

Perspectives on Nigerian Labour Market and the Global Economy

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PERSPECTIVES ON NIGERIAN LABOUR MARKET AND THE GLOBAL ECONOMY

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Employee Motivation in A Globalizing Nigerian Labour Market

Benjamin Osayawe Ehigie

and

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Introduction

Employee Motivation Defined

Employee motivation is defined as that which energizes, directs and sustains human behaviour at work place (Steers, Mowday and Shapiro, 2004). Three basic concepts are important in understanding motivation, which are *effort*, *persistence* and *direction* (John, 1992). Effort is the strength a person exhibits on the job, and reflects different forms of work behaviour. This could vary from one type of job to another. The effort that would be exerted by a researcher and writer, as motivation to publish a book, would be different from that exerted by a machine operator. Persistence is that which an employee exhibits in putting effort to work, that is, the way effort is applied. The direction of an employee's work behaviour is the focus on a target. From the employer's perspective, a worker's high persistent effort at work is better qualified as indicating high motivation if such behaviour is directed at meeting organisation's goals. Such qualification of employee's work behaviour is paramount because some can be motivated to engage in activities that are at variance with the objectives of the organisation.

From the foregoing, motivation may be better defined as the extent to which persistent effort is directed at a goal. In the work setting, such goals might include productivity, regularity, punctuality, work commitment and other positive work behaviours (Ehigie and Otukoya, 2005). In some other settings, employees may channel their persistent effort in directions that adversely affect the organisation, such as absenteeism, strife, or sabotage. Such work behaviours are referred to as counter organizational work behaviours (CWB). Persistent efforts in such dimensions may still be considered as motivational but the goals are bad outcomes for the organisation. Thus, effort and persistence determine the quantity of work a person produces while direction is linked to the quality of the person's work.

Globalization Defined

Globalization describes the integration of national economies into the international economy through trade, foreign direct investment, capital flows, migration, and the spread of technology. The United Nations ESCWA has written that globalization "is a widely-used term that can be defined in a

number of different ways. When used in an economic context, it refers to the reduction and removal of barriers between national borders in order to facilitate the flow of goods, capital, services and labour. Globalization is largely the result of planning to break down borders hampering trade to increase prosperity and interdependence. Globalization may occur in order to maintain barriers to the international transfer of people, goods and beliefs, particularly free market deregulation, encouraged by organizations. The Nigerian labour market is globalized as it accommodates employees who are not indigenes. The challenge facing enhancing their performance levels is getting them motivated.

Motivation and Performance

It is commonly reasoned that motivation is synonymous with increased performance. But we do see many people who are highly motivated to perform a task but may not perform very well. Thus, there is difference between motivation and performance. Motivation is an abstract concept because it cannot be seen or touched, nor could it be measured physically, as it is an internal thing. The best we can do is to infer motivation from employees' behaviours and infer its presence from behaviour choice, intensity, and persistence.

Performance is the extent to which an organisational member contributes to achieving the objectives of the organisation. It is actual on-the-job behaviours that are relevant to the organisation's goals (Greenberg, 2005). Most times organisation managers attribute employee poor performance to low motivation. Although motivation is an important antecedent of performance, so are ability, the right equipments, organisational support, and freedom from organisational constraints (Levy, 2006). A relationship, thus, exists between motivation and performance.

Dunnette (1976) opined that performance is a function of ability and motivation, symbolised as:

$$\text{Performance} = f(\text{ability} \times \text{motivation}).$$

Employee performance may be considered at individual or group level (Afolabi and Ehigie, 2005; Ehigie, 1993). Some of the factors that contribute to individual job performance in organisations have been identified. These include ability and skill level (person factors), task understanding and chance (external factors). Thus, while relationship exists between motivation and performance, it is not a perfect one because some other factors mediate in the relationship. It is possible for a person to be highly motivated yet his or her performance level is low if, for instance, aptitude is low, skills are weak, understanding of the task is poor, and chance factor is unfavourable. In the alternative, an individual of low motivation might understand the task so well that a little effort expended may result high performance level. Also, a person with low motivation might perform well as a result of some luck or chance factor that boosts performance.

