Review

The effect of employees' motivation on organizational performance

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The study seeks to unravel the factors that affect construction workers' motivation and the corresponding effect of the identified motivational factors on workers' performance and overall productivity. The survey revealed that, among the top ten critical factors (teamwork, work based on contract, supervision based on leadership by example and provision of equipment) had great effect on motivation as well as impact on productivity. More so communication, love and belongingness, opportunity to undertake challenging task, identification with goal and overtime were among the critical factors.

Key words: Motivation, frustration – induced behaviour , performance, theory.

INTRODUCTION

When one thinks about it, the success of any facet of the business can almost be traced to motivated employees. This is especially true and important in today's turbulent and often chaotic environment where commercial success depends on employees using their full talents. The ability to attract, retain and develop talented employees is a key feature of a successful business.

People are an organization's most valuable asset and this is especially true in relatively low-tech labour intensive industries such as construction, but again, people also represent the most difficult resource for organizations to manage. Unlike physical assets, people have their own individual needs which must be met and habits which must be managed if they are to contribute to organizational growth and development. They are individuals who bring their own perspectives, values and attributes to organizational life, and when managed effectively can bring considerable benefits to organizations (Mullins, 1999). However, when managed poorly they have the potential to severely limit organizational growth and threaten the viability of a business. In any company, whether it is a construction company or any other trade, its core is its employees; their presence and contribution is very important in such a way that they determine if the company is going to be a success or a failure. A company may have good manager, a good vision and a good goal; however, if it neglects its employees, that company is practically in turmoil.

Unsatisfied employees produce unsatisfactory results, therefore, it is very vital for top management to take care of their employees to ensure that they are satisfied in

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their jobs; when they are satisfied; they strive for the company's goals and aim (Latham, 1994; Egan, 1998). The success of any organization depends on the ability of managers to provide a motivating environment for its employees. The challenge for managers today is to keep the staff motivated and performing well in the workplace. The manager has to know the behaviour of each employee and what might motivate each one individually. By understanding employees' needs, managers can understand what rewards to use to motivate them. The goal of most companies is to benefit from positive employee behaviour in the workplace by promoting a win–win situation for both the company and workers.

Conceptual clarifications

Motivation

Every organisation is concerned with what should be done to achieve sustained high levels of performance through its workforce. This means giving close attention to how individuals can best be motivated through means such as incentives, rewards, leadership etc. and the organisation context within which they carry out the work (Armstrong, 2006). The study of motivation is concerned basically with why people behave in a certain way. In general it can be described as the direction and persistence of action. It is concerned with why people choose a particular course of action in preference to others, and why they continue with chosen action, often over a long period, and in the face of difficulties and problems (Mullins, 2005). Motivation can therefore be said to be at the heart of how innovative and productive things get done within an organisation (Bloisi et al., 2003). It has been established that motivation is concerned with the factors that influence people to behave in certain ways. Arnold et al. (1991) established three components of motivation namely:

1. Direction: what the person is trying to do
2. Effort: how hard a person is trying
3. Persistence: how long a person keeps on trying (Armstrong, 2006)

Characteristics of motivation

Mitchell (1982) quoted by Mullins (2005) identified four common characteristics which underlie the definition of motivation namely:

- Motivation is typified as an individual phenomenon: Every person is unique and all the major theories of motivation allow for this uniqueness to be demonstrated in one way or the other.

- Motivation is usually intentional: Motivation is assumed to be under the control of the workers 2ehavior that are influenced by motivation, such as effort expended, are seen as choices of action.
- Motivation is multifaceted: - The two factors of greatest importance are:

1. What get people activated?
2. The force of an individual to engage in desired 2ehavior

- The purpose of motivational theories is to predict 2ehavior: Motivation is not the behaviour itself, and it is not performance. Motivation concerns action, and the internal and external forces which influence a person's choice of action.

Concept of motivation

The underlying concept of motivation is some driving force within individuals by which they attempt to achieve specific goal in order to fulfil some need or expectation. This gives rise to the basic motivational model shown in Figure 1. In this model, people's behaviour is determined by what motivates them. The ideas of Taylor, his rational economic concept of motivation and subsequent approaches to motivation at work fuelled the continuing debate about financial rewards as a motivator and their influence on productivity. In a job where there is little pleasure in the work itself or it offers little opportunity for advancement in career, personal challenge or growth, many people may be motivated primarily if not exclusively, by money. The performance is a product of both ability and level of motivation.

