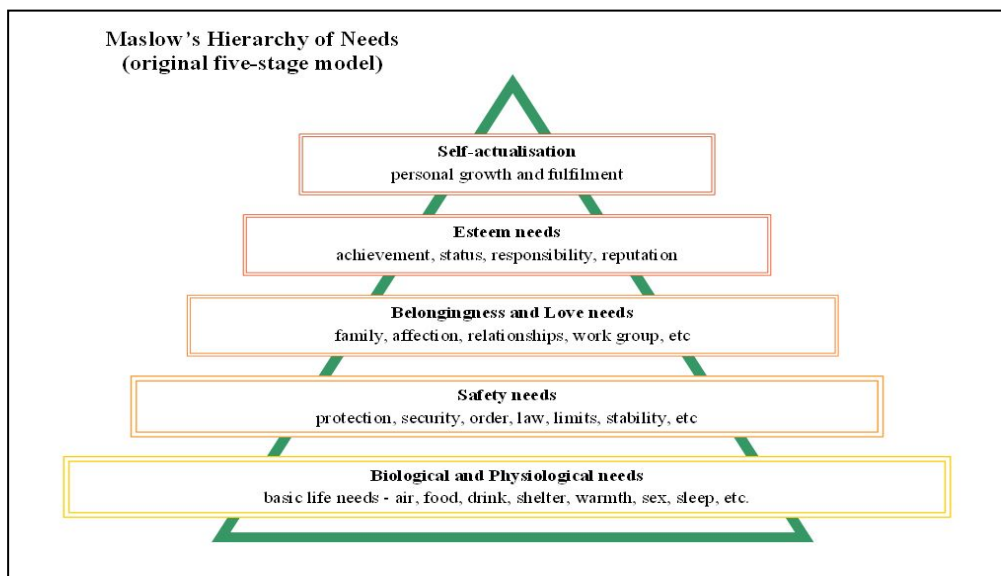
Motivation in the public sector is undoubtedly not a new subject in academic discourse and is likely to be with us so long as the public business is conducted in such a manner that suggests and signals the need to visit the drivers of human performance in the public sector. To appreciate better a concept, it is appropriate to understand the different theories associated with it (Finkelstein, 2004). Griffin et al (1981 p.264) categorized theories of motivation into three: classical theory and scientific management, behavioural theory, and contemporary motivation theories. The major contemporary motivation theories include human resource model, the hierarchy of needs model, two-factor theory, expectancy theory, equity theory, and goal-setting theory. To ensure appropriateness, this study adopts the Hierarchy of Needs Model, the Existence Needs, Relatedness Needs, and Growth Needs (ERG) theory to examine why the

perception of workers of the Ghana Police Service may find the existing motivation system inadequate and de-motivating. Additionally, the Two-Factor Theory and Acquired-Need Theory of Motivation will also be examined.

### 2.1.1 Hierarchy of Needs Model

The Psychologist Abraham Maslow propounded the theory of Hierarchy of Needs which he published in his book, *Motivation and Personality* in 1954. According to Maslow, people have a number of different needs that they attempt to satisfy in their work. He classified these needs into five basic needs types and suggested that they are arranged in a hierarchy of importance. By calling it a hierarchy, Maslow conveys the idea that the lower levels of needs have to be met first before satisfying the higher levels of needs (Maslow, 1954). Figure 1 is a representation of Maslow's theory of hierarchy of needs.

**Figure 1. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory**



Source: <http://mediastudies.blogspot.com/2010/10/maslows-hierarchy-of-needs.html>

Maslow was of the view that, lower levels needs like survival (basic food, water and shelter) and safety (physical, mental and financial safety) have to be met before higher levels needs like social needs (social interaction and team spirit) and status (respect, recognition and self-esteem) can be fulfilled. Then self-actualization comes where one focuses only on the development of his / her potential with the achievement of the potential being the only reward required. This is only possible when the first four needs are fulfilled. According to Maslow, only 2% of the world's population in his time was self-actualizing. Self-actualization is the state that most bosses wish their workers would be in (Maslow, 1954). But to achieve this, they would have to ensure that the other needs of the workers are already fulfilled. In particular, this should include a decent pay package and basic employee benefits, company culture which is conducive as well as sufficient recognition and appreciation of work done.

Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, therefore, has two key assumptions. First, different needs are active at different times and only needs which are arranged in a fixed order of importance are called hierarchical (Maslow, 1954). The theory states that behaviour is triggered by a need deficit that drives the individual to reduce the tension it creates. Tension leads to behaviour that will potentially satisfy the need. For example, a child's education in a family means a greater financial burden. In view of this, the worker would increase his effort to ensure promotion and pay rise. As soon as a lower order need is satisfied, a higher – order need emerges and demands satisfaction.

The second assumption is that once one set of needs has been satisfied, it ceases to motivate behaviour (Griffin et al., 2002: 267). This implies that only one level of need is capable of

motivating behaviour at any given time and this level of need is said to be preponderant (DeNisi and Griffin, 2008:426). This is the sense in which the hierarchical nature of the lower-level and higher-level needs affects employee motivation and satisfactions.

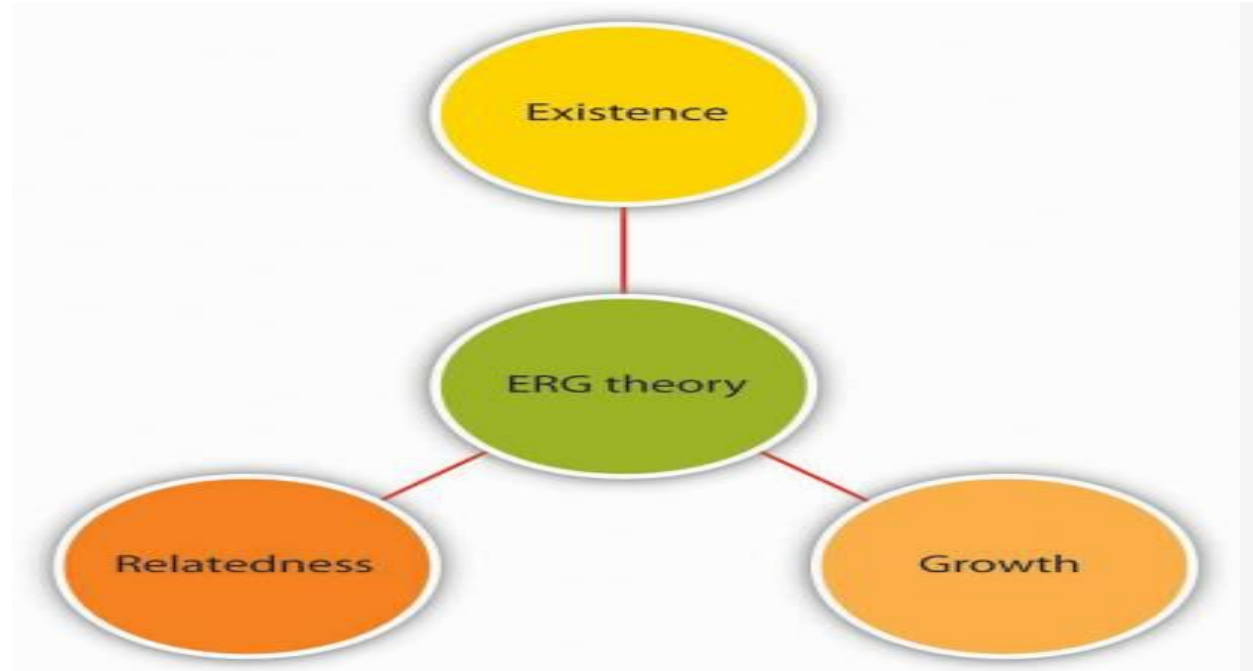
Maslow's theory, however, leaves much to be desired. A major difficulty associated with this model lies in its obvious rigidity. While few people would deny there are lower-level and higher-level needs, many would dispute that needs are satisfied in a relatively systematic way from the bottom to the top (Ghosh, 2000). Some studies on Maslow's theory have confirmed that people are motivated by more than one level of need at any point in time, and people do not move up the hierarchy, but sometimes move down the hierarchy as well (DeNisi and Griffin, p.427). Again, Maslow's model assumes that once a need has been satisfied, it will remain so forever. That is far from right.

Despite these criticisms, it is true that the needs of workers can be categorized into lower-level and higher-level needs. For instance, accommodation and salary are considered as basic needs of police personnel whilst career advancement is considered, among others, as higher-level need. This theory aids this work by categorizing the needs of police personnel into lower-level and higher-level needs. However, there still remains a question as to whether or not a worker will perceive an element of motivation designed purposely to help him / her achieve basic needs beneficial as such. The efficacy of a particular element of motivation whether designed to achieve a lower or higher level need depends on the perception personnel have of that particular element of motivation.

### **2.1.2 Existence Needs, Relatedness Needs, and Growth Needs (ERG) Theory.**

After testing Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Clayton Alderfer realized the rigidity of the theory and proposed a different theory which has only three levels of needs. He called this Existence Needs, Relatedness Needs, and Growth Needs (ERG) theory (DeNisis and Griffin, p.428). Thus, the ERG theory is an extension of Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Alderfer (1972) was of the view, that needs could be categorized into three, instead of five. Existence needs are similar to Maslow's physiological and safety need categories. Relatedness needs involve interpersonal relationships and are comparable to aspects of Maslow's belongingness and esteem needs. Growth needs are those related to the attainment of one's potential and are associated with Maslow's esteem and self-actualization needs.

Comparatively, the ERG theory differs from the hierarchy of needs in that it does not suggest that lower-level needs must be completely satisfied before upper-level needs become motivational. The ERG theory also suggests that if one is continually unable to meet upper-level needs one will regress and lower-level needs become the major determinants of one's motivation. The ERG theory's implications for managers are similar to those for the needs hierarchy: managers should focus on meeting employees' existence, relatedness, and growth needs, though without necessarily applying the proposition that say, job-safety concerns necessarily take precedence over challenging and fulfilling job requirements. The figure below depicts the ERG Theory.

**The Figure 2. ERG Theory**

Source: [http://www.web-books.com/eLibrary/NC/B0/B58/085MB58.html/ftn.fwk-carpenter-fn14\\_00](http://www.web-books.com/eLibrary/NC/B0/B58/085MB58.html/ftn.fwk-carpenter-fn14_00)

The major input the ERG theory made to the literature is its critique which led to the relaxation of the assumptions put forward by Maslow. For instance, ERG theory does not categorize needs in any exacting order and clearly appreciates that more than one necessity may exist at a given time (eLibrary, 2013). Additionally, the theory has a “frustration-regression” hypothesis, indicating that persons who are discouraged in their efforts to meet one need may go back to another one. A case in point is someone who is frustrated by the absence of growth opportunities in his job and slow development toward career goals may regress to relatedness needs and begin spending more time socializing with one’s co-workers. The inference of this theory is that the management of the Ghana Police Service should have fair appreciation of various multiple needs that their personnel may be confronted with at any material moment to understand their behaviour so as to design an appropriate incentive package for them.

### 2.1.3 Two-Factor Theory

Herzberg (1959) tackled the issue of motivation in a special way - by finding out from individuals what satisfies them on the job and what dissatisfies them, Herzberg came to the conclusion that aspects of the job situation that satisfy employees are very different from aspects that dissatisfy them. Herzberg termed factors causing dissatisfaction of workers as “hygiene” factors because these factors were part of the context in which the job was performed, as opposed to the job itself. Some of the Hygiene factors identified included company policies, supervision, working conditions, salary, safety, and security on the job (Herzberg, 1959). For instance, supposing that one is carrying out an assignment in an objectionable work environment. One would certainly be depressed and unhappy in such a work environment. Contrary, if these difficulties were solved so that one’s work environment is just right one would be motivated though one would take the situation for granted. In fact, many factors in the work environment are things that are missed when they are absent, but take for granted if they are present (Herzberg, 1959).

Contrary, motivators are factors that are intrinsic to the job, such as achievement, recognition, interesting work, increased responsibilities, advancement, and growth opportunities. According to Herzberg’s research, motivators are the conditions that truly encourage employees to try and work harder.

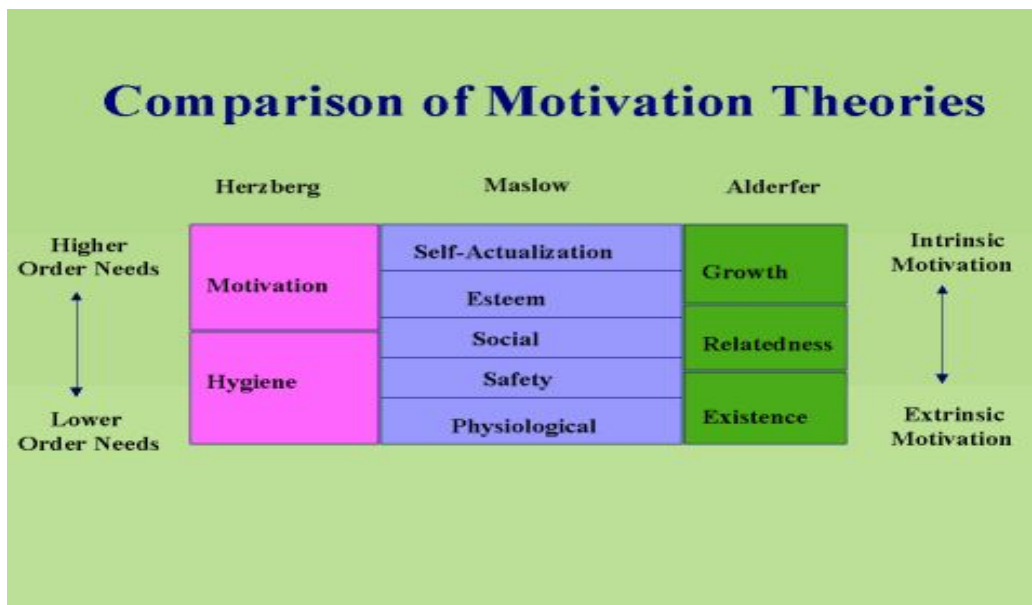
**Figure 3. Two-Factor Theory of Motivation**

Source: [http://www.web-books.com/eLibrary/Books/B0/B58/IMG/fwk-carpenter-fig14\\_007.jpg](http://www.web-books.com/eLibrary/Books/B0/B58/IMG/fwk-carpenter-fig14_007.jpg)

Herzberg's research, which is summarized in **Figure 3** above, has been a subject of critical analysis. One issue raised against this theory has to do with the classification of the factors as hygiene or motivator. For instance, pay is seen as a hygiene factor. Conversely, pay is not necessarily a background factor and is likely to have symbolic significance by showing workers that they are being acknowledged for their inputs as well as signaling to them that they are progressing within the organisation. According to Simon and Enz (1995) good pay and secure job (hygiene factors) are more important than interesting work and full appreciation of good work done which are classified as motivators as far as hotel workers are concerned. Also, in the view of Chitiris (1988), once an employee was unable to meet most of his or her needs, hygiene factors became more influential sources of motivation compared to motivators, hence leading to improvement in performance and productivity. Again, contemporary studies by Hyun (2009), to re-examine Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of Motivation in the Korean Army Food service Operations at Iowa State University concluded that "food service soldiers regarded hygiene factors as more powerful predictors of their job satisfaction than motivators. In contrast to food

service soldiers, motivators were considered as the more significant predictors of the logistics officers' job satisfaction" also "human supervision was the most powerful predictor of job satisfaction for foodservice soldiers and achievement for logistics officers. However, not all hygiene factors were more important than motivators for the food service soldiers. Likewise, not all motivators appeared to be more important factors than hygiene factors for logistics officers" Irrespective of its shortcomings, the two-factor theory can be a valuable aid to managers and for that matter this study since it points out that improving the environment in which the job is carried out goes only so far in motivating employees.

**Figure 4. Comparison of Herzberg, Maslow and Alderfer Motivation Theories**



Source: <http://www.neiu.edu/~aserafin/421/motivation/aMotivation/tsld007.htm>

One cannot discuss the need-based approaches to understanding motivation, without looking at Douglas McClelland's acquired-needs of Motivation. According to this theory, there exist three types of needs that individuals acquire as a result of life experiences. These needs are, need for achievement (nAch), affiliation (nAff), and power (nPow). These needs which are influenced by one's life experiences could as well affect employees' motivation and effectiveness in certain job functions.

In the view of McClelland and Burnham (1976), the "nAch" categories of people have strong need to be successful in their endeavours. They normally come out with brilliant ideas, set timelines and meet deadlines, put in place the necessary strategies and ensure that they achieve their goals. They also plan for their career progression. The major disadvantage with the "nAch" category of people is their lack of interest in delegation. The "nAff" category of people has strong need to associate with co-workers. They are good team-players and desire to foster good inter-personal relationships. Delegation therefore is not a problem to "nAff" category of people though they tend to be overly concerned about how they are perceived by others. They also have difficulties in giving critical feed back to employees as well as ensuring discipline. Those with high need for power desire to influence others and have control over their work. The "nPow" categories of people come in two forms: individuals who desire for power to achieve their personal interest and social / institutional power which is acquired to further the interest of an organisation. The need for institutional power is useful for managerial and leadership roles.