Classification of Theories of Motivation

There are two common ways in which the contemporary theories of motivation are categorized. First, a distinction is made between content and process theories. Content theories specify those factors that cause a person to behave as he or she does. They explain those “things” that motivate behaviour. Some content theories are referred to as need or person theories (Jex, 2002), because they focus exclusively on the characteristics and inner drives of the person. Needs are physiological and psychological wants or desires that can be satisfied by acquiring certain incentives or achieving particular goals. Need theories centre on what motivates workers (needs and associated incentives or goals) by attempting to specify the kinds of needs people have and the conditions under which they could be motivated to satisfy their needs in an organisation. Other content theories focus on environmental influences on motivation. The behaviour modification theory and the basic reinforcement theory are examples of these theories.

The process theories look for matters of interactions in which many variables come together to jointly determine behaviour. While the content theories are concerned with *what* motivates employee, the process theories focus on exactly *how* various factors motivate people. Content and process theories are, thus, complementary rather than contradictory. Somehow, the process theories focus on the person-environment interaction in motivation (Steers and Porter, 1991).

A second way of distinguishing the various theories of motivation is to differentiate between cognitive and acognitive models. The cognitive theories of motivation focus on understanding the feelings and thought processes people go through when deciding on work behaviour. The acognitive or non-cognitive theories of motivation, on the other hand, rely on overt observable behaviour, not internal processes such as attitudes or feelings.

Contemporary Theories of Motivation

Need Hierarchy Theory

The most widely known theory of individual needs and motivation is the hierarchy of needs proposed by Abraham Maslow. The theory made a considerable impact on developments in management theory during the 1950s/60s. According to Maslow (1970), human needs are in five sets, which can be put in hierarchical form, as shown in Figure 1.

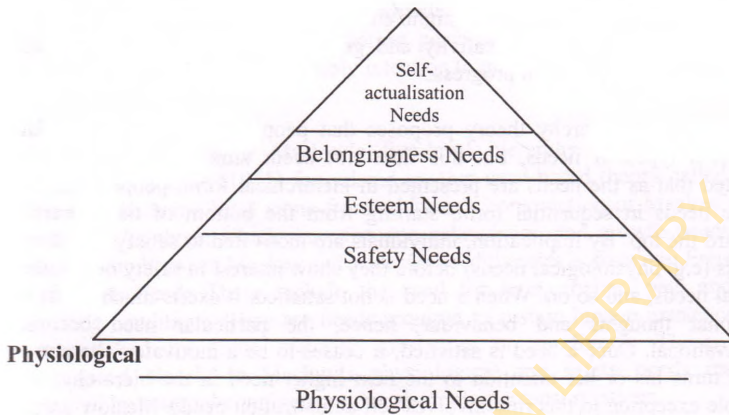


Fig. 1: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Physiological Needs:

These are needs that need to be satisfied for survival; they include food, water, oxygen, sleep, sex, shelter, and others. Organizational factors that might satisfy these needs include the minimum wage necessary for survival and working conditions that promote existence.

Safety Needs: These include needs for security, stable environment that is relatively free of threats, freedom from anxiety, and a structured or ordered work environment. Organizational conditions that might enhance these needs include safe working conditions, fair rules and regulations, sensible organizational policies, job security, a comfortable work setting, pension and insurance schemes, pay above the minimum needed for survival, freedom to unionize, and so on.

Belongingness Needs: These relate to affectionate relations with others, social interaction, love, companionship, and friendship. Organization variables related to meeting these needs are opportunity to interact with others on the job, having a friendly and supportive supervisor, opportunity for team work, opportunity to develop new social relationships like training, and others.

Esteem Needs: These include needs for self-respect, competence, confidence, independence, strength, feelings of adequacy and the deserved appreciation and recognition of those characteristics by others. Organizational factors that might meet these needs include opportunities leading to feelings of achievement and responsibility. Also included are promoting awards, prestigious job titles and professional recognition.

Self-actualization Needs: They involve the desire to develop one's true potential to the fullest, and to express one's skills, talent, and emotions in ways

that are personally fulfilling, and becoming all that is possible to become. Organizational conditions that might enhance self-actualization include jobs with the opportunity for creativity and growth, as well as permitting self-development and personal progress.

The need hierarchy theory proposes that people are desirous to satisfy different types of needs, but this does not occur simultaneously. Maslow posited that as the needs are presented in hierarchical form, people attend to these needs in sequential form, starting from the bottom of the hierarchy toward the top. By implication, individuals are motivated to satisfy the lower needs (e.g. physiological needs) before they show interest in safety needs, then social needs, and so on. When a need is not satisfied, it exerts much effect on personal thoughts and behaviour, hence, the particular need becomes motivational. Once a need is satisfied, it ceases to be a motivator; the person then turns his or her attention to the next higher need in the hierarchy. The simple exception to this rule involves self-actualization needs. Maslow argued that these are "growth" needs that become stronger as they are satisfied.