Organizational success is dependent upon members being motivated to use their full talents and abilities, and directed to perform well in the right areas. According to Mullins (2005), a major international study by Proud foot Consulting revealed that, the most important reason for productivity loss was poor working morale. This includes absence of positive team spirit, low motivation, and poor sense of belonging, people feeling undervalued and poorly rewarded. It is in view of these that Allen and Helms (2001) suggested that different types of reward practice may more closely complement different generic strategies and are significantly related to higher levels of perceived organisational performance (Mullins, 2005). With a positive motivation philosophy and practice in place, productivity, quality and service should improve because motivation helps people towards achieving goals, gaining positive perspective, creating the power for change, building self-esteem and capability, and managing their development and helping others. Kreitner et al. (1999)'s suggestion states that, although motivation is a necessary contributor to job performance, it is not the
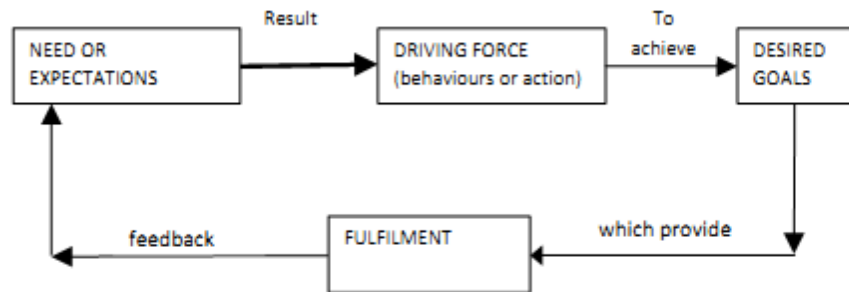
Figure 1. Illustration of basic motivational model (Mullins, 2005).

only one. Along with ability is also a combination of level of skill; knowledge about how to complete the task; feelings and emotions; facilitating and inhibiting conditions not under the individual's control.

Farren (2000) stated the 12 basic human needs that have been around since the beginning of recorded history namely:

- Family
- Health and well-being
- Work / career
- Economic
- Learning
- Home / shelter
- Social relationships
- Spirituality
- Community
- Leisure
- Mobility
- Environment / safety

According to Cartwright (1999), "a culture has the power and authority not only to determine lifestyle but also to form individual personality traits, behaviours and attitudes". Nine key motivational factors were revealed by Cartwright (1999) from the study into the psychology of Total Quality Management namely:
- Identification: Motivation through influencing others by what we say, do and influenced by others in what we think and how we feel.
- Equity: It is about what is fair. It is a balance between expectation and rewards, inputs and outputs, perception and reality.
- Equality: Everyone should be treated with equal respect irrespective of status, and the concept of equal pay for equal people should be well established.
- Consensus: The arrival of a mutual understanding that is much deeper and more inclusive than compromise and is dependent on shared values and social harmony.
- Instrumentality: A tool or device by which something is effected, the agency or means to achieve an objective.
- Rationality: An introduction of the idea of scientific

approach to management and problem-solving which is highly motivating.
- Development: The motivation for self improvement. Development of the individual and organisation through training and education.
- Group dynamics: Positive group motivations are created through individual loyalty to the group, consensus and a mutual understanding of and commitment towards achieving group goals.
- Internalisation: It determines our attitude, conviction and behaviour and the most powerful and permanent of the nine motivational factors (Mullins, 2005).