The McClelland theory is said to have little application as far as public sector workers are concerned. As Opined by Jurkiewicz, Massey and Brown (1998, p. 231) public sector workers are motivated by job security and stability, teamwork and worthwhile services to the public

contrary to desire for monetary rewards, prestige, desire for challenges and autonomy. This means that most public sector workers are likely to be high in affiliation but low in the desire for achievement and power. Superior in public sector therefore finds it difficult to delegate task and also create competitive environment.

Nonetheless, the relevance of McClelland's theory is that with the knowledge of one's need profile; leadership will be able to shape and place employees on appropriate positions / schedules to the benefit of the organisation. The disadvantages associated with the various needs groups can be shaped /addressed through career training and staff development programmes.

Need-based theories describe motivated behaviour as individual efforts to meet needs. According to this perspective, the manager's job is to identify what people need and then to make sure that the work environment becomes a means of satisfying these needs. Maslow's hierarchy categorizes human needs into physiological, safety, social, esteem, and self-actualization needs. ERG theory is a modification of Maslow's hierarchy, where the five needs are collapsed into three categories (existence, relatedness, and growth). The two-factor theory differentiates between factors that make people dissatisfied on the job (hygiene factors) and factors that truly motivate employees. Finally, acquired-needs theory argues that individuals possess stable and dominant motives to achieve, acquire power, or affiliate with others. Each of these theories explains characteristics of a work environment that motivate employees.

The needs-based theories are considered appropriate for the study since they offer coherent explanation to the research questions raised in this study. The central question of the study is:

how do the personnel of the Ghana Police Service perceive the existing sources of motivation?  
How do these perceptions of sources of motivation impact on the attitudes of the personnel?  
How can the personnel be effectively motivated?

According to the needs-based theories of Maslow and Alderfer, people are motivated by needs and not everyone would be motivated by the same set of needs at any one time. This implies that organisation needs to have different set of motivation packages for employees at any given time. DeNisi and Griffin illustrate that if an organisation tries to motivate employees by meeting their esteem needs, this would only be effective for employees for whom these needs are important. The plan would not work for employees who are focused on more basic needs that might be satisfied by a pay increase.

Thus, while the hierarchy of needs theory gives managers / administrators a straightforward way of understanding how various work conditions satisfy employee needs, it also suggests that since workers are not motivated by the same set of needs at one time, they are likely to have different perceptions of existing motivation packages. In the context of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, the study expects the personnel of Ghana Police Service to have diverse perceptions of the different sources of motivation available. The logic of the analysis is that the personnel have diverse needs that they seek to fulfill. In the Ghana Police Service certain basic conditions of employment (such as the pay) satisfy physiological needs. Esteem needs are met by rank (status), interaction and communication with fellow workers. Any work that is fulfilling is expected to satisfy esteem and self-actualization needs (Ghosh, 2000).

Similarly, on the question of how these perceptions of sources of motivation impact on the attitudes of personnel and general performance of the Ghana Police Service, the simplest explanation is that, despite the existence of organisational culture and traditional modes regarding sources of motivation such as authority and power, the personnel would have different attitudes to work. These attitudes are expected to be reinforced by the perceptions of available sources of motivations. Consequently, the level of general performance of the Service is determinable by the number of personnel that perceive the existing elements of motivation as favourable. If the majority of personnel perceive that the existing elements of motivation are not favourable then the general performance will be low and there would be non-conformity to best organisational practices and procedures, as personnel would find some other means of satisfying the unmet needs.

With regards to the question of how personnel can be effectively motivated to do their best, one can say individual officers of the Service has their peculiar needs, desires and aspiration for joining the Service. Therefore, McClelland's theory of acquired needs becomes handy in that respects just as proponents of other needs based theorists all seem to conclude. Employees with different needs have to be motivated differently should the organisation desires the best of them. The appropriate buttons need to be pressed / pushed by putting in place appropriate set of rewards systems at any point in time, having individual personnel as a reference point. For instance, personnel with high need for achievement should be given challenging jobs and assignments with reachable goals. They should be provided appropriate frequent feedback in the form of rewards. Personnel with high need for affiliation will likely serve best in a cooperative environment such as being employed on frontline duties and intelligence gathering in the

communities in the Service's effort to build closer and mutual working relationship with all stakeholders. Personnel with high need for power should be provided with the opportunity to manage others, for instance, by leading their teams during operations and other assignments. It is believed that, all these could be achieved as management of the Service make deliberate efforts to design and put in place systems, such as research, training and development programmes to address, shape and meet the needs of its personnel.

Finally, the proponents of the needs-based theories do not categorically over-emphasise the role of money per se as a source in motivating workers. Herzberg's research for instance attracted criticism for the fact that his theory perceived pay as a hygiene factor. By that pay is seen not to be a motivator, though absence of it causes dissatisfaction. Generally, the issue of pay / salary may not necessarily be viewed as a contextual factor and is likely to have symbolic significance as it is one major means of acknowledging employees inputs as well as indicating to them that they are progressing within the organisation. Thus, while pay may not be an important motivator, it could be an effective form of feedback, especially in many less-developed countries like Ghana. More importantly, pay / salary, if it is reasonable has the potential for satisfying most of the needs proposed by both Maslow and Alderfer in different perspective. For instance, money helps to acquire the things such as food, water, houses, insurance and pension schemes which can go a long way in meeting both physiological and security needs.

Besides, social needs are met by having friends, which may not be achieved satisfactory in this era of globalisation and technology where money has become an important factor that shapes relationships. Thus, one may not be able to achieve one's social needs unless there is money for

spending leisure time with friends and other relations. Again, esteem and self-actualizing needs may also require resources including money in realizing them, for instance, to acquire knowledge or have access to higher education and investment in things that give self-fulfillment; one is certainly required to have some financial resources to meet these obligations. Though, the issue of low pay is not peculiar to any public organisation in Ghana even with the introduction of Single Spine Salary Structure, the personnel of the GPS have over the years complained about the meagre size of their salaries, poor working conditions, inadequate office and residential accommodation, to mention only a few (Ministry of the Interior, 2010). This means that these hygiene factors are likely to play very important role when it comes to examining personnel perceptions of sources of motivation.

In conclusion, motivation is a very crucial element in improving organisational performance. Workers have different needs they seek to satisfy in their work places. Since they cannot all be satisfied by the same level of needs, they are likely to have different set of perceptions of existing sources of motivations. These different perceptions would trigger different attitudes to work and therefore determine in the long run the general performance of the organisation. Therefore knowing personnel point of view, feeling and understanding of the value of elements of motivation to his / her wellbeing should be the pre-occupation of management of the Service before implementing any policy.

## **2.2 Literature Review**

This segment of the study seeks to acknowledge and review some research works and scholarly publications on workers' perception of sources of motivation. The intention is to provide information on the workers' perception of sources of motivation. In achieving this, the review is organised under the following themes: a) workers perception and sources of motivation b) forms of motivation at work places; c) incentives and performance based rewards; d) training and development as sources of motivation; e) Participation of Employees in Decision Making as a Source of Motivation f) job redesign and workload characteristics.

### **2.2.1 Workers Perception and Sources of Motivation**

Research has shown that perception is closely related to attitudes (Champoux, 2010, Pickens, 2005). In his *Organizational Behavior*, management expert, Champoux, describes workers perception in terms of a "target", or a "stimulus threshold", which is a certain level of information that must be received in order to make a perceptive assumption on a person, work process or any other target. Lindsay and Norman (1977) define perception as the process by which organisms interpret and organise sensation to produce a meaningful experience of the world. In other words, perception is the way one considers, thinks and understands the value of something in relation to one's life. Sources of motivation are stimuli or situations that affect the attitude of workers.

Besides, like any other persons, when workers are confronted with a situation or stimuli they interpret the stimuli into something meaningful to them based on prior experiences. In this way, if workers feel that the existing elements of motivation will help to improve their well-being they

will react positively and apply greater effort in relation to organisational goal. Contrary, if they feel that the existing elements of motivation are not beneficial, they will not be motivated to excel – hence will react negatively toward realising an objective set for them. For instance, Champoux explains that how an individual perceives sources of motivation, such as interpersonal relationships with their superiors, influences their attitude toward work. If a person has a wrong perception, such as fundamental attribution error that arises when one person mistakes another person's characteristics as the cause of a negative event, it can lead to changes in organisational behaviour (Champoux, 2010). Nevertheless, Pickens (2005) thinks that workers' interpretation or perception may be substantially different from reality. This is the reason why workers' perception should be of greater concern to management.

Again, literature suggests that not every source of motivation will motivate all workers in the same way. Pickens (2005) establishes that perception process follows four stages: stimulation, registration, organisation, and interpretation. People react to stimuli differently. Assael (1995) shows that a person's awareness and acceptance of the stimuli play an important role in the perception process. Reaction to the stimuli is highly selective and may be limited by a person's existing beliefs, attitude, motivation, and personality. In Assael's view individuals will select the sources of motivation that satisfy their immediate needs and may disregard sources that may cause psychological anxiety. This means that motivation within an organisation is likely to be high, if the existing sources of motivation meet the needs of workers.

Also, some studies indicate that workers perception of career path and growth affect attitudes to work and performance (Miami University 2012, Murlis and Schubert, 2002). The study

conducted by the Miami University sought to find out why volunteers / group members lose interest in volunteer organisations. The study concluded that motivation was negatively affected because volunteer perceived an absence of opportunity for growth, a lack of involvement or a lack of opportunities to demonstrate any creativity (Miami University, 2013). Besides, Murlis and Schubert (2002) reports a survey conducted by Singapore's Ministry of Education. In 2000 the Ministry faced a crisis when it realised it could lose a third of its teachers within five years. Instead of looking at conventional reward-based solutions, the Ministry asked a sample of its 24,000 teachers for input on what would attract people to and keep them in the teaching profession. Career prospects were a critical issue. Many of the respondents felt that they were not in management, and they had little opportunity to advance.

To solve the problem, the Ministry came up with a creative solution. It established three new career tracks, or "fields of excellence," that teachers could pursue. Those who wanted to stay in teaching could pursue a "Master Teacher" accreditation. Teachers who wanted to develop in a specific area such as educational psychology could work to become "Senior Specialists." And those who wanted to lead could follow a management track that ranges from the heads of departments to the top of the Ministry. Later, evaluation of the solution showed that teaching has not only become a more attractive career, attrition has also slowed (Murlis and Schubert, 2002).

Finally, contemporary studies have confirmed the conclusions of past studies of Maslow and Alderfer that workers have different needs they seek to achieve (Murlis and Schubert 2002). Hay Group Incorporation, in a series of studies conducted at more than 330 companies with over one million workers, has realised that one-size-fits-all programmes no longer works as a reward

strategy. Hay Group has identified six motivational drivers that help create an engaged workplace and influence results. They are: Inspiration and Values, Future Growth/Opportunity, Quality of Work, Enabling Environment, Work/Life Balance and Tangible Rewards. According to Murlis and Schubert who conducted the research for Hay Group, “not all of these drivers will matter equally to everyone. You need to collect specific data to identify the most significant needs within the different demographic segments of your workforce. Only then can you formulate high-impact programmes to meet employees’ needs and effectively engage them.”

Perception is important when considering work / life benefits. In two of such studies at Prudential Company and General Dynamics Defense System (GDDS), Murlis and Schubert found that a huge investment in work / life benefits can deliver a negative return if managers send a message inconsistent with company policy. The telecommuting example at GDDS demonstrates that by listening carefully to employees (letting them vote for the benefits they wanted), the company gained tremendous goodwill from a programme that cost little or nothing (Murlis and Schubert, 2002). This emphasise the need for management to examine the workers’ perceptions of sources of motivation. This will not only avoid the ‘fallacy of one-size-fits-all’, it will ensure that the application of motivation variables depends on facts derived from workers. In this case, management would have found clue to improving organisational performance.

### **2.2.2 Forms of Motivation at Work Places**

In the book, *Personnel - the Human Problems of Management*, George Strauss and Leonard R. Sayles (1960) discussed three major options of motivation that supervisors in the workplace make use. They emphasize authority as the traditional form of motivation at the work place. This

consists of forcing people to work by threatening to fire them if they did otherwise. By this approach management must tell every worker exactly what he / she is to do at every minute so that he / she is left with the narrowest possible range for discretion. Nowadays, people expect more from their jobs rather than sheer punishment. Consequently, the policy of the use of authority has become less effective as a motivating device. This method assumes that the only reason why people work is to earn money. It ignores the fact that people also want intrinsic, 'on-the-job satisfaction', from work (Strauss and Sayles, 1960). In organisations where employees do not have channels of redress or the opportunities to express aggression, the consequence of this means of motivation is frustration. Employees are likely to become fearfully rigid and at worst openly rebellious. This method can only motivate employees to do only enough work to keep them from being fired, and it also enables them to "get away" with as much as possible.

Another way of motivation is to raise employee morale by providing good conditions of service, fringe benefits, and offer high wages (Strauss and Sayles, 1960). This is the philosophy of paternalism. It operates on two planes. First, the argument holds that if management is good to employees, they will work hard out of loyalty and gratitude. Secondly, it holds that liberal benefits and good working conditions will make employees happy and therefore work hard. The provisions of these actually raise employee morale. The only problem with this position is that since every one shares equally in these benefits, there is no reward for the individual worker to do more than the minimum required to keep him from being fired. However, this method of motivation helps to reduce tension among employees and to some extent may contribute to higher performance.

Another form of motivation espoused by Strauss and Sayles (1960) is competition for pay increases and promotions that go with outstanding performances. Competition results in several forms of need satisfaction in that the prospect of a reward spurs on the employee to work towards attaining it. Conditions must be such that on attaining the goal the employee would enjoy an economic reward, a sense of progress and added social prestige. Less supervision is required on jobs where competition provides a reasonably satisfactory source of motivation; since each man is on his own to do the best job he can. Strauss and Sayles (1960) were of the view that competition as a device for motivation is successful among certain category of workers. Journalists of a newspaper for instance are paid according to the number of articles they publish. But in a bureaucracy as in the public service, where promotions are structured on the principle of seniority, competition is not so much embraced and therefore employees would not like to expend their extra effort. In the civil service organisations, managerial positions are reserved for university graduates; this reduces the chances of lower level personnel from rising into management positions.

Moreover, goal-setting has been considered an effective way of motivating employees to improve organisational performance. Locke et al., (1990) indicate that there is considerable evidence that goal-setting works in the real world, for it urges the goal-setter on to achieve the target set. People who set goals out-perform those who do not set goals. It is an approach to arousing, directing and maintaining motivation at work. The basis of this view is that: difficult goals lead to higher task performance than easy goals, and specific difficult goals lead to higher task performance than no goals such as “do your best”, Strauss and Sayles (1960). It is worth noting, that currently public organisations in general and civil service organisations in question

are required to set goals and objectives through the Medium Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF) policy of budgeting. Organisational performance assessments are based on the goals set.

Greiner (1986) in his article, *Motivational Programmes and Productivity Improvement in Times of Limited Resources*, declares quality circles as a way of motivating small groups of mostly non-supervisory personnel who meet voluntarily on a regular basis to identify, analyze and solve problems they experience on the job. It represents a form of participation designed to give non-supervisory personnel great opportunities to contribute to decision-making. Joint labour management committees and welfare committees are examples of quality circles. Any organisation which is committed to the principles of quality management aims at making workers feel a natural sense of involvement in their work and raises their morale.

This approach to motivation is based on the assumption that employees inherently want to do a good job. In this approach, management views employees as assets, not liabilities whilst negative assumptions about employees' desire not to do a good job (if you do not watch them closely, they are sure to slack off) is seen as counterproductive to motivation, (Straws and Sayles, 1960).

Shedding light on the Hawthorne studies, Jeffrey A. Sonnenfeld (1985) notes that economic factor of motivation continues to be very important, in the sense that in our society, pay is a means of obtaining status and material well-being. Many people will therefore work hard if there is an opportunity for monetary reward. Thus, it is very common for people to leave the public service, even though there is a well-structured system of advancement through periodic promotions, for the private sector where there is no hope of systematic progression but the

existence of higher monetary reward. In discussing remuneration of personnel, Breeze (1995) indicates that pay is the price of services rendered. As far as possible it should be fair and should encourage keenness by rewarding well-directed efforts. Bame (1974) summed up by saying that every mode of payment, (monetary and non-monetary) such as making the personnel more valuable and improve their lot and inspire keenness at all levels, should engage the constant attention of management.

Elton Mayo is generally seen as the founder of Industrial Sociology and the Human Relations School of business organisation. His research on groups and behaviour in workplace has had direct implications for management of organisations and for sociology. His study at a spinning mill in Philadelphia and the Hawthorne works of the Western Electric Company in Chicago proved that rest periods and workers' involvement in fixing it increased morale and reduced labour turnover (Mayo, 1947).

Indeed, motivation is crucial to boosting organisational performance. However, whether or not workers will actually be motivated to do more than what is expected of them depends on how they perceive the existing conditions of service and system of motivation. Though the use of traditional authority, improvement in conditions of service, competition for pay increases, goal setting and quality circles as means of motivation is important, it must be noted, however that the acid test of the efficacy and continuous relevance of these systems of motivation is the perception of workers. If workers do not perceive the existing motivation system adequate and result oriented, management efforts to achieving results with such a motivation system would prove futile. But, as can be seen from above, discussions on motivation sometimes do not relate

the motivation system to how workers perceive the system. In sum, in order for Ghana to achieve the United Nations' Millennium Development Goals, it is important for the public services to improve their performance. But in order for the public service to maximize performance they need to have workers that are fully capable of doing their jobs and a system that motivate them to exert their highest levels of effort (DeNisi and Griffin, 2008:425).