Maslow (1943) argues that there are two basic kinds of needs: deficiency needs and growth needs. Deficiency needs are those that must be satisfied for the individual to remain healthy and secured. Needs for safety, belongingness, love, and respect are all deficits. The individual will fail to develop a healthy personality if these needs are not satisfied. When a particular need is unsatisfied (i.e. when the person is "deprived"), this need will dominate the person's consciousness. Thus, individuals are believed to move up the hierarchy by a process of deprivation and gratification. Growth needs are those needs that relate to the development and achievement of one's potential. Maslow suggested that gratification of the need for self-actualization causes an increase in its potency rather than a decline. This is so, because, self-actualization is a process of becoming and this process is intensified as well as sustained as one gradually approaches self-fulfilment.

Implication of Need Hierarchy Theory for Management

It is implied from this theory that managers are responsible for creating a work climate that would allow employees satisfy their needs. With globalization, national and cultural differences need to be recognized in designing work environment that would stimulate the employees work behaviour. The human resource experts in Nigeria need to bear in mind the level an employee lies in the hierarchy; guided by his or her nationality. When managers notice that employees have satisfied a category of need, based on place of origin and work experience gained, they should create a work environment that will be targeted at satisfying higher needs. For instance, the work setting has to be structured to largely satisfy the deficiency needs (i.e. hunger, security, and social relationships) of foreign employees, after which they can concentrate on satisfying their growth needs by engaging in creative and innovative jobs in the organizations where they are employed. Such work climate may include

opportunities for autonomy and responsibility so that the employees can better realize their potentials. Failure to provide such work climate may lead to increased employee frustration, poorer performance, lower job satisfaction, increased absenteeism and possibly intention to quit.

Alderfer's Erg Theory

Due to the failure of Maslow's five-level hierarchy to meet empirical validation, Alderfer (1972) formulated another need-based theory called ERG Theory. The name ERG came from Alderfer's compression of Maslow's five categories to three, which are existence, relatedness, and growth needs. The relationship between Maslow and Alderfer need theories is shown in Figure 2.

Existence Need: These include the need for food, shelter, pay, and safe working conditions. They are needs required to sustain human existence, and are satisfied by some material substances or conditions. These needs correspond closely to Maslow's physiological and safety needs that are satisfied by material conditions, rather than interpersonal relations.

Relatedness Need: These needs concern how people relate to their surrounding social environment, and relate to Maslow's belongingness needs and esteem needs that involve feedback from others. Alderfer mentioned that relatedness needs are satisfied by open, accurate, honest interaction rather than by uncritical pleasantries.

Growth Need: These needs correspond to Maslow's need for self-actualization and some aspects of his esteem needs. The needs are fulfilled by stress involvement in the work setting, making full utilization of one's skills and abilities and the creative development of new skills and abilities.

Alderfer agrees with Maslow in that both models posit that as lower-level needs are satisfied, the desire to have higher-level needs satisfied increases. Also, as existence needs are fulfilled, relatedness needs gain motivational strength. Alderfer agrees with Maslow that the least needs, that is, growth needs, become more compelling and more desired as they are fulfilled.

From the ERG theory it can be concluded that the more lower-level needs are gratified, the more higher-level need satisfaction is desired; and the less higher-level needs are gratified, the more lower-level need satisfaction is desired. The ERG theory has implications for extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. While extrinsic motivators are likely to satisfy existence and relatedness needs, intrinsic motivators are likely to satisfy growth needs.

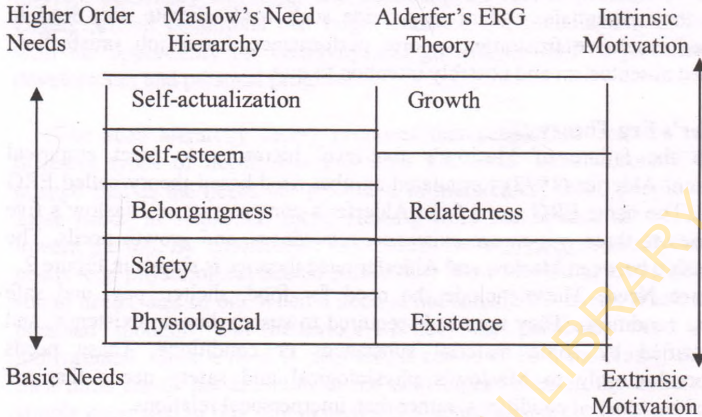


Fig 2: Relationship between Maslow and Alderfer Need Theories
(Adapted from Johns, 1992, p. 169)