Frustration – Induced behaviour

There are two possible sets of outcomes namely:
1. Constructive behaviour: It is a positive reaction to the blockage of a desired goal and can take two main forms: Problem-solving or Restructuring.
2. Problem-solving is the removal of barrier- for example, repairing a damaged machine, or bypassing an unco-operative superior.
3. Restructuring or uncompromising is the substitution of an alternative goal, although such a goal may be of lower order. Example of this is taking additional part-time job because of failure to be promoted to a higher grade or position.
4. Frustration: - It is a negative response to a blockage of a desired goal and results in a defensive form of behavior. Frustration has many possible reactions and these can be summarised under four broad headings namely: aggression; regression; fixation; and withdrawal. These forms of reactions are not mutually exclusive as frustration-induced behaviour on job is a combination of aggression, regression and fixation.
5. Aggression: It is an attack on some person physically or verbally. It may be directed against the person or object which is perceived as the source of frustration and the actual barrier or blockage. Some examples of aggression are striking a supervisor, destruction of equipment or document, malicious gossip about the

supervisor.

A displaced aggression set in when the direct attack is not made because the source of frustration is not clear or specific; the source is feared such as powerful superior. The frustrated person finds an easier, safer person to direct the aggression towards and some of the reactions usually experienced are picking arguments with colleagues, being short-tempered and shouting at subordinates and kicking waste bins.

6. Regression: It is reverting to childish or more primitive form of behavior. Examples of regression are sulking, crying, tantrums, or kicking a broken machine or piece of equipment.

7. Fixation: This is a persisting form of behavior which has no adapting value, therefore actions are continued repeatedly amounting to no positive result. The inability to accept change or new ideas, repeatedly trying equipment which will clearly not work and insisting on application for promotion even though not qualified are examples of fixation.

8. Withdrawal: It is apathy, giving up or resigning. Arriving at work late and leaving earlier, sickness and absenteeism, refusal to accept responsibility, avoiding decision-making, passing work over to colleagues or leaving the job undone (Mullins, 2005: 23).

Factors influencing frustration

Among the factors that determine a person's reaction to frustration are:

- The level and potency of need
- The degree of attachment to the desired goal
- The strength of motivation
- The perceived nature of the barrier or blocking agent and
- The personality characteristics of the individual.

It is important that managers attempt to reduce potential frustration through ways such as:

- Effective recruitment, selection and socialization
- Training and development
- Job design and work organization
- Equitable personnel policies
- Effective communication
- Participative style of management
- Attempting to understand individual's perception of the situation (Mullins, 2005).

Classification of needs and expectation

The various needs and expectations at work can be categorised in two ways namely: Extrinsic and Intrinsic

motivation. According to Kets de Vries (2001) quoted by Mullins, the best performing companies possess a set of values that create the right conditions for high performance. It is, therefore, important to put emphasis on the need for widening choice that enables one to choose more freely instead of being directed by forces of which they are unaware and stated that it is a motivational needs system on which such choice is based. Earlier writers such as Taylor (1947) believed in economic needs motivation. He stressed on worker being motivated by obtaining the highest possible wages through working in the most efficient and productive way (Mullins, 2005).

Extrinsic motivation

It is related to tangible rewards such as salary and fringe benefits, security, promotion, contract of service, the work environment and conditions of service. These are what need to be done to or for people to motivate them. They are often determined at the organisational level and may be largely outside the control of the individual managers. Extrinsic motivators can have an immediate and powerful effect but will not necessarily last long (Mullins, 2005; Armstrong, 2006).

Intrinsic motivation

This is related to psychological rewards such as the opportunity to use one's ability. A sense of challenge and achievement, receiving appreciation, positive recognition, and being treated in a caring and considerate manner. Psychological rewards are those that can usually be determined by the actions and behaviour of the individual managers (Mullins, 2005). Intrinsic motivators are concerned with the quality of work life, are likely to have a deeper and longer-term effect because they are inherent in individuals and not imposed from outside (Armstrong, 2006)

Classification of motivation

The complex and variable nature of needs and expectations give rise to the following simplistic but useful, broad three-fold classification of motivation to work namely:

1. Economic reward: It is an instrumental orientation to work and includes items such as pay, fringe benefits, pension right, material goods and security.
2. Intrinsic satisfaction: This is a personal orientation to work and concern with 'oneself'. It is dependent on the individual attitude and varies from person and

Figure 2. Needs and expectations of people at work (Mullins, 2005).

circumstances. It also varies from jobs and different part within the same job. It is derived from the nature of the job itself, interest in the job, and personal growth and development.