### **2.2.3 Incentives and Performance Based Rewards as Sources of Motivation**

Incentives involve external measures that are designed and established to influence behaviour of individuals, groups or organisations. Incentive systems or structures are combinations of several more or less coherent incentives. Elements of motivation or Motivators include all incentives such as individuals bonus scheme, groups bonus scheme, profit sharing scheme and all other external factors, which impact upon people's or organisations' behaviour. The term "motivational system" (or structures) can be used to refer to a set of such motivators, more or less persistent in nature, in place at any given time (UNDP, 2006).

Employee benefits and services are part of the rewards in any organisation that reinforce loyalty to the employer. Major benefits and services include pay for time not worked for, - pension, during leave, vacation and study leave; end of service benefits, provisions of housing facilities to serving officers, transport facilities and provision of free medical care for serving officers and their immediate family (Bame, 1974). Motivation can be at different levels – individual, organisational and societal. Individuals are driven by their own desires and moral beliefs. Individual motivations may be "internal" or "intrinsic" (activated from the inside) such as hobbies, caring for children, or voluntary work in society; or they may be "external" or "extrinsic" (activated from the outside)

which is nurtured from the outside. Organisational motivation, distinguished from capacity, refers to the internal motivation of an organisation (OECD, 2006, p.176-177).

Social motivations derive from the fact that people tend to identify with others and have a sense of belonging to groups. Individuals depend on others and thus have a certain loyalty to the groups they belong to. Social relations are governed by formal and informal rules. There are three dimensions of societal motivations. The first is a sense of fairness: People, groups and organisations want to feel that they are treated fairly compared to peers or competitors. A second dimension is the existence of criteria and authority that stops unfair dealings and that encourages fair behaviour. A third is the phenomenon of “social pressure”. It can be appreciation or disapproval from superiors, peers or others that the person feels responsible for, for instance children (<http://www.undp.org>).

At any of these levels, there are always internal motivational factors. But it should be recognised that motivators for improving performance may also come from external sources. For example, for organisations, motivators may reside externally in other organisations and the broader enabling environment. Furthermore, there are interactions of motivations among these three levels – e.g. individual motivations may enhance motivation in an organisation, but organisations also impact on people, such as their staff or clients. They influence other organisations, such as competing businesses or subordinate offices, in the public administration. Organisation may in many cases also be the prime entry point for motivating larger societal changes, such as in the case of a tax authority, a Ministry of Education that decides on curricula, or an anti-corruption agency that permeates public and private business (UNDP Practice Notes: Capacity Development and Capacity

Assessment, 2005).

Use of monetary or other financial incentives in the classic performance paradigm is based primarily on the theoretical propositions of reinforcement theory. Reinforcement theory focuses on the relationship between the target behaviour (e.g., performance) and its consequences (e.g., pay) (Skinner, 1969), and is premised on the principles and techniques of organisational behaviour modification (Luthans, 1973; Stajkovic and Luthans, 1997). Organisational behaviour modification (OBMod) is a framework within which employee behaviours are identified, measured, and analyzed in terms of their functional consequences (i.e., existing reinforcements) and where an intervention is developed using principles of reinforcement (Luthans and Kreitner, 1975; Stajkovic and Luthans, 1997).

Many of the writings on motivation and organisational performance focused on organisations using financial incentives to increase both individual and group performance and productivity (DeNisis and Griffin, 2008). These types of monetary incentives include individual and small-group rewards, as well as profit-sharing and gain-sharing incentive plans. These reviews examined these types of financial incentive systems and addressed issues of pay-for-performance, variable pay plans, or group bonus plans. Recent reviews of the effects of organisational behaviour modification indicate that monetary incentives significantly improve task performance. Stajkovic and Luthans' (2003) studies found that an organisational behaviour modification intervention using monetary incentives improved task performance by 23%, whereas an intervention with social recognition did so only by 17% and with feedback only by 10%. Furthermore, by combining all three types of motivational reinforcers simultaneously,

performance improved by 45%. This was a stronger effect on performance than when each approach was applied separately. Feedback combined with money and social recognition produced the strongest effect on performance.

Several reviews focused on individual monetary incentives (i.e., Bucklin and Dickinson 2001; Jenkins et al., 1998; Tolchinsky and King, 1980). In general, these reviews also indicated that individual monetary incentives improved performance, but not under all conditions. Bucklin and Dickinson's (2001) review of different types of pay arrangements found, for example, that individual monetary incentives plus feedback improved performance significantly more than hourly pay plus feedback. The most critical determinant of performance was the use of a ratio schedule in which individuals earned a specified amount of money for the number of work units completed. However, these studies focused primarily on college students and included only studies using an experimental design.

Again, focusing primarily on college students, Jenkins et al.'s (1998) meta-analysis of 39 studies addressed performance quantity and quality, and found that financial incentives were significantly related to performance quantity but not to quality. In this review, a type of task moderated the financial incentive-performance relationship. However, the type of task was not related to the strength or relationship between financial incentives and performance quantity. In contrast, and related to goal setting, Tolchinsky and King's (1980) review specifically examined the role of goals as mediators of the performance-monetary incentive linkage. They found that, although monetary incentives influence performance, the relationship is not mediated by goal setting. That is, goal-setting and monetary incentives independently influence performance.

Salary is one of the oldest and most common financial methods of rewarding employees and for enhancing their level performance (DeNisi and Griffin, 2008). It is perceived as one of the most essential factors that drive people to jobs or make them choose one profession at the expense of others. Salaries may either be rewarding or not. Whatever the case may be, some studies have indicated that income level and job satisfaction of workers are positively related (Center and Cantril, 1946; Marriott and Denerley, 1955; Reiner 1957; Terman and Oden, 1959; Rudd and Wiseman, 1962; Phipp 1968; Nelson, 1970).

Center and Cantril's study was carried out in the United States and based on national sample, while Marriott and Denerley sampled a number of British factories. Both studies attempted to find out workers' perception of income levels. In the end they found a positive correlation between job satisfaction and income levels. This places salary as crucial in motivating employees. Similar studies were conducted on the teaching profession by Reiner, Rudd and Wiseman, and Phipp. These studies show that, in the US, England, Uganda, and DR Congo respectively, inadequate salary was one of the factors which made some teachers leave the teaching profession.

Researching on the topic, "*Job Satisfaction and Salary: An illustration from Ghana*", Bame (1974) states that the literature on job satisfaction and work attitudes clearly shows that salary or money is one undisputable source of peoples' motivation to work. They work in anticipation for money which they get to exchange for most of their needs. The salary invariably determines the recipients' status and material well-being. In any organisation, salary can produce two motivational effects which affect workers performance. First, the quantity can serve as stimulus to inspire and motivate employees to perform better (Bame, 1974). The bigger the salary packets

the greater the urge to perform better, all other factors being held constant. Secondly, the salary can become a great source of motivation if it is seen as a regular source of income. This is irrespective of the size of the salary packet; the consistency of it can inspire a sense of job security in the worker (Bame, 1974).

Currently, some experts in human resource management believe that workers' performance can be enhanced if management tie rewards, especially pay to performance. DeNisi and Griffin (2008) discussed many incentives and performance based rewards which are used by organisations. According to them, an organisation can choose between two incentive approaches: merit-pay plans and skill and knowledge based pay. They also discussed two ways by which incentives plans can be used to boost performance. In their view, incentives can be provided on individual levels – for example, sales commission – and group and team level – for example, gain-sharing, scalon plans, profit sharing, stock-option plans etc.

Looking for comprehensive discussions of the circumstances under which merit pay plans produce positive effects on individual job performance, Heneman's (1992) text, *Merit Pay*, and the National Research Council's Pay for Performance (Milkovich and Wigdor, 1991) included the public and private sectors, as well as a discussion of the institutional arrangements and other situational characteristics that moderate the pay-for-performance relationship. Generally, they conclude that merit pay plans can result in positive outcomes—particularly in terms of individual job performance (Milkovich and Wigdor, 1991). Again, however, differences in institutional arrangements contribute to the feasibility and effectiveness of merit pay, as do differences in employees' preferences for merit pay. Heneman (1992), however, later concludes that merit pay

is at best moderately effective. It is consistently shown to be related to positive attitudes (albeit with one major exception—the federal government), but that pay is only inconsistently linked to improved performance.

Reviews on the individual financial incentives and its effectiveness in the traditional public sector settings as indicated by (Ingraham, 1993; Kellough and Lu, 1993; Perry, 1988) appear to be at odds with findings of reviews examining financial incentives in the private sector or in laboratory settings using college students. In general, these reviews suggest that merit pay and pay-for-performance systems in the public sector generally have been unsuccessful, have little positive impact on employee motivation and organisational performance, and fail to show a significant relationship between pay and performance. These reviews, however, do note that the failure to find a significant pay-performance relationship is likely, due to a lack of adequate funding for merit pay and the organisational and managerial characteristics necessary to make pay-for-performance work in traditional government settings.

Team-based or small-group incentives are characterised as rewards in which a portion of individual pay is contingent on measurable group performance (DeMatteo, Eby, and Sundstrom, 1998). In general, the conditions under which team rewards will be effective are unclear, especially because experimental laboratory studies appear to be more supportive than field studies. Effectiveness is dependent on the characteristics of the reward system, the organisation, the team, and individual team members (DeMatteo, Eby, and Sundstrom, 1998). Honeywell-Johnson and Dickinson (1999) did find that equally divided small-group incentives sustain high levels of productivity and satisfaction for group members and that small-group incentive were at

least as effective as individual incentives with groups of two (2) to twelve (12) people. However, their review again consisted primarily of experimental studies using college students.

Conversely, reviews of alternative pay systems such as profit-sharing or gain-sharing plans are remarkably consistent in their findings. These incentive programmes include various pay-for-performance approaches that link financial rewards for employees to improvements in the performance of the work unit (Welbourne and Gomez Mejia, 1995). In general, prior research indicates that these types of incentive systems are associated in practice, as well as in employer and employee minds, with both higher productivity and improvements in organisational performance. Yet, even though these findings generalise across qualitative, quantitative, and survey research studies, they again are focused exclusively on private sector settings.

There are problems with the use of salaries, incentives and performance based rewards. For instance, as DeNisi and Griffin note, incentives and performance based reward are practical only when performance can be measured easily and objectively. The performance of most public services, such as GPS, does not fit into this pattern, as it is characterized by ambiguous performance indicators that are difficult to assess. GPS cannot adopt a merit-pay plan, which ensures that at least some meaningful portion of compensation is based on merit (the relative value of employee contribution to the organisation). Besides, group reward system, while effective in some instance, are also subject to problems. First, not every member of a group may contribute equally to the group's performance, and second for incentives based on firm profitability, employees may not see how their effort lead to increase in profits. Lastly, despite the correlation found to exist between income levels and job satisfaction, it must be realized that

people want higher income to satisfy basic needs after which they may need some higher level needs. This puts consistency of income level system of motivation in question. This implies that there should be a regular survey by managers to determine the motivation needs of their employees.

#### **2.2.4 Training and Development as Sources of Motivation**

Training and development have been identified by experts as essential for the enhancement of individual and organisation performance (Averred and Burrow, 1996; Torrington, Hall, and Tallow, 2005; DeNisi and Griffin, 2008). According to these scholars, workers can perform at their optimum when they have acquired the requisite skills and knowledge. According to Averred and Burrow (1996:513), training and development are means of improving employee's performance, preparing an employee to take a new job, helping an employee develop. They also argue that during periods of organisational change, training is needed to prepare employees for the change.

Torrington et al (2005:176) explain two perspectives on the link between training interventions and employee turnover. The first perspective argues that employees have positive perception of training and development opportunities. For this perspective, training opportunities enhance commitment to an employer on the part of individual employees, making them less likely to leave voluntarily than they would if no training were offered. The alternative view holds that training makes people more employable and hence more likely to leave in order to develop their careers elsewhere. The view is thus put that money on training is money wasted because it ultimately benefits other employers.

F. Green, A. Felted, K. Mayhew and A. Pickle (2000, pp. 267-72) report on the perceptions of 1,539 employees on different kinds of training. They found that the overall effect is neutral, 19 per cent of employees saying that training was ‘more likely to make them actively look for another job’ and 18 per cent saying that it was less likely to do so. However, they also found the type of training and the source of sponsorship to be a significant variable. Training which is paid for by the employer is a good deal less likely to raise job mobility than that paid for by the employee or the government. Firm-specific training is also shown in the study to be associated with lower turnover than training which leads to the acquisition of transferable skills.

### **2.2.5 Job Design and Redesign as Sources of Motivation**

In *The New Public Service*, Paul Light’s (1999) survey of five cohorts of MAP graduates revealed that a common concern of respondents was “show me the work,” a motivational refrain underlying the logic of all job design initiatives. Job design has its modern roots in Frederick Herzberg’s (Herzberg, Mainer, and Snyder man 1959) two-factor theory of motivation (namely, hygiene and motivator factors) and his guidance for enriching jobs (and, hence, performance) by incorporating into work “satisfiers” a linked to personal growth. These include jobs designed to afford a sense of challenge or accomplishment. More recently, most work design attention has centered on Hackman and Oldham’s (1980) job characteristics model. They posit that jobs rich in motivating characteristics (e.g., task significance) stimulate psychological states (e.g., experienced meaningfulness of work) among job incumbents, that in turn, increase the likelihood of desired personal and work outcomes. For instance, the significance of a task can trigger a sense of meaningfulness of work in employees that leads to better performance.

In recent times, a much different approach to enhancing organisation performance, according to DeNisi and Griffin, is through the redesign of jobs. This technique involves redesigning jobs so that the work itself will motivate employees to exert greater effort (DeNisi and Griffin, 2008:455). Job redesign involves job rotation, job enlargement, job enrichment, and job characteristics approach. Many reviews of motivational research conclude that job redesign may be more influential for affective (that is, attitudinal) than for behavioural outcomes. Hackman and Oldham's (1980) job characteristics model posits a causal chain between job design and work outcomes: various job characteristics lead to various psychological states, which in turn produce various personal and work outcomes. Corroborated since in several reviews, Ricky W. Griffin (1981, 655) and his collaborators conclude in an early review of job design research that "the task design / performance relationship has not been as consistently demonstrated as have task design / affective response relationships". Some analysts suggest that performance or behavioural outcomes may be attenuated by moderators that influence the chain of causation between affective and performance outcomes (Brown, 1996; Fried and Ferris, 1987; Kelly, 1992). Another common explanation for different affective and behavioural impacts is that performance is more difficult to measure and more variable across contexts than affective outcomes.

Hackman and Oldham's (1980) original formulation of job characteristics theory argued that the outcomes of job redesign were influenced by several moderators. Notable among these moderators are differences in the degree to which various individuals or employees desire personal or psychological development. Although only a limited number of literature addressed the significance of moderators, three reviews looked explicitly at them and found them to be

critical influences on the work design-performance relationship (Berliner, Glick, and Rodgers 1988; Fried and Ferris, 1987; Spector, 1986). For example, the most prominent moderator of the effects of job design states that the strength of an employee's higher-order or growth needs can reinforce or diminish changes in mediating psychological states variables, which in turn affect behavioural outcomes. Nor does prior research on job design understate the importance of avoiding known implementation pitfalls. All assert that successful job redesign requires a rigorous process in which implementers identify the nature of the problem, assess the efficacy of manipulating job characteristics to mitigate the problem, and ascertain context to assure that threats to success are not present.

In sum, the merits of job redesign, as outlined in human resource literature, include increasing employee's skills and autonomy, avoiding boredom, increasing satisfaction with the job and providing opportunities for growth and development. Several studies have been conducted to test the use and benefits of these job redesign approaches. However, the most promising of all, in view of DeNisi and Griffin, is the job characteristics approach. The problem with the use of the job redesign approaches is disregard for employee perceptions. For instance, it is not employees who determine the appropriateness of the approach, and as a result may end up benefiting little from the particular approach. Though job redesign acknowledges that different people want different things from their job, Griffin et al (2002:276) believe that job redesign can motivate individuals with strong needs for career growth or achievement more. This implies that individuals who are at the declining stage of the career may not find job redesign beneficial.

### **2.2.6 Participation of Employees in Decision Making as a Source of Motivation**

The classic performance paradigm uses numerous terms to describe employee participation in the workplace, including employee involvement, participative management, and employee empowerment. In a narrow sense, employee participation is “joint decision making or influence sharing between employees and managers” (Doucouliagos, 1995, 60). Generally, participation is “a conscious and intended effort by individuals at a higher level in an organisation to provide visible extra-role or role-expanding opportunities for individuals or groups at a lower level in the organisation to have a greater voice in one or more areas of organisational performance” (Glew et al., 1995, 402). Despite strong professional interest in and theoretical support for participative systems, a review of a number of literature suggests that participation has positive effects on affective attachments to the organisation, but only small positive effects on performance.

The literature available shows that participation, broadly defined, generally leads to higher satisfaction with organisational processes and decisions, and ultimately to stronger commitment to the organisation. Spector (1986) summarizes that employees who perceive more control at work are more satisfied, more motivated, and more committed to the organisation. Shared decision-making may improve employees’ satisfaction with both decisions made and the process by which such decisions are made. This may strengthen employees’ commitment to decisions as well as their sense of justice in the process (Cawley, Keeping, and Levy, 1998) and their trust in the organisation (Nyhan, 2000). Ultimately, however, the combination of a climate of participation (Miller and Monge, 1986) and a perception of having one’s voice heard (Cawley, Keeping, and Levy, 1998) may have a stronger impact on employee satisfaction than does the perception of improvement in decision quality.