Manifest Needs Theory

The final need theory is called the manifest needs theory, developed by Henry A. Murray in the 1930s and 1940s. This theory has, however, been extended by David McClelland (1988) and others. McClelland saw human needs as relatively stable personality characteristics, acquired through early life experiences and exposure to selected aspects of one's society. McClelland, unlike Maslow and Alderfer, was more concerned with the specific behavioural consequences of needs rather than being interested in specifying a hierarchical relationship among needs. The four needs identified by McClelland are need for achievement (nAch), need for affiliation (nAff), need for autonomy (nAut) and need for power (nPow).

Need for Achievement: This need is defined as behaviours toward competition with a standard of excellence. High need for achievement is characterized by:

1. A strong desire to assume personal responsibility for finding solutions to problems. Those high in nAch do not prefer situations in which outcomes are determined by chance because success in such situations does not provide a feeling of achievement.
2. A tendency to set calculated risks by going for moderately difficult goals which are challenging but have high probability of success. High nAch individuals tend to avoid easy goals because they are not challenging, and also extremely difficult goals because they may never be reached.

3. A strong desire for feedback on task performance. Such feedback encourages individuals with high nAch to modify their strategies for attaining goals and signals them when success has been reached.
4. A strong preoccupation with task and task accomplishment.

Low need for achievement, on the other hand, is characterized by a preference for low risk levels and sharing of responsibility with others on tasks. Many managerial and entrepreneurial positions require the need for achievement in order to be successful. Thus, when an employee is placed on a difficult job, if his or her nAch is high, he or she would be challenged by the nature of task and thereby motivated by the inherent nature of the job. If, on the other hand, a high nAch individual is placed on routine or unchallenging jobs, the achievement motive will probably not be activated and he or she would invariably not perform well (McClelland, 1988).

The concept of nAch has implications for job design. By enriching an employee's job, for instance, high need achievers would be motivated to enhance performance, as they would be challenged by such jobs. Low need achievers, on the other hand, might not be motivated to perform on such job due to the high challenge the job will pose; they might even withdraw from the job out of frustration. Providing greater amounts of variety, autonomy, and responsibility enrich a job.

Need for Affiliation: The need for affiliation (nAff) is defined as an attraction to another organism in order to feel reassured from the other that the self is acceptable. This need is different from being sociable or popular, rather it is a special desire to establish and maintain friendly, compatible interpersonal relationships. People with high nAff are associated with the following:

1. A desire to like others and to be liked by others, disregarding cultural and religious differences.
2. A tendency to communicate frequently with others, either face to face, by telephone, letter or other electronic communication networks like chat, video conferencing, and email.
3. A tendency to conform to the norms, values and wishes of others they value, that is, accommodating others' culture.
4. A sincere concern for other's feelings.
5. Preference to avoid conflict and competition with others.

The nAff motive is similar to the belongingness or relatedness need of Maslow.

Need for Autonomy: The need for autonomy (nAut) is a desire to be independent and free from any form of control or constraint. High needs for autonomy employees prefer work scenes where they can work alone, control their work behaviour, and are not guided by excessive rules or procedures. Employees of high nAut tend not to conform to group norms, perform poorly

under close supervision, and are not committed to the goals and objectives of the organization.

Need for Power: Need for power (nPow) is a desire to influence, control, or lead others around.

Implications of Manifest Needs

McClelland is of the view that people should be motivated to seek and perform well in jobs that fit their needs. High nAff individuals tend to take jobs requiring high amount of interpersonal contact such as sales, teaching, public relations, social work and counselling. It is recommended (Johns, 1992) that people with high nAch should be highly motivated by sales jobs or entrepreneurial positions; such jobs offer feedback, personal responsibility, and opportunity to set goals. High nAut individuals are mostly found among craft and trades people and lower-status employees, not managers. Lastly high nPow individuals would be suitable for jobs such as journalism and management.

As a matter of fact, McClelland found that the most effective managers have a low need for affiliation, a high need for power, and the ability to direct power toward organizational goals. These needs have to be examined among people seeking international jobs, and appropriately fitted so as to get them motivated at work.

The Process Theories of Work Motivation

The process theories concentrate upon how motivation occurs, unlike the need theories that concentrate upon what motivates people. The theories to be considered include equity theory, expectancy theory, and goal theory.