3. Social relationship: It is the relative orientation to work and familiarize with other people. It is an important feature in all set ups. It improves the supportive working relationships and teamwork and comprises friendships, group working and the desire for affiliation, status and dependency.

A person's motivational, job satisfaction and work performance is determined by the strength of these sets of needs and expectation and the extent to which they are fulfilled. Some people for example may choose to forgo intrinsic satisfaction and social relationships for a short term in return for high economic rewards and others vice versa (Figure 2). This goes to confirm Horlick (nd) assertion that the vast majority of people regard money as an important and a motivator at work but the extent of motivation depends upon the personal circumstances and the other satisfactions they derived from work (Mullins, 2005)

LITERATURE REVIEW

Performance

Despite development in the project management technology workers are still the key players in the projects. They determine the success or the failure of a project; they define project goal, they plan organize, direct, coordinate and monitor project activities. They also meet project goals and objectives by using interpersonal and organizational skills such as communication, delegation, decision-making and negotiation (Yvonne du Plessis et al., 2003). She adds "In project environments, people can be viewed as contributing problems and constraints or a providing solution and opportunities", and concludes that human resource management is a vital component of a project. The emphasis is on the workforce and how

they can be managed and led to increase their overall efficiency and effectiveness as individuals, as project teams and as the members of the organization. It is important therefore, that the right people enter the project at the right time, which they are organized and motivated as individuals and work as a team to deliver according to the project goals and therefore recognized and rewarded for their achievements. She has the following definition of performance:

Commitment: A person's ability to complete a job successfully Calibre: It is a term used to describe the personal qualities and ability a person brings to the job. These are the qualities of skill that enables a person's task, and give him the capacity to cope with the demands of the job. A person's level of calibre is associated with their inmates' ability and the amount of training and experience they have acquired. Therefore, performance of an individual depends on his wiliness and drive to complete the task, which is his commitment. Unlike calibre, commitment is not a fixed commodity; it may change quite frequently in response, to conditions and situations the individual encounters.

Performance = Function (Caliber x Commitment).

The manager must use an appropriate style of leadership to control the working environment in such a manner that the workforce will be committed to do the task and so motivate themselves to achieve the objectives of the project.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Theories of motivation

The various strategies of motivations are dictated by established theories of motivation. Motivation is said to vary over time and according to circumstances. The following are the theories of motivation:

- Content theories

Figure 3. Maslow's hierarchy of need model (Mullins, 2005; Bloisi et al., 2003).

- Process theories

DISCUSSION

Content theories

These theories attempt to explain the specific things which actually motivate the individual at work. These theories are concerned with identifying people's needs and their relative strengths and the goal they pursue in order to satisfy these needs. These theories place emphasis on the nature of the needs and what motivates individuals. The basis of these theories is the belief that the content of motivation consists of needs (Mullin, 2005). It is essentially about taking action to satisfy needs, and identify the main needs that influence behaviour. An unsatisfied need therefore, creates tension and a state of disequilibrium and in order to restore balance, a goal that will satisfy the need should be identified, and a behaviour pathway that will lead to the achievement of the goal is selected. Not all needs are important to an individual at a time; some may provide a much more powerful drive towards a goal than others. This is dependent on the background and the present situation of the individual. The complexity of needs is further increased because there is no simple relation between needs and goals. The same need can be satisfied by a number of different goals, the stronger the need, the longer its duration and the broader the range of possible goals (Armstrong, 2006). The various postulated content theories are:

- Maslow's hierarchy of need theory
- Alderfer's need modified theory
- Herzberg's two-factor theory
- McClelland's achievement motivation theory

Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory

Maslow (1943) made a basic proposition that people are wanting beings. This proposition was based on the way people are always looking for more wants, and their wants are dependent on what they already have. With this, he suggested that human needs are arranged in a series of levels, a hierarchy of importance. He identified eight innate needs of man, including the need to know and understand, aesthetic needs, and the need for transcendence. However the hierarchy is usually shown as ranging through five main levels from the lowest need being physiological, through safety needs, love needs and esteem needs to the highest level of needs being self actualisation (Mullins, 2005) (Figure 3). This theory states that when a lower need is satisfied, it is no longer a strong motivator and hence the demand for the next higher need becomes dominant and the individual's attention is turned towards satisfying this higher need. It states that only unsatisfied needs motivate an individual (Mullins, 2005; Armstrong, 2006). Irrespective of the demand for satisfaction of higher needs, it has been established that self actualization being the highest level can never be satisfied (Armstrong, 2006).