However, while participation seems to affect employees' attitudes positively, the link to performance is less clear. Wagner's (1994) meta-analysis of participation research, for example, concludes that participation has positive but limited effects on employee performance. Most important, public managers and researchers should expect decision processes that provide limited opportunities for employee involvement, are restricted to specific processes, or are of limited duration to have limited results on performance (Ledford and Lawler, 1994).

Locke and Schweiger (1979) note that, numerous contextual factors influence relationship between participation and performance. Other organisation-level factors that may have a negative influence on this relationship include organisation size, task complexity, quality of existing working relationships, and leadership skills. Individual moderating factors that can negatively influence the impact of participation include low employee support of the participation process, low employee knowledge of and experience with the job, and low general levels of employee motivation. Unfortunately, researchers are rarely able to explore systematically these contextual factors across empirical studies. In addition, and as noted earlier, organisations usually introduce participation interventions simultaneously with others, including reward systems, goal setting, performance feedback, and job design (Ledford and Lawler, 1994). This makes it difficult to isolate the impact of participation on performance.

While many studies of participation focus on affective and performance outcomes of shared decision making, the analysis of prior research suggests that the greatest organisational gains from employee participation may come from producing better decisions. In particular, participation may improve the information and knowledge sharing necessary for high-quality

decision making. In the process, individuals who might not normally share information may do so, including those at various levels in the hierarchy (Wagner et al., 1997). Participation also can be structured to encourage employees who have intimate knowledge about the requirements of their jobs to be more involved in making decisions, leading to higher decision quality and more creative responses. Nonetheless, few researchers have moved beyond motivational measures of performance and paid close attention to the value of information sharing in the workplace (Locke and Schweiger, 1979).

In sum, it is crucial to stress that workers' perceptions affect their attitudes to work and can derail organisation's performance. For instance, the fact that workers are not expected to be motivated by the same motivation programmes means workers have to participate in designing motivation programmes. This will also affect workers' satisfaction at the workplace. Again, there are three issues that have to be addressed with regard to the Ghana Police Service. How do the personnel of the Ghana Police Service perceive the existing sources of motivational systems? How do these perceptions affect the attitudes of personnel and how can the personnel be effectively motivated? It is against this background that this study seeks to assess the perceptions of personnel of the Ghana Police Service of their sources of motivation, that is, those related to salary, fringe benefits, promotion, training and development, accommodation, quality of supervision, staff welfare and career development, with the intention of contributing to the institutional change that is part of the new governance strategy.

In the next chapter, the study presents and analyzes data that show how personnel's perceptions of the sources of motivation influence attitudes to work. The objective is (1) to examine personnel's perceptions of salary, training and career development, promotion and career

progression, and fringe benefits as a set of motivational tools and strategies; (2) to assess personnel's perceptions of workload, participation in decision-making, workplace characteristics, supervision and interpersonal relationship, and managerial characteristics; and (3) to find ways by which the personnel of the Ghana Police Service can be effectively motivated to enhance performance.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHODS**

#### **3.0 Introduction**

It is customary in research to ensure that the findings are valid and reliable. The validity and reliability actually depend on the methods used. This study adopted a method built upon survey research design. This chapter provides details of the various aspects of the methodology used. The main areas considered under this section include the study area, research design, population and sampling techniques, data collection, research tools used, data handling and management, ethical considerations as well as the problems of the research.

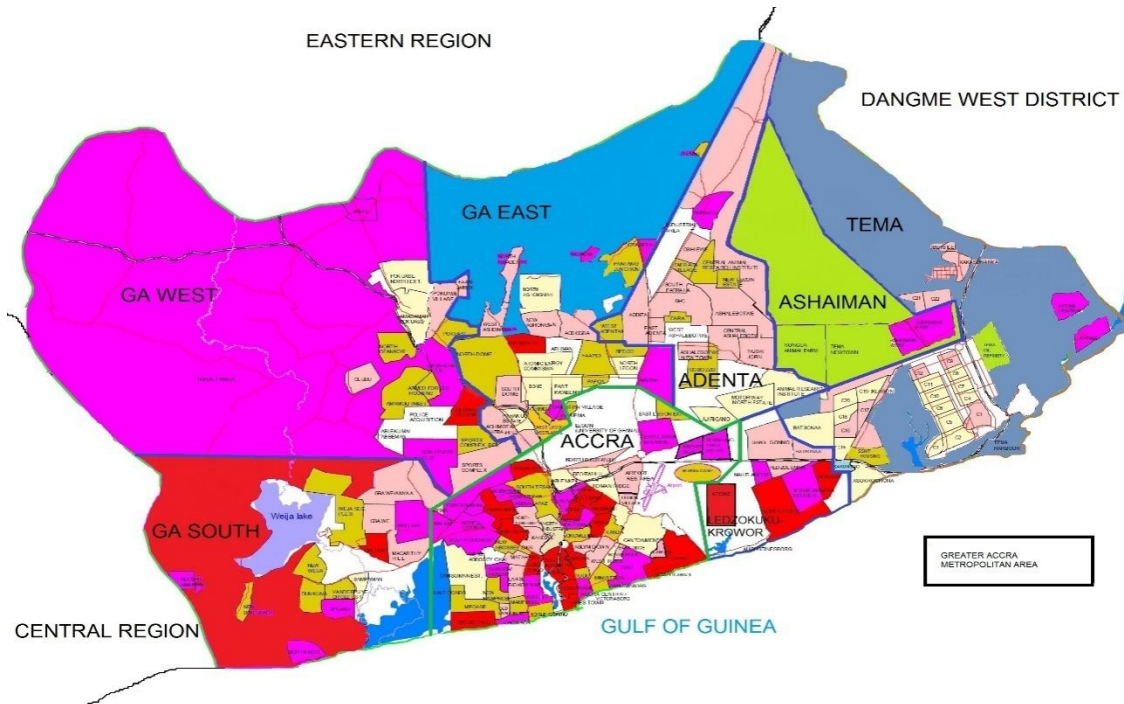
### **3.1 Study Area**

The study investigates perceptions of public servants of sources of motivation: a case study of the Ghana Police Service and focuses on personnel in Accra Metropolis. The study area is the Accra Metropolis which has forty Police Stations (GPS, 2009). The choice of the study area was informed by crimes trends and its impacts on policing, proximity to the researcher and financial considerations. Second, the researcher is familiar with the terrain in Accra and could easily obtain data for the study. Third, Accra is the capital town and hosts the Ghana Police Service headquarters which the study considered most important for data collection.

Accra is the capital of Ghana and also capital of the Greater Accra Region occupying a total land surface of 3,245 square kilometres or 1.4 per cent of the total land area of Ghana. In respect of population, there are about four million (4,000,000) people living in Accra according to Ghana Statistical Service (GSS, 2000). In Ghana, the political administration of a region is through the local government system. Under this system, the region is divided into various Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies (MMDAs). Each MMDA is administered by a Chief Executive, representing the central government but deriving authority from an Assembly headed

by a presiding member elected from among the members themselves. The figure below depicts the Greater Accra Map with its Districts.

**Figure 5. Greater Accra Map with its Districts**



Source: ([http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Greater\\_Accra\\_Region](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Greater_Accra_Region)).

In the view of Benneh et al. (1993), Accra is one of the most urbanised cities in Ghana noted to host some of the biggest firms and industries with the most diversified economy in the country.

It is generally acknowledged that crime rate is higher in urban centres than rural areas. Accra is not immune to prevalence of crime in the country. For instance, the report of the Ghana Police Service (GPS, 2012) show that Accra and Kumasi (the administrative capital of Ashanti Region) rank first and second as far as major crimes recorded in 2010, 2011 and 2012 were concerned.

As an urbanised city, Accra is choked with economic malaise like unemployment and other social pressures. For modern urban society in which economic growth and personal success are dominant values, the fight for survival easily propels people to adopt all kinds of behaviour, and as a result many people especially the youth resort to criminal activities and other social vices to make ends meet. No wonder the Greater Accra Region recorded the highest cases of rape in 2011 and 2012 and was second to Kumasi in the case of armed robbery during the same period. Similarly, the Greater Accra Region recorded the highest traffic offence in 2012 (GPS, 2012).

Naturally, this state of affairs is likely to impact on the demands on the Ghana Police Service efforts in delivery on its mandate of protecting life and property as well as maintenance of law and order. There is therefore the need for practical policing programmes and strategies coupled with highly motivated personnel to address the situation. This necessitate the need to uncover suitable elements of motivation to get the personnel stimulated to do their best in the fight against these social, cultural, economic and political vices.

Some notorious crime prone locations in the Accra Metroplis, according to reports, are Dansoman, North-Ridge, Lapaz to Darkuman-Circle Station, Aviation area, Madina, Teraso-Odorkor road, Odorkor to Bubuashie Motor Road, Adabraka Social Advance Area, Mataheko to Odorkor Motor Road Kaneshie, Mantse Boye Street near Cocoa Clinic, Kwame Nkrumah Circle, East Legon, North-Kaneshie, etc. (GPS, 2009) This is one major reason that informed the researcher's choice of the coverage of the study though factors such as the proximity and time constraints also came to play. The point is, the size of Accra, its urbanised features, the nature of settlements, vehicular traffic, and general crimes situation and their effects on policing strategies

and the need for enthusiastic, focused and passionate officers became some weightier issues which made the researcher settled on this scope for the study.

Moreover, since Accra Metropolis can boast of many police stations and establishments, the study could not cover all. Therefore, twelve (12) police stations including other specific police institutions were selected for the study. These included Ghana Police Service Headquarters, Accra Regional Police Headquarters, Cantonment Police Station, Osu Police Station, Ministry's Police Station, Nima Police Station, Airport Police Station, Labadi Police Station, and Kotobabi Police Station. Also, Police Stations at Korle-Bu, Kaneshie and Dansoman in the western parts of Accra were deliberately included in the study because of the nature of the settlement which makes policing in these areas tough. Again, Airport, Legon and Medina Police Stations were added for the same reason.

### **3.2 Research Design**

The main focus of the study is to examine the perceptions of personnel of sources of motivation. It attempts to look at some motivational variables that influence the behaviour of personnel in the Ghana Police Service. A study of this nature fall under a descriptive research which, according to Creswell (1994), involves the gathering of information about the present existing condition, and answers the questions of *what, where, when* and *how* (Babbie 2005:91). Following this, the researcher adopted a design taken into consideration the basic questions asked by this study: How do the personnel of the Service perceive the existing sources of motivation? How do these perceptions affect the attitudes of personnel? How can the personnel be effectively motivated?

In order to answer these questions, the study adopted a survey research design using both qualitative and quantitative methods with individuals as the unit of analysis. Social issues like personnel's perceptions of sources of motivation in the Police Service cannot be viewed only from a quantitative angle, as noted by Giddens (1976). This is due to the fact that, not all social issues can be subjected to mathematical exactitudes in real sense (Georges and Jones, 1980). Nonetheless, the approach to this study was more of quantitative in orientation. Quantitative research method helps a researcher to overcome the bias in gathering and presenting research data. It holds the view that there are objective truths in the world that could be tested, verified through scientific investigations.

In addition, the study used a qualitative research method of interview to help capture an in depth knowledge in the study area and to offer explanation to the findings. This approach transforms what is observed, registered or reported into written words. Unlike quantitative method, qualitative method transforms verbal information rather than numerical values. The main points in qualitative research approach are that measurements of variables that are valid, reliable and can be generalised with its clear anticipation of cause and effect. The study integrated qualitative method in this case to provide a rich and well-grounded descriptions and explanations to the question of how the perceptions of the sources of motivation of the personnel of the Police Service affect their performances. It does elicit more realistic feeling of event which cannot be revealed from statistical analysis under quantitative research method.

### **3.3 Sampling Design**

The population for the study included all the personnel of the Ghana Police Service in the Accra Metropolis, made up 4,500 men and women according to Ghana Police Service Statistical State

of Formation Record for 2009. These personnel were members of the forty Ghana Police Service Divisions, Stations and Posts in the Accra Metropolis. To be able to finish the study within the stipulated time, the researcher by simple random sampling technique selected twelve (12) Police Stations within the Accra Metropolis. **The study then adopted multi-stage sampling techniques where the various police Divisions, Stations and Posts were considered as strata from which purposive sampling technique was used in selecting 140 personnel from the strata on the basis of their ranks, proximity, availability of the respondents and time available to the researcher. Again, to ensure that both senior and junior officers were proportionally represented, the systematic random sampling technique was useful in selecting the respondents for the survey.** A list of the names of all personnel in each stratum was obtained. From this, one name was selected, from there; subsequent names were selected by picking every fifth name regardless of sex, age or length of service.

To replace the respondents who were absent during the period of data collection for reasons such as peace keeping mission and other emergency duties, the purposive sampling method was employed, in this case the researcher for the purpose of the study specifically selected personnel of the same rank and expertise to replace those who were absent in the units. The purposive method was also used for selecting respondents for in-depth interviews. This provided proportionate opportunity to all the units selected for the study, as equal numbers of personnel were picked from all the units.

### **3.4 Sources of Data and Data Collection Instrument**

The main sources of data for this study were primary and secondary sources. The primary data was to provide access to first-hand information in the study area. Interview, questionnaires and

observation were the main instruments of obtaining primary data. The type of interview used in this study was unstructured interview in which respondents were allowed to respond to questions based on interview guide. This allowed the researcher the flexibility to ask potential follow-up questions of significance. The interview questions focused on issues such as existing system of motivation and personnel's perceptions of such a system. Also, 140 questionnaires were administered to respondents. Majority of the questions were closed ended and there were few open ended to enable respondents express issues of greater concern to them.

In addition, the study used personal observation with the purpose of finding out the actual state of conditions of service regarding office accommodation and residential facilities by visiting some of these facilities. Also, having worked in the public sector for nearly a decade, the author was privy to the conditions of service, morale of staff, and the working environment through interaction with the personnel of these departments with academic interest.

Moreover, data from secondary sources were obtained from literature on the motivation and incentives in magazines, journals and newspapers. These documentary materials were obtained from the Public Service Commission, Office of Head of Civil Service, Ministry of Public Sector Reforms, Ministry of the Interior, Ghana Police Service, and Civil Servant Association. In searching for these materials, the study also made use of the facilities of George Padmore Research Library, Greater Accra Regional Library, Balme Library in the University of Ghana, Legon. Other databases searched included Psychology Articles and Sociological Abstracts.

Most of the obtained data were in the form of Strategic Plans, Annual Reports, Service Manuals and Code of Conducts. These played a substantial role in the exploratory phase of the research in

defining the research problem, and generating the research questions and objectives. The assembling and the analysis of these data improved the researcher's understanding of the problem under investigation. Also, these secondary sources helped the researcher in defining the population, obtaining the sampling and designing of the questionnaire. For instance, the Ghana Police Service Five-Year National Policing Strategic Plan 2010 -2014 was of immense help in knowing the vision and mission of the Police Service and how the Service intends to realize them.

### **3.5 Data Gathering Procedure**

First, the researcher sent a letter of introduction from the Department of Sociology to the various police stations. That enabled the researcher to explain to the management the purpose of the study in order to obtain permission for the participation and cooperation of all those selected for the study. Second, the questionnaires were personally administered by the researcher. The selected personnel in the various sampled stations included in the study were visited on week days between 9 a.m and 4 p.m. over a period of 2 weeks. Third, the direct personal interviews were conducted with the heads of personnel departments of the selected stations and other key personnel in the Service. A tape recorder was used to record the responses from the interviewees. Fourth, the direct observation was done by visiting some of the selected police stations. In most cases the observation was done during and after the interview with head of personnel in the station. .

### **3.6 Mode and Instruments for Data Analyses**

The study used the Statistical Programme for Social Sciences (SPSS) to analyze the quantitative data gathered through the use of questionnaires. Again, the qualitative data which were in the form of recorded interviews were transcribed and coded through the creation of a system of

classification based on the lists of categories of questions and concepts as against the objectives of the study. Besides, notes from field observation and written documents were reviewed and analyzed.

### **3.7 Ethical Considerations**

Due to the fact that the study required the participation of human respondents, certain ethical issues had to be addressed. All respondents were briefed on the research objectives in their offices and the permission of their supervisors, sectional heads, and human resource / chief personnel officers were first sought with formal letter of introduction from Department of Sociology. The actual interactions with respondents were done in a private place assisted with a recorder and jotter for recording responses. The arrangement to use the electronic device was first disclosed to respondents.

The research tried to build rapport with respondents so that they would feel comfortable to give responses that would adequately reflect individual's feelings, preferences, attitudes and prejudices on the issues. Again, the respondents were assured of confidentiality and privacy by not disclosing their names and information they provide. To guarantee anonymity of all respondents, their names, offices and titles were made optional on the questionnaires. Besides, respondents were advised not to preface their responses with statements that would allude to their true identities. Lastly, respondents had the freedom to opt out in the process of the study suggesting that participants were not forced to participate in the study.