Equity Theory

Equity theory was first enunciated by Adams (1965) and considered as a social comparison theory of motivation. Generally, social comparison theories focus on individual's feelings or perceptions about how fairly they are treated as compared to others. Equity theory is based on two basic assumptions about human behaviour.

1. That an individual engages in a process of evaluating his or her social relationships. Social relationships are viewed as an exchange process in which individuals contribute or invest and expect certain outcomes in return.
2. That people do not assess the equity of an exchange in a vacuum. Rather, they compare their own situations with those of others to determine the relative balance. The level of satisfaction of an exchange is, thus, influenced by what happens to oneself, compared to what happens to others.

The social comparison processes involved in equity theory are based on the relationship between two variables: inputs and outcomes. Input represents those things an individual invests or contributes in an exchange. In a work

setting, input could be education, previous work experience, effort on the job, expertise, and so on. Outcomes, on the other hand, are what an individual receives from the exchange and include pay, fringe benefits, status, positive feedback, and so on.

For an input or outcome to be a factor in evaluation exchange relationship, two conditions must be met. First, one or both parties in the exchange must recognize the existence of an input or outcome. Second, an input or outcome must be considered relevant or having marginal utility in the exchange. The theory explains that individuals assign weights to the various inputs and outcomes based on the perceived importance. Intuitively, people arrive at a ratio of their outcomes to inputs, as compared to the ratio of another individual's or group's outcomes to inputs. This referent other becomes the point of comparison for people in determining the degree to which they feel equitably treated.

Equity theory asserts that workers compare the inputs they invest in their jobs and the outcomes they receive against the inputs and outcomes of some other relevant person or group. When these ratios are equal, the worker experiences a fair and equitable exchange with the employer; this brings about job satisfaction. A state of perceived equity exists whenever the ratio of a person's outcomes to inputs is equal to the ratio of others' outcomes to inputs. Using Pritchard's (1969) illustration, let **H** indicate the individual's perception of his or her input or outcomes as high and **L** to mean low. The basic equity ratio is thus given as:

$$\text{Equity ratio} = \frac{\text{Outcome (H or L)}}{\text{Input (H or L)}}$$

In comparing this ratio with that of another individual or group, the following show possible comparative ratios for equity to be maintained.

$\frac{L}{L} \vee \frac{L}{L};$	$\frac{H}{H} \vee \frac{H}{H};$	$\frac{L}{L} \vee \frac{H}{H};$
$\frac{H}{H} \vee \frac{L}{L};$	$\frac{L}{H} \vee \frac{L}{H};$	$\frac{H}{L} \vee \frac{H}{L};$

The first ratio is that of the individual himself or herself, the second (after **V** for versus) is that of the person or group used for comparison. A state of perceived inequity is however, experienced whenever these two ratios are unequal. There can be two types of inequity; over-reward inequity and under-reward inequity. With under-reward inequity, the individual believes that he or she is not receiving enough for the input invested in the job, compared to others. The individual is therefore dissatisfied and he or she is motivated by a desire to improve his or her outcome/input ratio and bring it to level up with the ratio of the comparison order. The comparison ratios are given thus:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \underline{L} V \underline{H}; & L V L; & \underline{L} V \underline{H}; \\ \text{Under-reward Inequity} & L L & H L & H L \\ & \underline{L} V \underline{H}; & \underline{H} V \underline{H}; \\ & H H & H L \end{array}$$

The over-reward inequity is less common but interesting because it assumes that the individual will be dissatisfied for being rewarded above the input invested in the job, compared to others. He or she thus experiences tension and is therefore motivated to reduce it. However, over-reward inequity is better tolerated than under-reward inequity. The comparison ratios for over-reward inequity are as follow:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \underline{L} V \underline{L}; & \underline{H} V \underline{L}; & \underline{H} V \underline{L}; \\ L H & L L & L H \end{array}$$

Over-reward Inequity

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \underline{H} V \underline{H}; & \underline{H} V \underline{L}; \\ L H & H H \end{array}$$

Generally, inequity is unpleasant and tension producing so people attempt at reducing inequity so as to achieve equity. To achieve this, Adams suggested the following:

1. People may alter their inputs. Individuals may increase or decrease their inputs, depending upon whether the inequity is over-reward or under-reward. Underpaid individuals, for instance, may reduce their level of effort on the job or increase absenteeism, whereas overpaid people may increase effort.
2. People may alter their outcomes. Individuals may also increase or decrease outcomes received on the job. An example is effort to improve wages and working conditions without necessarily increasing effort on the job (or input).
3. People may perceptually distort one's inputs or outcomes. For instance, perceived under-reward inequity may make people cognitively increase the job status as outcomes, with a feeling - "This job is actually good", or may cognitively decrease effort with the feeling - "I don't work too hard on the job". By such cognitive distortions, the input-outcome ratios become more favourable, comparatively, and dissatisfaction is erased.
4. People may perceptually distort the inputs or outcomes of the comparison person. For instance, people may cognitively see the comparison person as putting more effort on the job, thus, cognitively increasing the other's input.
5. People may choose another comparison person.
6. People may leave the exchange relationship, like leaving the job.

Managerial Implications of Equity Theory

With globalization, there is the tendency for foreign employees to compare their earnings with what their counterparts earn in their home country, against the backdrop of having left home, family members and other relations. The indigene employee compares what the foreign employee earns with what he or she earns, and examines these against input on the job, if it is actually different. All these are sources of challenge to managing the labour market in a globalizing work environment. It is implied from this theory that perceived underpayment could result in various dimensions of negative motivation like low productivity, low quality, employee absenteeism, labour turnover, and so on. The alternative means of solving this problem, through overpayment, may not really have its motivational intention. It is best to maintain an equitable balance. To achieve balance, managers should be alert to social comparison processes in organisations and view motives in dynamic terms. They should also recognise the importance of perceptions in employee motivation.

Expectancy Theories of Motivation

Generally, all the expectancy theories are based on the premise that people are influenced by the expected results of their actions. Motivation is described as a function of the relationship between effort expended and the perceived likely outcomes, and expectations that reward will be related to performance. Performance therefore depends upon the perceived expectation regarding effort expended and the desired outcome.

Vroom's Expectancy Theory

Vroom (1964) was the first person to propose an expectancy theory of work motivation. The theory is a cognitive one, which sees people from a rational-economic viewpoint. It explains that people are decision makers who choose among alternative courses of actions by selecting the action considered most advantageous at that time. Vroom's model is based on three key variables. These are valence, instrumentality and expectancy, hence, the theory is also referred to as VIE theory or Expectancy/Valence theory.

Valence is the attractiveness of a particular outcome to the individual, or the preference he or she has for the outcome. Valence could be positive or negative. A positive valence exists where the person prefers achieving the outcome to not achieving it. Negative valence, on the other hand, is where there is a preference for avoiding the outcome. Where the person is indifferent to achieving or not achieving the outcome, there is zero valence. Vroom distinguished valence from value. Valence is the anticipated satisfaction from an outcome, while value is the actual satisfaction provided by an outcome.

Valence does not exist in abstraction. It is associated with some objects or states, called an outcome. An outcome could be described as first-level or second-level. Frequently, behaviours and performance levels are termed first level outcomes. Second-level outcomes may be tangible objects such as money or good work settings; it could be intangible factors such as recognition or

feelings of achievement or accomplishment. Theoretically, the number of second-level outcomes is almost limitless. The second-level outcomes (e.g. promotion, money, recognition) have some degree of association with the first-level outcomes e.g. performance. This association is represented by instrumentality.

Vroom defined instrumentalities as subjective correlations between two outcomes, one outcome being performance. For performance, a positive subjective correlation means that the individual believes an increase in performance leads to an increase in the second-level outcome of interest. The reverse is the case with a negative subjective correlation, and a zero subjective correlation implies that the amount of the outcome received is unrelated to performance.

A final link in this theory is that between an individual's act (effort) and an outcome (performance). Vroom referred to this as expectancy and defined it as a subjective probability held by the individual that an act (behaviour) would lead to the outcome. A subjective probability of zero means that the person is absolutely sure that the act will not lead to the attainment of the outcome; + 1.00 means there is certainty that the act will lead to the outcome, and other levels of certainty lie between.

Managerial Implications of the Expectancy Theories

A summary of this theory is that motivation is seen as a function of the combination of the three elements – expectancy, instrumentality and valence. An act, such as effort, is associated with performance. The amount of effort exerted at a point in time, to attain a desirable level of performance, is determined by the subjective probability held by a person that such effort would yield the performance level. The desired level of performance is determined by the subjective correlation established between attainment of such performance level and other outcomes to which performance is expected to lead, such as satisfaction or money, depending on how attractive the person perceives them. It is imperative for managers of organizations in Nigeria to ensure that appropriate work behaviours are rewarded for the attainment of high performance levels. Second level outcomes like promotion, bonus, and other work benefits, should be based on performance and not friendliness, ethnicism, religious affiliations and the like. A globalized labour market would not accommodate such practices.