### **3.8 Problems Encountered in the Study and Limitations**

The study was conducted within a limited period of time. Time, therefore, was a major constraint in carrying out this study. The time frame within which the study was to be completed was short and did not allow the subject to be more adequately explored. Another limitation to the study was the scope of the research. The researcher would have wished to extend the study to a wider section of the region but the resources were limited. However, this did not have significant effect on the result of the research since according to the respondents; the work conditions pertaining in the Service are similar in all the regions.

There was also the problem of unavailability of some relevant and up-to-date documentation on the subject matter as far as the police service was concerned. For instance, this study could not benefit from concrete statistics on incentives and motivation pertaining to the internal security agencies in Ghana for comparative analysis. There was in some cases lack of cooperation from some of the respondents, particularly, the Senior Officers and some of the heads of the units. After gladly collecting the questionnaires, some of the respondents failed to complete them with the excuse of forgetfulness, lack of sufficient time or lack of interest to participate in the study. This necessitated substitution of respondents, which consequently delayed the data collection stage of the exercise.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **DATA ANALYSIS**

#### **4.0 Introduction**

This chapter analyzes data derived from the respondents. It takes an analytical look into the data collected in line with the objectives of the research. The analysis is tailored to the theoretical and comparative issues discussed in the literature review. The basic aim of this is to examine the

personnel's perceptions of salary, training, promotion and fringe benefits as a set of motivational tools; assess the personnel's perceptions of managerial and workplace conditions, supervision and interpersonal relationships, workload and participation in decision-making. It also has the objective of finding ways by which the personnel of the GPS can be effectively motivated to enhance performance. This chapter also discusses the findings in relation to the relevant literature to draw informed sociological conclusions of the issues involved with the motivation of the personnel in the Ghana Police Service.

#### **4.1.0 Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Sample**

A sample of one hundred and forty (140) personnel was chosen from selected police stations within the Accra Metropolis to constitute the respondents for the study. The methods adopted were survey and personal interviews. Personal interviews were conducted and questionnaires were also administered to respondents of the various units in the selected stations. The response rate was 130 (93.0%) out of which, 90 (69.2%) of the respondents were males, 40 (30.8%) females with 80 (61.5%) out of the total ageing between 31 to 40 years old. In all, 80 (61.5%) of the respondents were married. Out of the 40 (30.0%) females respondents, 26 (65.0%) were married as against 54 (60.0%) of males respondents who were married.

Out of the 130 respondents, 40 (30.8%) were Senior Officers i.e. Assistant Superintendents of Police, Deputy Superintendents of Police, Superintendents of Police, Chief Superintendents of Police, Assistant Commissioners of Police, Deputy Commissioners of Police, Commissioners of Police. Also, 80 (61.5%) were Junior Officers, i.e. Constables, Lance Corporals, Corporals, Sergeants, Inspectors and Chief Inspectors. The remaining respondents (10) were supporting and professional staff who were on contract, i.e. Medical Doctors, Caterers and Record Clerks.

#### **4.2.0 PERCEPTIONS OF PERSONNEL OF SALARY, TRAINING AND CAREER DEVELOPMENT, PROMOTION AND CAREER PROGRESSION AND FRINGE BENEFITS AS A SET OF MOTIVATIONAL TOOLS**

The available literature has identified salary, training and career development, promotion and career progression and fringe benefits as a set of motivational tools. It was found in the pre-study that these variables also exist in the GPS. However, the study wanted to know whether the respondents considered these variables as sources of motivation. If they did, how they perceived them as motivational tools. The responses and analyses are presented below.

In the first place, respondents were asked to select as many of these variables that they consider as source of personal motivation. **Figure 6** gives the summary of the responses. Respondents chose all the variables presented to them as sources of motivation. However, a little over half and half of the respondents considered salary 70(53.8%) and fringe benefits 65(50.0%) as sources of motivation respectively. All the respondents chose training and development as sources of motivation, while 100(76.9%) chose promotion and career progression as a source of motivation. Since respondents considered these four variables as sources of motivation, the study considered it a justification for finding out the extent to which respondents were motivated by these variables.

**Figure 6 Respondents' choice of motivational tools (in per cent)**

Source: Author's field survey, 2009.

**4.2.1 Perceptions of Personnel of Salary as a Source Motivation**

To confirm that, giving options, respondents would still consider salary level as a source of motivation, salary level was placed among personnel's duty, supervisor's leadership style, and cordial interpersonal relationships at the workplace. The study asked respondents to indicate only one of these variables that they considered a source of motivation, and whether or not they were motivated by that variable. The responses are summarized in **Figure 7**.

**Figure 7 Respondents' Perception of Salary as a Motivation Tool**

Source: Author's field survey, 2009.

As can be seen from **Figure 7** above, a slight proportion, 21 (16.2%) of respondents considered the “duties” they perform as a source of motivation. Also, 14 (10.7%), 19 (14.6%) and 16 (12.3%) considered the “leadership style”, cordial interpersonal relationship and “other” as sources of their motivation respectively. However, 70 (53.8%) chose the salary they earn as their source of motivation. The respondents 16 (12.3%) who chose “other” indicated that their sources of motivation were admiration and fear the public attached to the uniform. It is interesting to note that all these respondents were junior officers. Again, in proportion, many of the supporting staff considered leadership style as source of motivation than the junior officers and the senior officers. Besides, the senior officers constituted 71.4% of the respondents who considered the duty as a

source of motivation. These cases suggest that, besides salary, the respondents differed on what they considered as their sources of motivation.

To further establish whether or not personnel were satisfied with the salaries they receive, the study asked respondents, “Are you satisfied with your salary level”? **Table 1** shows that, despite the fact that only a simple majority 70(53.8%) of respondents considered salary as their source of motivation (**Figure 7**), an overwhelming majority 107(82.3%) of respondents indicated that they were not satisfied with their salary levels. It can be inferred that, although a significant number of respondents 37(28.5%) were not satisfied with their salary levels, they were indifferent to salary as a source of motivation. Only 23(17.7%) were satisfied with their salary levels.

**Table 1** Cross tabulation between Respondents’ Rank and whether or not they are motivated by their Salary levels

Respondent’s Rank (%)	Whether or not respondents are satisfied with their Salary Levels					
	YES		NO		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Senior officers	10	7.6	30	23.1	40	30.7
Junior Officers	12	9.3	68	52.3	80	61.6
Supporting staff	1	0.8	9	6.9	10	7.7
Total	23	17.7	107	82.3	130	100

Source: Author’s field data, 2009.

Also, **Table 1** shows that 107(82.3%) of respondents who were not satisfied with their salary levels, described their salary levels as either meagre 43(33.0%) or woefully inadequate 64(49.3%)

as the following quote reveals “though my salary is meagre, I take consolation in the fact that our salaries and allowances are regular and for me earning revenue is an important encouragement to do my work well” (Junior office at the Police Headquarters)

Although there seems to be less apparent relationship between rank and respondents’ perceptions of salary levels, the supporting staff (9 out of 10) were the least satisfied with their salary level, followed by the junior officers (68 out of 80) and the senior officers (30 out of 40) respectively

**Table 2 Cross tabulation between Respondents’ Rank and their perceptions of their Salary levels**

Perception of Salary Levels	Respondent’s Rank							
	Senior Officers		Junior Officers		Supporting Staff		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Meagre	10	7.7	28	21.5	5	3.8	43	33.0
Enough to meet needs	5	3.8	1	0.8	1	0.8	7	5.4
Commensurate with my duties	5	3.8	11	8.5	0	0.0	16	12.3
Woefully inadequate	20	15.4	40	30.8	4	3.1	64	49.3
Total	40	30.7	80	61.6	10	7.7	130	100

Source: Author’s field data, 2009

#### **4.2.2 Personnel’s Perceptions of Training and Career Development as Sources of Motivation**

Since all the respondents considered training and career development as a source of motivation, the research wanted to know how respondents perceived the existing training and career advancement opportunities and how it influenced workers attitudes toward their duties. Questions relating to this, sought to find out whether or not respondents have enjoyed some training and benefited from continuous education; whether or not there was room for career advancement; and whether or not respondents were happy with the mode of selection. All the questions demanded 'Yes' or 'No' answers. **Table 3** shows the various responses of respondents.

An initial question in relation to the objective above was "Have you ever had any training since you joined the Service?" In response to this question, both the junior officers and supporting staff constituted the majority 57 (43.9%) of the number 72 (55.4%) of respondents who indicated 'YES' to show that they have had some form of training since their departments engaged them. Besides, another significant majority 107 (82.3%) admitted that there was opportunity for career advancement though it was a 'closed one' "since selecting the beneficiaries at any point in time was left in the hands of the management". This notwithstanding, the responses showed that there was equal opportunity for all staff members, although the mode of selection was not satisfactory. Again, the number of the respondents 40 (30.8%) who had benefited from the policy of continuous education was divided equally between the senior rank 20 (15.4%) and the junior rank 20 (15.4%).

**Table 3 Cross Tabulation of Respondents' Rank and their Perceptions of**

### Training and Career Development as a source of motivation

Perceptions of Respondents	Whether or not respondents have benefited from training and Career Development as sources of motivation (%)							
	Senior Officers		Junior Officers		Supporting Staff		Total Percent	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Enjoyed some training	11.5	19.2	38.5	23.1	5.4	2.3	55.4	44.6
Benefited from policy of continuous education	15.4	15.4	15.4	46.2	-	7.7	30.8	69.2
Satisfaction with the mode of selection	11.6	19.2	3.9	57.7	3.1	4.6	18.5	81.5
Room for career advancement	23.1	7.8	55.4	6.2	3.8	3.8	82.3	17.7

Source: Author's field survey, 2009.

However, none of the supporting staff had benefited from the policy. With regards to the impact of training on personnel's duties and attitudes respondents agreed with the view that training as a tool of human resources management can serve several purposes as the following quotes reveal "I felt more comfortable and confident with my work after benefiting from training" (female senior officer at Osu Police Station) "Training increased my interest and work commitment" (male junior officer at Nima Police Station).

In relation to the above, respondents were asked to assess the training and career development opportunities in the GPS. As shown in **Table 4**, a significant proportion 72 (55.5%) of

respondents perceived the training and development opportunities in the Service as ‘Inadequate’ compared with those 28 (21.5%) who said the opportunities were ‘Adequate’. Some respondents 15 (11.5%) who perceived the training and career development opportunities as ‘Selective and discriminatory’ were equal to those 15 (11.5%) who perceived them as ‘Equal opportunity’.

**Table 4. Cross tabulation of Respondents’ Rank and their Perceptions of Training and Career Development**

Respondent’s Perception of Training and Career Development Opportunities	Respondents’ Rank							
	Senior Officers		Junior Officers		Supporting Officers		Total	
	Freq	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Adequate	15	11.6	10	7.6	3	2.3	28	21.5
Inadequate	11	8.5	57	43.9	4	3.1	72	55.5
Selective and discriminatory	6	4.6	9	6.9	0	0.0	15	11.5
Equal opportunity	8	6.1	4	3.1	3	2.3	15	11.5
Total	40	30.8	80	61.5	10	7.7	130	100.0

Source: Author’s field data, 2009.

Commenting on the above development, a female senior officer at the Police Headquarter was of the view that, “Opportunities for training have to be conducted in a transparent and just manner, since a feeling of unequal treatment de-motivates and results to frustration”. The following quotes seem to support her assertion, “It is important to allow everyone to take part in training opportunities, not at all times to privilege few.” (male officer at Cantonment Police Station) “You toil for decades in the same office. I see the same officer participates in the same training time and time again. This affects staff motivation.” (Male junior officer at Accra Regional Police Headquarters)

It appears that perceptions of respondents are influenced by ranks. **Figure 8 below** shows that respondents in the senior rank tend to have better perception of training and career advancement opportunities than respondents belonging to the junior ranks. It appears that the lower the rank the poorer the perception. As can be seen, majority 15 (11.6%) of respondents who perceived training and career advancement opportunities as ‘Adequate’ belong to the senior rank. In addition, out of the 55.5% of respondents who indicated that training and career development was, ‘Inadequate’, majority 57 (43.9%) belong to the lower ranks, including those of the supporting staff.

**Figure 8 A Bar Chart Showing Respondents’ Perception of Training and Career Development as Sources of Motivation**

Source: Author’s field data, 2009.

Investigating further into this trend, one Chief Superintendent Officer was of the view that training and career development programmes in the Service were skewed toward the senior rank officers. An officer qualifies to participate in management course only after attaining the rank of

Assistant Superintendent of Police. He indicated that, as a result of budgetary constraints, even those few in-service and career enhancement training programmes which both senior and junior ranks officers must undergo six months after their recruitment takes so many years or never happened at all. Nevertheless, he indicated that, for one to climb the ladder he / she has to get himself / herself developed. He concluded “the desire for further education is influenced by the chance to rise within the hierarchy of the Service, to reach a higher status and to increase earnings”.

#### **4.2.3 Respondents’ Perception of Promotion and Career Progression**

The study presumed promotion as one of the key motivating factors in the GPS. The usual methods of promotion in the Service as revealed by a research conducted, included interviews, written examination, satisfactory performance and the length of service. These are applicable to different categories of personnel. The study sought to find out how respondents perceived promotion and career progression in the Service. In response to the questions on promotion and career progression, slight majority 54 (41.5%) said their promotions were unduly delayed, while a significant proportion of respondents 30 (23.1%) indicated that they have encountered delay in promotion due to decisions not made known to them. Moreover, only a slight proportion of respondents 16 (12.3%) pointed out that they were assisted in their preparation for promotion. Although 20 (15.4%) of respondents indicated that their promotions were done within the Service, only few respondents 10 (7.7%) indicated that their promotions were done at the right time. **Table 5** depicts respondents’ perceptions on promotion and career progression.

**Table 5**      **Cross tabulation between Years of being in the Service and Respondents’**

### Perception of Promotion and Career Progression

Perception of promotion and career progression	Years of Being in the Service (Frequency and Percent)									
	1-5		6-10		11-15		16 Above		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Delayed in promotion	8	6.2	5	3.8	14	10.8	3	2.3	30	23.1
Promoted at right time	0	0.0	1	1	5	3.8	4	3.1	10	7.7
Assisted in preparing for promotion	0	0.0	5	3.8	8	6	7	5	16	12.3
Unduly delayed promotion	0	0.0	15	11.5	25	19.2	14	10.8	54	41.5
Promotion within the Service	0	0.0	6	4.6	6	4.6	8	6.2	20	15.4
Total	8	6.2	32	24.6	58	43.1	36	26.2	130	100

Source: Author's field data, 2009.

It is noted that, in a situation where promotion and career progression is decided in line with reasons that are not fairly available, it is likely to have negative results for promotion to be used as a device for motivating workers. This view is buttressed by the following quote: "My promotion has been delayed, I have marked time and been at my current rank for more than a decade, and now the good feeling about the service is gone, it is just dissatisfying" (male junior officer at Kotobabi Police Station) Also, as one respondent puts, "It is a slow, uninspiring and hurting process; you have to follow up on the promotion you are meant to receive for donkey years" (male junior officer at Kotobabi Police Station)

#### 4.2.4 Respondents' Perception of Fringe Benefits as a Source of Motivation.

Generally, benefits are rewards that are not included in direct financial compensation. Unlike payments for performance programmes and incentive plans, benefits are made available by organisations to personnel as long as they remain with the Service. Fringe benefits are extra

benefits given to a personnel in addition to salary or wage. This may include the use of official car and free health care. Regarding this variable, respondents were asked whether or not they enjoy any fringe benefits in the Service and how such benefits, if any, influence their attitudes to work. In response to that, 120 (92.3%) respondents indicated that they do enjoy some fringe benefits. Only 5 (3.9%) respondents said they did not enjoy any fringe benefits. The rest, 5 (3.8%) did not respond to this question. **Table 6** depicts respondents' perceptions about fringe benefits.

**Table 6** Whether or not Respondents enjoy Fringe Benefits

Fringe Benefits	Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent	Cum per cent
	5	3.8		
Yes	120	92.3	96.0	96.0
No	5	3.9	4.0	100.0
Total	130	100.0	100.0	

Source: Author's field data, 2009.

In a follow-up question, respondents were asked to identify the kinds of fringe benefits that they enjoy. As summarized in **Table 7**, of the four benefits (use of official accommodation, use of official vehicle, scholarship facilities for their wards and good pension) that were identified, 87 (66.9%) of respondents had access to official accommodation; 26 (20.0%) used official vehicle whilst 2 (1.5%) and 5 (3.8%) had scholarship facilities for their wards, and good pension respectively.

The analysis suggests a possible correlation between number of years spent in the Service and enjoyment of fringe benefit. For instance, the greater proportion of respondent 61 (46.4%) who enjoyed accommodation had spent over 16 years in the Service, whilst the lesser proportion 27 (20.4%) had spent less than 10 years in the Service.

**Table 7 Cross tabulation between Years of being in the Service and Respondent Perception of Types of Fringe Benefits enjoyed by Respondents**

Types of Benefits	Years of being in the Service (Frequency and Percentage )									
	1-5		6-10		11-15		16 Above		Total (%)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
	2	2.0	1	0.8	1	0.8	6	4.2	10	7.8
Accommodation	8	6.0	19	14.5	24	18.3	37	28.1	87	66.9
Official vehicle	0	0.0	2	2.0	3	2.4	20	15.6	26	20.0
Scholarship to wards	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	1.5	2	1.5
Good pension	0	0.0	1	0.8	1	0.8	3	2.6	5	3.8
<b>Total</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>8.0</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>18.1</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>22.3</b>	<b>68</b>	<b>52.0</b>	<b>130</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Author's field data, 2009.