The Rational - Economic Theory

Douglas McGregor (1960), in his analysis of organizational approaches toward people, developed two theories named Theory X and Theory Y. The assumptions of theory X are that:

- i. The average human being has an inherent dislike for work and would avoid it if he or she can.
- ii. People are inherently lazy and must therefore be motivated by outside incentives.

- iii. As a result of this, most people have to be controlled by external forces to ensure that they work toward organizational goals.
- iv. The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibilities, has relatively little ambition, and wants security above all.

From the foregoing, Theory X is void of any inherent motivational impetus in an average worker hence the emphasis on the need for external control of workers for the attainment of organizational goals, specifically, productivity. Man hates work, according to this theory, but would work when compelled to do so, using some external forces. This theory demonstrates the importance of organizational policy in getting employees across the globe adapt to specific organizational culture and expectations in Nigeria. The setting of targets for workers could serve as external controlling forces for motivation. Thus, in managing people by objectives they are directed towards the objective of the organization. This is achievable externally through target setting and performance feedback (Ehigie, 1993).

The Theory X is, however, criticized for seeing man as a machine or robot that operates at the stimulus- response (S-R) level. It does not see the cognitive function of an individual in initiating his or her own actions. Thus, the theory reduces man to the level of atavism. Acknowledging some of these deficiencies in the generality of Theory X, McGregor postulated a second theory, named theory Y. The basic assumptions underlining the theory Y are:

- i. People are not by nature passive or persistent to organizational needs. They become so as a result of experience in organizations.
- ii. The motivation, the potential for development, the capacity for assuming responsibilities, the readiness to direct behaviour towards organization are all present in people. Management should make it possible for people to recognize and develop those human characteristics for themselves.
- iii. Management task is therefore to arrange organizational conditions and methods of operation so that people can achieve their own goals best, by directing their own efforts toward organizational objectives.

Theory Y sees an employee as inherently apt for productivity at work. Poor productivity is generated when work conditions are not conducive for expressing the inherent potentials. It is implied that for Nigerian and foreign employees working in Nigeria to be more productive, an enabling work environment need to be put in place. However, the problem with Theory Y is that people are accustomed to being directed, manipulated, and controlled in work environment, especially Nigerian employees. Care therefore needs to be taken not to generalize this strategy to foreign employees. To this end, Brazziel (1964) found blacks, on the average, to score lower than whites on need for autonomy.

The Two-Factor Theory

This theory was developed by Herzberg (1966), and is popularly called the Motivation-Hygiene Theory. Herzberg distinguished between "Motivators" and "Hygiene or Maintenance" and "job dissatisfiers". In fact, these two factors generated the name, the "Two-Factor Theory". For Herzberg, the factors that cause job satisfactions, which are achievement, recognition, workitself, responsibility, and advancement, are different from those that cause dissatisfaction. By Herzberg's theory, the presence of these factors in work environment could lead to job satisfaction but their absence cannot cause job dissatisfaction. Other factors cause job dissatisfaction when absent in work environment; these are company policy and administration, supervision, salary, interpersonal relations, and working conditions.

Herzberg explains how work could be made more interesting through job enlargement. The basic notion of job enlargement is that jobs should be designed to use the full capacity of an individual. Job enlargement involves the expansion of a number of duties and responsibilities associated with a particular work. This expansion can occur along two dimensions. According to McCormick and Ilgen (1983), one is called "horizontal loading" while the other is the "vertical loading." In the former, the number of subtasks required in jobs is increased without increasing responsibility or complexity. Jobs are enlarged vertically by expanding ability and skill requirements as well as responsibility and autonomy. Job incumbents may now complete complex tasks, make decision on task accomplishment, and so forth. Some writers refer to this as job enrichment. The idea reflected in this aspect of the theory can be applied through appropriate sizing of employees in Nigerian organizations. This could help in enlarging employee jobs or enriching it.

Job enlargement is the obverse of job specialization. Based on the worker-centred principle of job design, the two-factor theory advocates for an internal modification of jobs, in terms of expansion, to provide the opportunity for the worker's psychological growth of need fulfilment. Job specialization, on the other hand, holds that jobs should be broken down into its smallest part, for simplicity, so that every worker specializes in one part and does it repeatedly.

Theories of Motivation as Applied in the Nigerian Labour Market

The theories of motivation mentioned so far were formulated and tested in the developed countries. Specifically, the theories are outcomes of the work of Euro-American behavioural scientists, majority of who are psychologists (e.g. Lawler, 1973; Locke, 1968; Vroom, 1964). Ugwuogbu (1981) explained that culture and individual differences are expected to put ceiling on the methods or techniques of effectuating the so-called universal principles. That is why for a globalized labour market, care must be taken to effectively apply these theories of employee motivation. Obi-Keguna (1985) concluded that Nigeria is constituted of many cultures, as such; it may not be expected to arrive at any one theoretical position of motivation within Nigeria. The same principle applies in a globalized labour market.

Ugwuegbu (1981) observes that the studies conducted by early western industrial psychologists, the empirical data obtained and their observations were based on their cultural norms, their beliefs about the nature of man, and their perceptions of the relationship between them and their environments. He argued further that they did not consider cultural differences, particularly customs and traditions, belief system, educational level, and standard of living of other people. While it has not been quite easy to develop theories of motivation unique for the Nigerian populace, researchers have made efforts to adapt the existing theories to the Nigerian environment.

Using Vroom's Instrumentality theory, Ejiofor (1978) suggested that a vital condition for motivating labour is to make their effort/offences instrumental to their rewards/punishments. He explained further that it is ideal for effort/offence to be perfectly instrumental to rewards/punishments. Oloko (1977) conducted a research, on the basis of which the conclusion was arrived at that many Nigerian workers do not perceive any satisfactory relationship between their effort and their organisation's reward. This conclusion conforms to Vroom's theory and could explain why Nigerians are less productive when compared to their counterparts in the developed countries. Organizations in Nigeria that are open to the global labour market should watch out for this.

Eze (1981) noted that a common criticism against Nigerian people at work is that "they generally seem to be unconnected, slow, sleepy, reluctant to act, and deceitful in their approach." These features of Nigerian people are the opposites of what Eze (1981) outlined as characterising high-achievement people in a production-oriented society. Eze listed a number of factors which account for low motivation and low productivity in Nigeria, amongst which is the traditional orientation of Nigerian people to basic lower-order needs (Maslow, 1943) and to extrinsic motivational tendencies (Herzberg, 1966) leading to basic indifferences to higher-order needs satisfaction (Maslow, 1943). For high productivity to be attained in a country, the workers would have progressed above the primary needs in the hierarchy of needs enunciated by Maslow, and approach the higher-order needs. Because Nigerians are low in the hierarchy, according to Eze (1981), productivity is low in Nigeria. However, where an organization is open to the labour, it must be recognized that foreigners coming from the developed countries need to be attracted and attracted with factors that can satisfy the higher order needs, with the lower order needs being guaranteed.

Etuk (1981) attached much importance to Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation. He conducted a study on job satisfaction and motivation with Executive Officers in parastatals and government ministries. Etuk demonstrated that these officers attach much importance to achievement, opportunity to grow, responsibility, opportunity to participate in making decisions, opportunity to participate in setting goals, and opportunity for promotion. These features observed by Etuk, of Nigerian executives, conform to Herzberg's "Motivator". Thus, it could be inferred that Nigerian executives are motivated at work by the same factors as those that motivate the western

executives. Most often, foreigners who come to work in Nigeria opt for higher position jobs where their skills are highly desired. Due to the state of the Nigerian economy, Nigeria scarcely, attracts employees of lower job position to the country, hence, this finding is applicable for globalized labour market in Nigeria.

In another perspective, Obi-Keguna (1985) observed that pay per se is not a major cause of worker dissatisfaction and low productivity in Nigeria. He argued from the point that series of wage increases in Nigeria, even from Adebo Commission (1971) and Udoji Commission (1974). It is disturbing why Nigeria still experiences low productivity after these wage increases. This suggests that pay, per se, is not a panacea for motivating employees, nor could pay be considered a cause of worker dissatisfaction.

Eze (1985) therefore sees people's orientation as determinants of lines of motivation. For him, where the culture is religious, social and artistic, people's motivation and problems confronting them will follow these lines and their limitations and distortions will be high. Where the culture is intellectual, scientific and technological, people's motivations and problems will also reflect these orientations, with less limitations and distortions.

In summary, Triandis (1980) opined that almost all theories of motivation reflect Euro-American imagination, and African researchers have based their empirical studies within the Euro-American theoretical orbit. In Nigeria, researches have been conducted, also within the Euro-American theoretical enclave. While some of the empirical findings in Nigeria supported some of these theories, some others did not, and in some cases the findings have not been consistent.

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