#### **4.3.0 PERSONNEL'S PERCEPTIONS OF WORKLOAD, PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING, WORKPLACE CONDITIONS, SUPERVISION AND INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIP, AND MANAGERIAL CHARACTERISTICS**

The study presumed workload, participation in decision-making, workplace conditions, supervision and interpersonal relationship, and managerial characteristics as some of the existing set of motivational tools for discussion. However, since respondents might not consider these

variables as sources of personal motivation, they were given the chance to choose as many of these variables that they consider as their sources of motivation. The responses are summarized in **Figure 9**:

**Figure 9 A Pie Chart Showing Respondents' Sources of Motivation**

Source: Author's field data, 2009.

In order to examine the personnel's perceptions of these variables, questions pertaining to these variables were particularly asked in detail and have been analyzed below.

#### **4.3.1 Respondents' Perceptions of the Nature of Workload as a Source of Motivation**

Some studies have emphasized incorporation of work characteristics into motivational factors as significant for achieving greater accomplishment from employees, as it stimulate psychological states (Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman 1959; Handman and Oldham 1980). To ascertain the

validity of such claims, this study found out from the respondents how they feel about the nature of their jobs. The respondents were asked, “How do you perceive your Job Description, that is, the tasks, duties and responsibilities? **Table 8** gives a detailed presentation of respondents’ perceptions about workload characteristics.

**Table 8 Cross tabulation of Respondents’ Rank and their perceptions of workload**

Perception of workload	Respondents’ rank (Frequency and Percentage)							
	Senior Officers		Junior Staff		Supporting Staff		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Overworked	15	11.5	65	50.0	5	3.9	85	65.4
Normal	20	15.4	13	10.0	3	2.3	36	27.7
Under-utilised	5	3.9	2	1.5	2	1.5	9	6.9
Total	40	30.8	80	61.5	10	7.7	130	100.0

Source: Author’s field data, 2009.

In response, of the 130 respondents, 85 (65.4%) respondents felt overworked, whereas 36 (27.7%) were happy with their workload and job schedule; 9 (6.9%) of respondents however felt that their expertise were under-utilized. Half 65 (50.0%) of respondents who felt overworked were in the lower rank categories. Also, among the respondents who felt normal with their assigned duties, the senior officers constituted the majority 20 (15.4%). During the interview discussions, it was revealed that the average number of hours worked per week by lower rank officers was between 40 and 45. Responding to questions on the nature of workload and job schedule, the Director of Research at the GPS headquarters was of the view that, “the nature of the police duties, especially, of the officers deployed on the field for frontline duties, does not enhance self-fulfillment for an individual, it is routine, repetitive and tedious”.

### 4.3.2 Participation in Decision-Making as a Source of Motivation.

Participation in decision-making affects employees' attitudes positively. Nonetheless, its link to performance is less clear. Wagner's (1994) meta-analysis of participation research, for example, concludes that participation has positive but limited effects on employee performance. With this background, the research found out the extent to which respondents' were involved in decision-making at their respective department in the Service. As a result, the study asked respondents to indicate how they perceived the decision-making process of the GPS. **Table 9** depicts respondents' perceptions of the extent to which they are involved in decision-making.

**Table 9** Cross tabulation of Respondents' Perceptions of Decision-Making process of the GPS

Respondent's perception of decision-making process	Respondents' Rank (Frequency and Percentage)							
	Senior Officers		Junior Officers		Supporting Staff		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Participatory	27	20.8	8	6.0	3	3	38	29.3
Non-participatory	13	10.0	72	55.4	7	7	92	70.7
None	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Total	40	30.8	80	61.5	10	10	130	100

Source: Author's field data, 2009.

In all, 92 (70.7%) respondents indicated that the decision-making process was not participatory as the following quote reveals: "Decision-making process is not participatory as we are not directly involved in the making of decisions that affect us." (male junior officer at Police Headquarters) On the other hand, 38 (29.3%) said the process was participatory as the following quote reveals: "Decision-making process is participatory since I have intermittently participated in decision-making." (male senior officer at Ministries Police Station). Out of the 38 respondents who said the decision-making process was not participatory, 8 (21.1%) being the minority were the junior officers, 7.9% were supporting staff while 71.0% were senior officers. Although this suggests that, in general, the decision-making process of the GPS is not participatory, the senior officers and the supporting staff have better chance of inclusion than the junior ranks. A respondent has this to say, "Participation is very crucial since a decision taken concerning yourself has a significant effect on your motivation"

### **4.3.3 Workplace Conditions**

The study presumed that workplace conditions (adequate space and rooms with fashionable furniture, availability of office supplies, toilet facilities, ventilation or air-condition) can affect workers' attitudes toward work by providing them with comradeship and freedom from boredom during working hours. Therefore, the study sought to find out respondents' perception on the conditions of workplace and its impact on personnel attitudes. **Table 10** depicts respondents' perceptions of workplace conditions.

**Table 10 Respondents' Perceptions of Workplace Conditions**

Workplace condition	Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cum per cent
Bad	5	3.9	3.9	3.9
Good	80	61.5	64.0	64.0
Better	30	23.1	24.0	88.0
Best	15	11.5	12.0	100.0
Total	130	100.0	100.0	

Source: Author's field data, 2009.

Out of the 130 respondents, 125 (96.2%) considered their workplace condition as favourable and motivating. Out of the 125 respondent, 80 (64%) indicated their workplace condition was good, while 30 (24 %) and 15 (12%) respondents said their workplace conditions were better and best respectively. Only few respondents 5 (3.9%) said their workplace conditions were bad. The workplace condition, as indicated by the respondents, has an effect on individuals as it may or may not provide adequate security.

#### 4.3.4 Perceptions of Respondents of Supervision and Interpersonal Relationships as Sources of Motivation

**Table 11 Cross tabulation of respondent's rank and respondent's need for supervision**

Whether or not respondents need supervision.						
Rank	YES		NO		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Senior officers	6	4.6	10	7.7	16	12.3

Junior Officers	79	60.7	18	13.9	97	74.6
Supporting staff	15	11.6	2	1.5	17	13.1
Total	100	76.9	30	23.1	130	100.0

Source: Author's field data, 2009.

As regards supervision, the study asked “Do you need supervision before you can work well?” As depicted by **Table 11**, out of the 130 respondents who responded to the question, 100 (76.9%) of them answered “YES” indicating they required supervision to be able to work well, while 30 (23.1%) answered “NO” indicating they did not need supervision to work well. As expected, junior officers 76 (60.7%) and supporting staff 15 (11.6%) needed supervision more than the senior officers 6 (4.6%). In a follow-up question, the common reason given by the respondents who needed supervision to work well was “Lack of authority to undertake responsibilities (70.0%)”. A considerable minority said, “Supervision prevents mistakes (20.0%), while few respondents (10.0%) said, “Supervision reduces risk and responsibilities for failure” In another follow-up question, out of the 100 (76.9%) respondents who needed supervision to work well, 70% said they had been getting the needed supervision, whilst 30% said they were not being supervised.

With regard to interpersonal relationships, the study asked, “How do you perceive the interpersonal relationships at your work place?” The options given to respondents were ‘less open’, ‘open’, and ‘very open’ and ‘staff supportive’. With these options, a significant majority (59.2%) of respondents considered the interpersonal relationship at workplace ‘very open’, while 26.9% and 13.9% of respondents considered it ‘open’ and ‘supportive’ respectively.

Unexpectedly, no respondent considered it ‘less open’. **Table 12** depicts respondents’ perceptions of interpersonal relationships and the effects it has on respondents.

**Table 12 Cross tabulation of Respondents’ Perceptions of Interpersonal Relationships and its effects on respondents**

Effects of interpersonal relationships on respondents	Respondents’ perception of interpersonal relationships									
	Less open		Open		Very open		Supportive		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
It helps me learn more	0	0.0	7	5.4	13	10.0	5	3.9	25	19.3
It makes me safe and secure	0	0.0	6	4.6	20	15.4	8	6.1	34	26.1
It makes me work better	0	0.0	13	10.0	20	15.4	5	3.9	38	29.3
It gives me peaceful mind	0	0.0	6	4.6	15	11.5	0	0.0	21	16.1
It gives me freedom	0	0.0	3	2.3	0	0.0	0	0.0	3	2.3
Other	0	0.0	0	0.0	9	6.9	0	0.0	9	6.9
Total	0	0.0	35	26.9	7	59.2	18	13.9	130	100.0

Source: Author’s field data, 2009.

To determine the effects of the existing interpersonal relationships on the personnel, the study asked an open question, “How does the interpersonal relationship at your work place affect you?” **Table 12** gives the summary of the responses given. Majority 38 (29.3%) of the respondents said that the existing interpersonal relationship make them work better. Another significant proportion 34 (26.1%) said it makes them feel safe and secure. Also, considerable proportions 25 (19.3%) and 21 (16.1%) indicated that the existing interpersonal relationships, ‘makes them learn more’ and ‘gives them peaceful mind’ respectively. Besides the minority 3 (2.3%) who said the relationships gives them freedom, 9 (6.9%) of the respondents said such relationships make them ‘feel human’ and “team players”.

#### 4.3.5 Personnel's Perceptions of Managerial Characteristics.

The study sought to find out how respondents perceived managerial characteristics, such as superior-subordinate relationship, freedom of expression, interpersonal relationships, welfare package, and career development. It was presumed that such characteristics can motivate workers. So the study asked respondents to rate these characteristics as 'not motivating', 'less motivating', 'motivating', and 'very motivating'. All the 130 respondents were asked to rate each managerial characteristic.

As depicted by **Table 13**, significant proportions of respondents of 90(69.2%), 120(92.3%) and 72(55.5%) rated freedom of expression, superior-subordinate relationships, and career development respectively as 'not motivating'. It is only welfare package and interpersonal relationships that considerable majority of respondents, 60(46.2%) and 45(34.6%) perceived as motivating and very motivating respectively. This suggests that, in general, workers are able to identify some managerial characteristics that can be harnessed and improved to motivate them.

**Table 13: Cross tabulation of Managerial Characteristics and respondents' rating**

How respondents rate managerial characteristics										
Managerial Characteristics	Not motivating		Less motivating		Motivating		Highly Motivating		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Freedom of expression	90	69.2	27	20.8	13	10.0	0	0.0	130	100.0
Interpersonal	19	14.6	40	30.8	26	20.0	45	34.6	130	100.0

relationships										
Superior-Subordinate relationship	120	92.3	10	7.7	0	0.0	0	0.0	130	100.0
Welfare package	31	23.8	26	20.0	60	46.2	13	10.0	130	100.0
Career development	73	55.5	30	23.0	28	21.5	0	0.0	130	100.0

Source: Author's field data, 2009.

#### 4.4.0 THE IMPACTS OF PERSONNEL'S PERCEPTIONS OF SOURCES OF MOTIVATION

In order to determine the impact of the existing set of motivational tools on the personnel, the study sought to find out whether respondents were generally satisfied with their current job and whether they derived motivation from the existing sources of motivation.

To begin with, the study asked respondents, "Do you feel satisfied with your current job and its conditions?" As reflected in **Table 14**, only 119 (91.5%) respondents answered the question. Unexpectedly, only a slight majority, 60 (50.4%) respondents answered 'YES' to show that they were satisfied with their current jobs and its conditions, while 59 (49.6%) answered 'NO' to mean they were not satisfied with it.

**Table 14 Whether or not Respondents are Satisfied with their jobs**

Response	Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cum per cent
	11	8.5	8.5	8.5
Yes	60	46.1	46.1	54.6
No	59	45.4	45.4	100.0
Total	130	100.0	100.0	

Source: Author's field data, 2009.

Secondly, the study asked respondents, "How does the existing set of motivational tools affect your attitude towards work?" As can be seen in the **Table 15**, four options were given to respondents to rate the existing set of motivational tools.

**Table 15 Respondents' Final Rating of set of Motivational Tool**

Set of motivation Tool	How Respondents rate the set of motivation Tools (%)				Total
	Not motivated	Less motivated	Motivated	Highly motivated	
Salary levels	7	5	1	1	14
Fringe benefits	0	2	8	5	15
Promotion and career progression	7	2	2	3	14
Training and career development	6	4	3	2	15
Workplace conditions	0	10	4	2	16
Supervision and interpersonal relationships	3	3	4	3	13
Workload	10	1	3	1	15
Participation in decision making	5	5	1	3	14
Managerial characteristics	7	3	3	1	14
Total	45	35	29	21	130

Source: Author's field data, 2009

Put together, 64.5% of respondents were either not motivated (34.6%) or less motivated (29.9%) compared with the 38.5% who felt either motivated (22.3%) or highly motivated (16.2%) by the existing set of motivational tools. On the surface, there seems to be small differences between the set of observed frequencies of responses and the expected frequencies (25.0% on average). To make room for a logical conclusion, the study used goodness-of-fit test (Chi Square) to determine the significance of the difference.

The null hypothesis,  $H_0$  was that: there is no significant difference between the set of observed frequencies and the set of expected frequencies. The alternate hypothesis,  $H_1$  is that: there is a

significant difference between the observed and expected sets of frequencies. With 24 degrees of freedom and 0.05 level of significant, the computed  $X^2$  of 48.559 was in the rejection region beyond the critical value of 36.415. The decision therefore was to reject  $H_0$  at the level of 0.05 and to accept  $H_1$ . This means that the difference between the observed data and the expected frequencies is not due to chance. So the study concludes that, in general, the personnel of the GPS are either not motivated or less motivated by the existing set of motivational tools.

#### **4.4.1 HOW TO MOTIVATE THE PERSONNEL TO GIVE OFF THEIR BEST TO THE SERVICE**

One of the objectives of the study was to find ways by which the personnel of the Ghana Police Service can be effectively motivated to enhance performance. To achieve this objective, besides the questions analysed above, the study asked questions that required respondents to specify the variables that can motivate them to give off their best at the work place. The personnel interviewed were asked to suggest effective and appropriate means or package of motivational variables they perceive will best attract, retain and cause personnel to exert and maintain an effort towards organisational goals.

To begin with, two things are clear from the foregoing analysis. For one, that more than half of the respondents at least considered all the motivational tools presented to them as sources of motivation.

Two, that in general, more than half of the respondents were not motivated or less motivated by the existing set of motivational tools. Nevertheless, the respondents indicated that they were motivated by fringe benefits and, supervision and interpersonal relationships. Again, no respondent felt 'not motivated' by work place conditions, although 10 out of 16 felt less motivated.

In addition, the study asked respondents to recommend motivational tools that management should put in place to motivate staff. **Table 16** gives the frequencies of the answers given by respondents.

**Table 16 Cross Tabulation of Sets of motivational tools recommended by respondents**

Effects of motivational tools on respondents	Senior Officers		Junior Officers		Supporting Staff		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Recognition of officer's efforts	4	3.0	10	7.7	3	2.3	17	13.1
Encouragement of one-to-one coaching	2	1.5	11	8.4	2	1.5	15	11.5
Strengthening training and Development	20	15.4	2	1.5	3	2.3	25	19.2
Redesigning Job Titles and Ranks	0	0.0	7	6.9	0	0.0	9	6.9
Improving working conditions	7	5.4	20	15.4	2	1.5	29	22.3
Giving leadership roles	5	3.9	5	3.9	0	0.0	10	7.7
Instituting casual day	2	1.5	23	17.7	0	0.0	25	19.2
Total	40	30.8	80	61.5	10	7.7	130	100

Source: Author's field data, 2009.

#### 4.4.2 How Recognition could be used as Effective Motivation tool

Recognizing personnel for work done is simply showing gratitude and appreciation for a accomplishing successfully an assigned task. Though it could be obtained for almost free or with making a little conscious efforts; it is not usually applied by many managers as a means of

motivating personnel. When asked to indicate some of the effective ways to motivate the Police Service personnel, 17 (13.1%) of the respondents (i.e. 3% senior officers, 7.7% junior officers and 2.3% supporting officers) were of the view that recognition of individual efforts to organisational performance could be adopted as one of the sources of personnel's motivation. Since this source of motivation is practiced occasionally during passing out ceremonies, the study considered the demand of respondents as a call for the extension of this kind of recognition to day-to-day operations. Therefore, the study sought to find the opinions of some of the Senior Officers on this variable in an interview.

In his appraisal of the view expressed by the respondents, the Director-General, Human Resource Development (HRD), Ghana Police Service, explained that personnel should be recognised right from their units of operations, departmental levels through to the national levels. He considered this as significant because of the nature of personnel's day to day assignment which were not only perilous but also demanding total commitment, discipline and dedication. He indicated that the Service was in the process of preparing modules to be included in the curricula to help train and encourage superiors to develop the habit of recognising the efforts of their subordinates on a daily basis. He concluded, "there is a magic in saying thank you after a day's operations or job well done, but most superiors do not give enough recognition because they themselves do not receive enough."

#### **4.4.3 How One-on-One coaching could be used as an Effective Motivation Tool**

A considerable number, 15 (11.5%) of the respondents (i.e. 1.5% senior officers, 8.4% junior officers and 1.5% supporting officers) also indicated One-on-One coaching as another source of motivation that has impact on personal development of personnel. The study sought to find out if

this variable could be considered viable by management of the Service. As a result, the Director General, Human Resource, explained that One-on-One Coaching would go a long way to bring out the best off the personnel when applied appropriately. He opined that, taken time out of a superior's busy schedule would mean a lot of sacrifice which indicates that the superior cares for his or her subordinate. However, he admitted that this variable was new and that if brought to their attention, the management of the GPS might consider this in subsequent reviews.

Adding his view on this subject, the Director-General, Operations, said “personnel do not care how much their superiors know until they know how much the superiors care. One-on-One Coaching has had significant impact on my professional development. I have enjoyed most from superiors who mentored me. I think it is something that superiors should love doing”. Again, he said the GPS should consider the encouragement of One-on-One Coaching across the board.

#### **4.4.4 How Training and Development could be used as Effective Motivation Tool**

Although 55.4% of respondents have enjoyed some training, 30.8% benefited from policy of continuous education (**Table 4**), significant proportion 25 (19.2%) of respondents (i.e. 15.4% senior officers, 1.5% junior officers and 2.3% supporting officers) called for strengthening of training and career development (**Table 16**). This was in line with respondents' rating of the variable as “inadequate” (**Table 5**). The study deems this a significant call as 18.5% of respondents were satisfied with the mode of selection of personnel for training and career development (**Table 4**). Therefore, the Director-General, HRD, was asked to respond to the call of respondents.

According to the Director-General, training and development is one area that personnel fall short, especially after the recruitment exercises that usher personnel into the Service. In his view, the inadequacy of training could be attributed to two factors: rigidity or over formalization of the GPS training and budget constraints. He explained over-formalization to mean the absence of short or medium period training at the district and regional levels. Also, by budget constraints, he meant the lack of financial resources to organise the needed training programmes for personnel. Nevertheless, he recommended there should be a well-structured in-service training schedules which could be handled by departmental heads or stationed senior officers with the help of specific personnel and colleagues who show a particular strength in the skills needed. He concluded, “this customised in-house training session may not take time, and will continually enhance the performance of personnel and the service delivery of the Police”.

#### **4.4.5 How Job Titles / Ranks could be used as Effective Motivation Tool**

Few respondents 9 (6.9%) being junior officers indicated that management of the GPS should consider redesigning job titles and ranks. During the interview, the Director of Operations, stressed the importance of the title and rank in the Service. In his opinion, “talking about ranks and titles is tapping on the very self-esteem or reputation of the personnel”. He admitted that personnel feelings about the way they are perceived in the Service were critical component to overall attitude and morale. However, interestingly, he said redesigning the titles and ranks in the GPS would be a difficult task since the maintenance of the status-quo was at the centre of all GPS affairs. He, rather, encouraged personnel to work hard to develop themselves in order to climb the existing ladder.

#### **4.4.6 How Working Conditions could be used as an Effective Motivation Tool**

In all, 29 (22.5%) of respondents (i.e. 5.4% senior officers, 15.4% junior officers and 1.5% supporting officers) called for improvement in working conditions, such as salary increment, prompt and regular promotions, regular supply of accoutrement, and workplace conditions. This statistic confirms respondents' responses to question on these variables. For instance, 82.3% were not satisfied with their salary levels, 64.6% experienced delayed in promotions As regards workplace conditions, 96.1% of respondents were satisfied with it. Therefore, in an interview, the Director-General, Administration, was asked to response to personnel's call for increase in salary, prompt and regular promotion and regular supply of accoutrement.

With regard to demand of personnel for increase in salaries, the Direct-General was of the view that, the whole Service was looking forward to the implementation of the Single Spine Salary Structure (SSSS). "I think the new salary system will make the lives of the personnel better. I took part in the negotiation, so I am confident that the SSSS will bring relief to all of us."

Also, on promotion, the Director-General expressed regret for delays in promotion. He attributed the unfortunate situation to unavailability of vacancies in the ranks, and ill preparations towards promotions. He advised, "Management and superiors should assist subordinates to set career paths within their respective specialisations. Developing skills of personnel through equal opportunity, making them conscious of their career path as well as going ahead to promote those who qualify will send right signal to the personnel".

In addition, the Director-General, Administration, responded to the respondents' demand for regular supply of accoutrement. He attributed the problem to budget constraints and the increasing number of personnel. However, he said, "since management is aware of the

significance of accoutrement to the Service, efforts are being put in place to meet the time and demand of personnel.

#### **4.4.7 How given Leadership Roles could be used as an Effective Motivation Tool**

McClelland's theory of acquired need argues that employees with different needs have to be motivated differently should organisations desire the best of personnel. Personnel with high need for achievement need to be given challenging jobs and assignments with reachable goals. The issue of assigning leadership roles to personnel became handy in this respect. Since 10 (7.7%) of respondents (i.e. 3.9% senior officers and 3.9% junior officers) demanded leadership roles as a motivation tool, there was a need to inquire into how the assignment of leadership roles will motivate the personnel.

The Director-General, Administration pointed, "given personnel leadership roles is a means of rewarding their performance as well as helping the leadership to identify future promotable personnel". "Management of the Service is aware that officers are stimulated by leadership roles, even in spot appearances", he said. The regimental hierarchy of the Service does not allow for dispensation of leadership roles. Nevertheless, he suggested superiors should try to assign leadership roles, such as leading brief meetings and teams, frontline policing duties to junior officers.

#### **4.4.8 How Casual Dress Day could be used as Effective Motivation Tool**

Another significant proportion 25 (19.1%) of respondents (i.e. 1.5% senior officers, and 17.7% junior officers) mentioned that the management should institute casual dress day as a motivational tool. The question was, would the dress code make a difference? The thinking was that for men and women in uniform or those required to be in uniform every day, a casual dress day may become a popular desire. In appreciation of the view expressed by respondents, the Director-General, Administration, acknowledged that, this would have some positive impact on the personnel. According to him, personnel are permitted to be in casual dress during major sporting events. “The nature of the policing is such that allowing personnel to be in casual dress cannot be more than seldom. The uniform is part of the security measures that ensure peace and safety in the communities”, he said.

#### **4. 5.0 DISCUSSION**

In the first place, the study noted that respondents were motivated by needs and not everyone would be motivated by the same set of needs at any one time. This is because respondents considered all the variables presented to them as sources of motivation. The implication is that, it is good to have as many kinds of motivational tools as possible in any organisation. This would ensure that every worker would be motivated by at least one motivation tool or another. This was the situation in the Ghana Police Service. This is the reason why some researchers recommend the existence of many motivational tools in an organisation. Strauss and Sayles (1960), for instance, identified three options of motivation that supervisors use. These were authority, good conditions of service and competition for pay increases and promotions. Locke et al considered goal setting, even as (Everard and Burrow, 1996; Torrington, Hall, and Taylow, 2005; DeNisi and Griffin, 2008).

Secondly, the study found that half of the respondents were not motivated by their salary levels, 36.1% were less motivated whilst only 13.9% were either motivated or highly motivated. Respondents preferred other motivational tools to salary. For instance, 53.8% chose salary whilst 90.0% of respondents were motivated by fringe benefits, 56.9% by supervision and interpersonal relationships, and 43.1% by workplace conditions. This is in line with the needs-based theories of Maslow and Alderfer, which teach that people are motivated by needs and not everyone would be motivated by the same set of needs at any one time. This implies that the Service needs to put in place different set of motivation packages based on individual's needs and aspirations at any given time.

It is important to indicate that, whilst only half of respondents considered salary (53.8%) and fringe benefits (50.0%) as sources of motivation; all the respondents chose training and development as sources of motivation, with significant proportion (76.9%) choosing promotion and career progression as a source of motivation. On a surface, this may seem to support Herzberg's research which classified motivation into hygiene factors or motivators and perceived salary as a hygiene factor. According to Herzberg, absent of salary (hygiene) factors can cause dissatisfaction of workers yet it would not motivate them. This seems to buttress the Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, which downplays the importance of the salary as a motivator (Maslow, 1954). Maslow gives much premium to the worker's need for self-esteem and actualisation as the ultimate goal that motivates the worker.

Although some studies have indicated that income level and job satisfaction of workers are positively related (Cantril, 1946; Marriot and Denerley, 1955; Reiner 1957; Terman Oden, 1959), this study found that half of the respondents were not motivated by their salary levels. Lack of

motivation with respect to salary level cannot be attributed wholly to the sizes of salary, since half of the respondents did not consider salary level as a source of motivation at all. This confirms the view of Wood et al that motivators need not necessarily motivate employees all the time, and hygiene factors need not cause dissatisfaction all the time. Some of these factors may interchange their roles and act as an initiative to attain job satisfaction (Wood et al., 1998, 179). But Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory brings about discipline in the organisation and a better understanding of the employees. Therefore, one can infer that respondents appeared to prefer other source of motivation, such as training and development, since it will inure to their benefit by enhancing their career advancement and growth opportunities which Herzberg categorized as motivators.

Work in itself can act as a motivator especially among professionals (Herzberg, 1968). The GPS is not only a professional institution but, more so, employs professionals who are likely to be motivated by the need for achievement within their various spheres of profession; this may explain why a significant minority 21 (16.2%) of respondents derive some level of satisfaction from the 'duties' they perform as opined by McClelland's acquired-needs theory of motivation. However, the motivation derived from work, itself may not be enough source of satisfaction as far as the respondents are concerned since the study indicates that an overwhelming majority (82.3%) of respondents were not satisfied with their salary levels. From the above, it is reasonable to infer that the nature of one's work coupled with a good salary could result in one having enough satisfaction. Although there seems to be less apparent relationship between rank and respondents' perceptions of salary levels, the supporting staff (9 out of 10) were the least

satisfied with their salary level, followed by the junior rank (68 out of 80) and the senior Rank (30 out of 40).

In addition, the study found that 56.9% of respondents were in the range of less motivated and highly motivated whilst the rest (43.1%) were not motivated by the training and career development. Since all the respondents considered training and career development as a source of motivation, this kind of perception is not healthy for the management of the GPS. Training and development have been identified by experts as essential for the enhancement of individual and organisation performance (Everard and Burrow, 1996; Torrington, Hall, and Taylow, 2005; DeNisi and Griffin, 2008). According to these scholars, workers can perform at their optimum when they have acquired the requisite skills and knowledge. According to Everard and Burrow (1996:513), training and development are means of improving employee's performance, preparing an employee to take up a new job, helping an employee develop. They also argue that during periods of organisational change, training is needed to prepare employees for the change. The management of GPS should diversify its training and career development approaches to include customized and decentralised in-service training at the immediate district and regional levels. In fact, this would enhance the personnel's skills and reduce employee turnover. Torrington et al argues that employees have positive perception of training and development opportunities. For this perspective, training opportunities enhance commitment to an employer on the part of individual employees, making them less likely to leave voluntarily than they would if no training were offered (Torrington et al., 2005:176).

Again, Strauss and Sayles (1960) espoused that promotion and career progression lead to employee's satisfaction. Although 76.9% of respondents chose promotion and career development as a source of motivation, the study found that, more than half (63.8%) of the respondents were either not motivated (49.2%), or 14.6% were less motivated whilst 36.2% were either motivated or highly motivated. The promotion and career progression did not motivate respondents, as expected, because the majority (64.6%) experienced delay in their promotions due to decisions not made known to them. The respondents were likely to have different perceptions of promotion and career progression, had promotions be granted in due time.

Moreover, Strauss and Sayles (1960) argue that fringe benefits and high wages raise employees' morale, make them happy and cause them to increase performance. The Ghana Police Service appears to do well in the provision fringe benefits to personnel. This was reflected as 96.0% of respondents enjoy one benefit or another. However, it appeared that the enjoyment of higher-value fringe benefits, such as official vehicle, accommodation, and scholarship to wards, depended on the number of years a person has spent in the Service. Personnel who have spent many years in the Service seem to enjoy better fringe benefits. This seemed normal as respondents indicated they were motivated by existing fringe benefits. It is essential to find that the respondents were motivated by the fringe benefits because these economic factors, as Sonnenfeld (1985) noted, continues to be means of obtaining status and well-being in the society. As a result, the study reiterates the view of Bame (1974) that, since this motivational tool make personnel more valuable and improve their lot, management should pay more attention to it.

Furthermore, the study found that 35.4% of respondents were not motivated by participation in decision-making, the same number of respondents also felt less motivated while the rest (29.2%) felt motivated. The fact that a significant proportion (35.4%) of respondents felt less motivated means that the management of the Service could improve participation. In all, 92 (70.7%) respondents indicated that the decision-making process was not participatory as they were not directly involved in the making of decisions that affected them. Nevertheless, the literature available shows that participation, broadly defined, generally leads to higher satisfaction with organisational processes and decisions, and ultimately to stronger commitment to the organisation. Spector (1986) summarises that employees who perceive more control at work are more satisfied, more motivated, and more committed to the organisation. Shared decision-making may improve employees' satisfaction with both decisions made and the process by which such decisions are made. This may strengthen employees' commitment to decisions as well as their sense of justice in the process (Cawley, Keeping, and Levy, 1998) and their trust in the organisation (Nyhan, 2000). Ultimately, however, the combination of a climate of participation (Miller and Monge, 1986) and a perception of having one's voice heard (Cawley, Keeping, and Levy, 1998) may have a stronger impact on employee satisfaction than does the perception of improvement in decision quality. Therefore, participatory decision-making process would have caused respondents to have different view.

Also, the study found that only 28.5% of respondents were motivated by the existing workload. Most 85 (65.4%) of respondents felt overworked, working between 40 and 45 average number of hours per week. Whereas 36 (27.7%) were happy with their workload and job schedule; 9 (6.9%) of respondents however felt that their expertise were under-utilized. Half (50.0%) of respondents who felt overworked were in the lower rank categories. Also, among the respondents who felt

normal with their assigned duties, the senior officers constituted the majority (15.4%). This implies that the management has to think about the job characteristics as a motivational tool. Some studies have emphasize incorporation of work characteristics into motivational factors as significant for achieving greater accomplishment from employees, as it stimulate psychological states (Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman, 1959; Handman and Oldham, 1980).

The management of GPS could adopt job redesign approaches to improve upon workload as a motivation tool. This technique involves redesigning jobs so that the work itself will motivate employees to exert greater effort (DeNisi and Griffin, 2008:455). Job redesign involves job rotation, job enlargement, job enrichment, and job characteristics approach. Many reviews of motivational research conclude that job redesign may be more influential for affective (that is, attitudinal) behavioural outcomes. Hackman and Oldham's (1980) job characteristics model posits a causal chain between job design and work outcomes: various job characteristics lead to various psychological states, which in turn produce various personal and work outcomes.

In sum, the personnel can enjoy many benefits from job redesign. These may include, increasing employee's skills and autonomy, avoiding boredom, increasing satisfaction with the job and providing opportunities for growth and development. As DeNisi and Griffin cautioned, job redesign approaches should not be used in disregard for employees' perceptions. For instance, it is employees who should determine the appropriateness of the approach, so that they may end up benefiting greatly from the particular approach. Though job redesign acknowledges that different people want different things from their job, Griffin et al. (2002:276) believe that job redesign can motivate individuals with strong needs for career growth or achievement.

In addition, the study found that the management of the GPS was doing averagely well on workplace conditions. This was indicated by the fact that no respondent felt 'not motivated' by the existing workplace conditions. An overwhelming majority (96.2%) of respondents was satisfied with the workplace conditions and described their working environment as favourable and motivating. Out of this, 80 (64%) respondents said their working environment was good, while 30 (24 %) and 15 (12%) respondents said their workplace conditions were better and best respectively. The working condition, as indicated by the respondents, has an effect on individuals as it may or may not provide adequate security. Nevertheless, Herzberg considers workplace conditions as part that "hygiene factors" which do not necessarily lead to higher levels of motivation but without them there is dissatisfaction.

As regards supervision and interpersonal relationships, respondents were motivated by the existing supervision and interpersonal relationships. This was indicated by 56.9% of respondents, as the rest were either not motivated or less motivated. This is in contrast with one of the findings of Herzberg. According to him hygiene factors, such as, the kind of supervision which employees receive while on the job and interpersonal relations, do not necessarily lead to higher levels of motivation but without them there is dissatisfaction. However, the respondents indicated that their relationships with their superiors were sources of motivation. In fact, good supervision and interpersonal relationships can remove fear, frustrations and inspire personnel to exert greater efforts.

The study found that only 28.5% of respondents were motivated by managerial characteristics of the Service. These managerial characteristics included superior-subordinate relationship,

freedom of expression, interpersonal relationships, welfare package, and career development. Even though it was presumed that such characteristics could motivate workers, 50.0% of respondents felt not motivated. Respondents had their reasons for this perception. For instance, significant proportions of respondents of 69.2%, 92.3% and 55.5% rated freedom of expression, superior-subordinate relationships, and career development respectively as ‘not motivating’. It is only welfare package and interpersonal relationships that considerable majority of respondents, 46.2% and 34.6% perceived as motivating and very motivating respectively. This suggests that, in general, personnel are able to identify some managerial characteristics that can be harnessed and improved to motivate them. Since respondents considered this as a source of motivation, management of GPS could give it attention and consider it as strategy for motivating personnel.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.0 Introduction**

The previous chapters focused basically on the background to the study, statement of the problem, the objectives, purpose and significance of the study. They also reviewed the relevant theories and approaches to motivation and described the appropriate research methods adopted for the study. The data is then analyzed and the findings discussed. This chapter summarizes the major findings from the study and the deductions that can be drawn from the analysis and subsequently make recommendations.

### **5.1 Summary of the Research Process**

The research study has three main objectives. The first objective of the study is to examine personnel's perceptions of salary, training and career development, promotion and career progression, and fringe benefits as a set of motivational tools and strategies. The second objective is to assess personnel's perceptions of workload, participation in decision-making, workplace conditions, supervision and interpersonal relationship, and managerial characteristics. The third objective is to find ways by which the personnel of the Ghana Police Service can be effectively motivated to enhance performance.

To achieve these objectives, the research adopted the needs-based theories of motivation because of their appropriateness. The study adopted survey research method and used questionnaires and interviews to derived data from respondents. To reach respondents, the study adopted probability and non-probability sampling methods, including purposive, systematic and simple random sampling. These techniques ensured that all the ranks in the Service were adequately represented.

Again, the study used two main data collection instruments, the quantitative technique; by administering questionnaires and qualitative technique through the use of personal interviews. Besides, an interview guide that was used, a structured questionnaire was administered to one hundred and forty (140) Police personnel of various ranks. In all, a total of 130 personnel responded to the questionnaire. In most of the questions, respondents were supposed to simply tick 'yes' and 'no'. This strategy was adopted because it made it easier for respondents to provide answers.

The fieldwork was conducted in the months of April and May, 2009 to put together quantitative data for analyses and discussions. Based on that, direct personal interviews were also held with some respondents and key Police personnel. Again, questions pertaining to the variables were asked and in-depth explanations were extracted from the participants. This provided means of strengthening the data analysis and to support the key conclusions in the study. The analyses were done based on the strategies of motivation by the use of percentages and tabulations. The final report was developed after consensus on issues of disagreement had been sorted out.

## **5.2. Summary of the Research Findings**

The study revealed the following findings:

1. The personnel of the GPS considered salary, training and career development, promotion and career progression, fringe benefits, workload, participation in decision-making, workplace conditions, supervision and interpersonal relationship, and managerial characteristics as sources of motivation.
2. The respondents were motivated by three of the motivational tools presented to them. These were fringe benefits, workplace conditions, and supervision and interpersonal relationships. In all, 90.0%, 43.1% and 56.9% perceived these tools as ‘motivating’ respectively.

3. The respondents were not motivated by their salary levels (50.0%), promotion and career progression (49.2%), training and career development (43.1%), managerial characteristics (50.0%), and participation in decision-making (35.9%).
4. Some motivational tools which could motivate personnel were not in the notice of management. These included recognition of officer's efforts, encouragement of one-to-one coaching, redesigning job titles and ranks, giving leadership roles, and instituting casual day.
5. The personnel of the GPS can be motivated greatly by a system that recognised officer's effort, encourages one-to-one coaching, gives leadership roles to junior officers, and improved working conditions.
6. Some of the variables that the literature, especially, in Herzberg's view considered as hygiene factors were, in fact, motivators. Among these variable were fringe benefits, workplace conditions, and supervision and interpersonal relationships.
7. There is possible relationship between demographic parameters, such as sex, age, and rank, and how respondents perceive sources of motivational tools, which could be the research focus of subsequent studies.

### **5.3 Conclusion**

The research shows that, although the personnel of the GPS considered salary, training and career development, promotion and career progression, fringe benefits, workload, participation in decision-making, workplace conditions, supervision and interpersonal relationship, and managerial characteristics as sources of motivation, not all of these variables were perceived as

motivating. This implies that personnel have diverse needs they look for in their work places. Since they cannot all be fulfilled by the same level of needs, they are likely to have different set of perceptions of existing sources of motivations. These different perceptions would trigger dissimilar attitudes to work and therefore determine in the long run the general performance of the organisation. Therefore knowing personnel point of view, sentiment and perceptives of the value of elements of motivation to his / her wellbeing should be the pre-occupation of management of the Service before implementing any policy.

Again, the study revealed that the existence of motivational tools does not mean that personnel will be motivated or perceived them as such. Among the nine motivational tools, only fringe benefits, workplace conditions, and supervision and interpersonal relationships were perceived as motivating by the respondents. The rest did not motivate personnel. Besides, respondents mentioned other variables that were not part of the existing motivational tools. This serves as the basis for concluding that, personnel will have different perceptions of a given set of motivational tools, and that established sources of motivation may not motivate personnel all the time. These conclusions imply that the organisation needs to review its set of motivational tools at time intervals so as to prevent the situation whereby such tools would become less useful in the course of time. Again, the management would have to include personnel in identifying sources of motivation or the application of motivational strategies.

It is worth noting that, the study was carried out before the implementation of the Single Spine Salary Structure (SSSS) and for that reason did not consider the effect of the SSSS on the personnel's motivation. The post- Single Spine Salary Structure for police personnel can also be

of a research focus for subsequent studies to assess the impact of the Policy on the attitude of personnel toward work.

#### **5.4 Recommendations**

On the basis of the findings obtained from the field, the following recommendations are made:

First, the study recommends that the management of the GPS should review the motivational strategies in the Service. This is because, as depicted by the findings of this study, the elements of motivation in the Ghana Police Service contribute immensely to affect the performance of personnel.

Second, the management of the GPS should include the personnel in the review of the motivational tools. This will enhance the decision-making process of the Service which the respondents considered non-participatory.

Third, the management of the GPS should move away from the conventional sources of motivation to other emerging sources of motivation, such as fringe benefits, one-to-one coaching, establishment of casual dress day, training and development, and recognition of officers' effort.

Fourth, the management of the GPS should modify the curricular of the Police Training School to include course that will inculcate in the trainees the habit of recognizing and appraising officers' contributions to progress of the Service.

Fifth, staff appraisal / assessment should be undertaken periodically to assess personnel's academic qualification, professional experience and skills; the functions and responsibilities of each officer as well as training received. These should inform decisions regarding training and career development. This may be constrained by budgetary allocation and the size of staff strength though; the Service could start with all the key police officers.

Sixth, the management of the Service should consider a customised in-house / in-service training session for the personnel; this, though may take time, will continually enhance the performance of personnel and the service delivery of the GPS. These scheduled training programmes could be handled by departmental heads or immediate supervisors with the assistance from individual personnel who demonstrate a particular strength in the skills taught.

Seventh, the management of the GPS should make conscious efforts to do away with any likely obstacle that might contribute to the undue delay in getting personnel promoted.

Eighth, Superiors in the Service should take time out of their busy schedule to develop their subordinate by preparing them on their career choice.

Ninth, the Service should make conscious effort in bringing on board the junior rank officers and supporting staff in making decisions that concern them.

The GPS is ready for reform, and Ghana is ready for a police service that reflects its role as a model of successful and stable democratic change. It is time that decades of discussions and debates around police reform is translated to tangible change and the final shaking off of a

colonial legacy that has persisted for too long. The above stated follow-up actions were gathered basically from the information assembled throughout the study and, primarily, input from respondents. The recommendations are, therefore, participant-driven and by consensus of the entire team involved in this study. It is believed that when applied, it could go a long way to address some of deficiencies in the GPS regarding motivation.

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## Questionnaire

### SOCIOLOGY DEPARTMENT OF UNIVERSITY OF GHANA, LEGON

#### RESEARCH ON WORKERS' PERCEPTIONS OF SOURCES OF MOTIVATION IN PUBLIC ORGANISATIONS

Dear Respondent,

I write to humbly request your assistance in completing this questionnaire on the above-mentioned topic. This is an academic project towards the fulfillment of the Masters of Philosophy in Sociology Programme at the University of Ghana. Your forthright response as an individual will enhance the quality of this study.

The findings of this research will be presented to the **Department of Sociology** in the form of “**Thesis**”. The information will be confidential and used for statistical purposes only. Identity of source of information will not be disclosed.

Please read the instruction below to help you answer the questions.

Your co-operation is well treasured.

Thank you



- C. Training and career development [     ]
- D. Promotion and career progression [     ]
- E. Fringe benefits [     ]

**A. Perceptions of Personnel of Salary as a Source Motivation**

2. Which one of the following will you consider as a source of motivation?

- A. The duties I perform
- B. The leadership style
- C. Salary I earn
- D. Cordial interpersonal relationships at the workplace
- E. Other, specify .....

3. Are you satisfied with your salary level?

- A. Yes    B. No

4. If “No” in question 3, give reason for your answer

- A. It is meagre
- B. It is not enough to meet my needs
- C. It commensurate with my duties
- D. It is woefully inadequate
- E. Others, specify.....

**B. Perceptions of Training and Career Development as Sources of Motivation**

5. Have you ever had any training since you joined the Service?    [I] Yes or    [II] No

6. Is there opportunity for career advancement?    [I] Yes or    [II] No

7. Have you ever benefited from continuous education?    [I] Yes or    [II] No

8. Are you happy with the mode of selection?    [I] Yes or    [II] No

9. How do you assess the training and career development opportunities in the Service?

- A. Inadequate
- B. Adequate
- C. Selective and discriminatory
- D. Equal opportunity
- E. Others, specify .....

### C. Perception of Promotion and Career Progression

10. How do you perceive promotion and career progression in the Service?

- A. Promotion is delayed
- B. Promoted at right time
- C. Assisted in preparing for promotion
- D. Unduly delayed promotion
- E. Promotion within the Service

### D. Perception of Fringe Benefits as a Source of Motivation

11. Do you enjoy fringe benefit?            A. Yes            B. No

12. If “Yes” in question 10, what kinds of fringe benefits do you enjoy?

- A. Use of official accommodation
- B. Use of official vehicle
- C. Scholarship facilities for my wards
- D. Anticipation of good pension
- E. Others specify.....

### Section C: Personnel’s Perceptions of Source Motivation

13. Which of the following variable do you consider as sources of motivation? Choose as many of these variables as apply to you.

- A. Workload,
- B. Participation in decision-making

- C. Workplace conditions
- D. Supervision and interpersonal relationship
- E. Managerial characteristics

**A. Perceptions of the Nature of Workload as a Source of Motivation**

14. How do you perceive your Job Description (tasks, duties and responsibilities)?

- A. I feel overworked
- B. It is normal
- C. I feel under-utilized
- D. Others, specify.....

**B. Participation in Decision-Making as a Source of Motivation**

15. How do you see the decision-making process of the Ghana Police Service?

- A. Participatory
- B. Non-participatory
- C. Other

**C. Workplace Conditions**

16. How do you consider your workplace conditions?

- A. Bad
- B. Good
- C. Better
- D. Best
- E. Others, specify.....

**D. Perceptions of Supervision and Interpersonal Relationships**

17. Do you need supervision before you can work well?

- A. YES
- B. NO

18. If “Yes” to the above question, what is your reason?

.....

19. Do you get the needed supervision to work well?

- A. Yes
- B. No

20. How do you perceive the interpersonal relationships at your work place?

- A. Less open
- B. Open
- C. Very open
- D. Staff supportive

21. How does the interpersonal relationship at your work place affect you?

- A. It makes me work better
- B. It makes me feel safe and secure
- C. It makes me learn more
- D. It gives me peaceful mind
- E. It gives me freedom
- F. Others, specify.....

**E. Perceptions of Managerial Characteristics.**

22. How do you perceive the following managerial characteristics? Rate these characteristics as 'not motivating', 'less motivating', 'motivating', and 'very motivating'.

Managerial Characteristics	Rating			
	Not motivating	Less motivating	Motivating	Highly Motivating
Freedom of expression				
Interpersonal relationships				
Superior-Subordinate				

relationship				
Welfare package				
Career development				

### Section D: The Impacts of Personnel's Perceptions of Sources of Motivation

23. Do you feel satisfied with your current job and its conditions?

- A. YES
- B. NO

24. How does the existing set of motivational tools affect your attitude towards work? Rate these tools as 'not motivating', 'less motivating', 'motivating', and 'very motivating'.

Set of motivation Tool	Rate the set of motivation Tools			
	Not motivated	Less motivated	Motivated	Highly motivated
Salary levels				
Fringe benefits				
Promotion and career progression				
Training and career development				
Workplace conditions				
Supervision and interpersonal relationships				
Workload				
Participation in decision making				
Managerial characteristics				
Total				

### Section E: Recommendation

Recommend a motivational tool (s) that management should put in place to motivate personnel.

1. ....

2. ....
3. ....
4. ....
5. ....
6. ....
7. ....
8. ....

## Appendix

**Table 4.16 Respondents' Final Rating of set of Motivational Tool**

Set of motivation Tool	How Respondents rate the set of motivation Tools (%)				Total
	Not motivated	Less motivated	Motivated	Highly motivated	
Salary levels	65	47	9	9	130
Fringe benefits	0	13	70	47	130
Promotion and career progression	64	19	19	28	130
Training and career development	56	32	23	19	130
Workplace conditions	0	74	37	19	130
Supervision and interpersonal relationships	28	28	37	37	130
Workload	54	39	28	9	130
Participation in decision making	46	46	10	28	130
Managerial characteristics	65	28	28	9	130
Total	378	326	261	205	1170

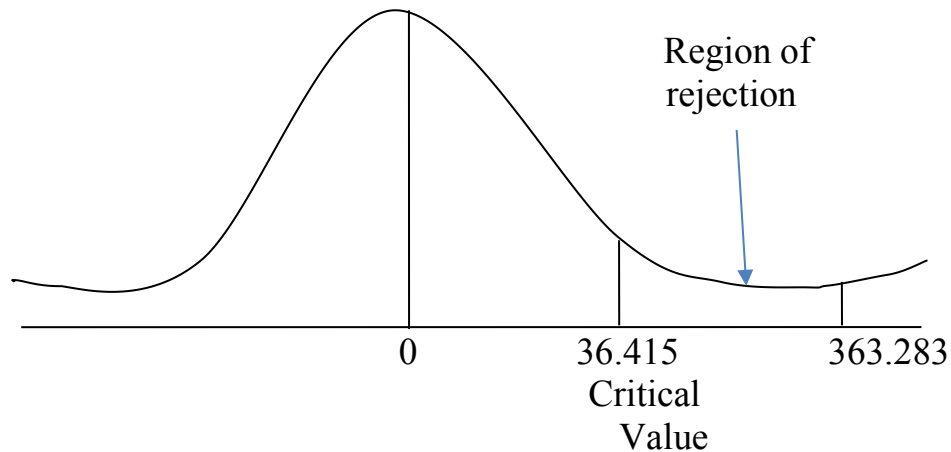
Source: Author's field data, 2009

**Table 4.17 Observed and Expected frequencies for Computation of X<sup>2</sup>**

	F <sub>o</sub>	F <sub>e</sub>	f <sub>o</sub> -f <sub>e</sub>	(f <sub>o</sub> -f <sub>e</sub> ) <sup>2</sup>	(f <sub>o</sub> -f <sub>e</sub> ) <sup>2</sup> /f <sub>e</sub>
Salary level	65	42	23	529	12.59524
Salary level	47	36.222	10.778	116.1653	3.207037
Salary level	9	29	-20	400	13.7931
Salary level	9	22.778	-13.778	189.8333	8.334063
Fringe benefits	0	42	-42	1764	42
Fringe benefits	13	36.222	3.222	539.2613	14.88767
Fringe benefits	70	29	41	1681	57.96552
Fringe benefits	47	22.778	24.222	586.7053	25.75754
Promotion and career progression	64	42	22	484	11.52381
Promotion and career progression	19	36.22	-17.22	296.5284	8.186869
Promotion and career progression	19	29	-10	100	3.448276
Promotion and career progression	28	22.778	5.222	27.26928	1.197176
Training and career development	56	42	14	196	4.666667
Training and career development	32	36.222	-4.222	17.82528	0.492112
Training and career development	23	29	-6	36	1.241379
Training and career development	19	22.778	-3.778	14.27328	0.626626
Workplace conditions	0	42	-42	1764	42
Workplace conditions	74	36.222	37.778	1427.177	39.40084
Workplace conditions	37	29	8	64	2.206897
Workplace conditions	19	22.778	-3.778	14.27328	0.626626
Supervision and interpersonal	28	42	-14	196	4.666667
Supervision and interpersonal	28	36.222	-8.222	67.60128	1.866305
Supervision and interpersonal	37	29	8	64	2.206897
Supervision and interpersonal	37	22.778	14.222	202.2653	8.879853
Workload	54	42	12	144	3.428571
Workload	39	36.222	2.778	7.717284	0.213055
Workload	28	29	-1	1	0.034483
Workload	9	22.778	3.778	189.8333	8.334063
Participation in decision-making	46	42	4	16	0.380952
Participation in decision-making	46	36.222	9.778	95.60928	2.639536
Participation in decision-making	10	29	-19	361	12.44828
Participation in decision-making	28	22.778	5.222	27.26928	1.197176
managerial characteristics	65	42	23	529	12.59524
managerial characteristics	28	36.22	-8.22	67.5684	1.8655
managerial characteristics	28	29	-1	1	0.034483

managerial characteristics	9	22.778	-13.778	189.8333	8.334063
<b>Total</b>	<b>1170</b>				<b>363.2826</b>

### Chi-Square distribution for 24 Degrees of Freedom



Note:

**Null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ):** there is no difference between the set of observed frequencies and the set of expected frequencies.

**Alternate hypothesis ( $H_1$ ):** there is a difference between the observed and expected sets of frequencies.

$$\text{Degree of Freedom (df)} = (\text{number of rows} - 1)(\text{number of columns} - 1) = (r - 1)(c - 1)$$

$$(9 - 1)(4 - 1) = 24$$

$$\text{Expected frequency} = \frac{(\text{Row total})(\text{Column total})}{\text{Grand total}}$$