Physiological needs: It is the basic need of life. It comprises the need for relief from thirst, hunger, physical drive, oxygen, sexual desire.

Safety needs: This includes safety and security, freedom from pain or threat of physical attack, protection from danger or deprivation, the need for predictability and orderliness.

Love: It is sometimes referred to as social needs and includes affection, sense of belonging, social activities, friendship, and both the giving and receiving of love.

Esteem: It is also often referred to as ego and includes self respect which involves the desire for confidence, strength, independence and freedom. In addition is esteem of others which involves reputation or prestige, status, recognition, attention and appreciation.

Self-actualization: This is the development and realisation of one's full potential. Maslow saw this level as what humans can be, they must be, or becoming everything that one is capable of becoming. It is the need

Figure 4. Stum performance pyramid (Mullins, 2005).

to develop potentials and skills, to become what one is believes he/she is capable of becoming (Mullins, 2005; Armstrong, 2006; Bloisi et al., 2003).

Maslow (1943) claimed that the hierarchy is relatively universal among different cultures, but recognises that there are differences in an individual's motivational content in a particular culture. He further pointed out that a need is not fully satisfied before the rising of subsequent need and cited about 85% satisfaction in physiological needs, 70% in safety, 50% in love, 40% in esteem needs, and 10% in self-actualization (Mullins, 2005). He suggested that most people have these basic needs in the hierarchical manner and also stated that the hierarchy is not a fixed order as some individuals will have theirs in the reverse way. This he cited examples as:

- Self- esteem may seem to be more important than love to some people and is the most common reversal of the hierarchy. This is because the most loved person is strong, confident or inspires respect.
- For some creative individual, the drive for creativity and self-actualization may arise despite lack of satisfaction of more basic needs.
- People who have experienced chronic unemployment may have higher level needs lost in them since they will continue to be satisfied at lower levels only.
- People deprived of love from childhood may experience the permanent lost of love needs.
- A need which has continued to be satisfied over a long period of time may be undervalued. People who have never suffer chronic hunger underestimate its effect and regard food as unimportant. Therefore people who are dominated by higher-level need, this may assume greater importance than more basic need.
- People with high ideals or values may become martyrs and give up everything else for the sake of their belief (Mullins, 2005).

Stum (2001) as quoted by Mullins (2005) studied the dynamics between an individual and the organization, and proposed a new worker / employer social contract that enables organizations to improve worker commitment and retention. The five levels of workforce needs hierarchy are shown in performance pyramid (Figure 4):
- Safety / security: The need to feel physically and psychologically safe in the work environment for commitment to be possible.
- Rewards: The need for extrinsic rewards in compensation and benefits.
- Affiliation: The intrinsic need for a sense of belonging to the work team or organization.
- Growth: Addressing the need for positive individual and organizational change to drive commitment.
- Work / life harmony: The drive to achieve a sense of fulfilment in balancing work and life responsibilities.

Alderfer's need modified theory

Alderfer's (1969) modified need hierarchy theory was developed from Maslow's hierarchy need theory. It condensed the five levels of need in the hierarchy need into three levels: existence; relatedness; and growth which emerged the other name as ERG theory (Table 1).
- Existence needs: They are concerned with sustaining human existence and survival, and it covers physiological and safety needs.
- Relatedness needs: This focused on the relationships with the social environment and it encompasses love, affiliation and a meaningful interpersonal relationships safety and esteem needs.
- Growth needs: It is concerned with the development of potential, and cover self esteem and self-actualization.
Alderfer (1969) suggested that the individual progresses through the hierarchy from existence needs, to relatedness and to growth needs as the lower needs become satisfied. The activated need in his view is more than one and therefore, suggested that individual need is more of continuum than hierarchical. Alderfer postulated a two-way progression and cited a frustration-regression process as the downward trend. He said the lower level needs become the focus of the individual's effort when

Table 1. Relationship between Maslow's and Alderfer's theories of motivation.

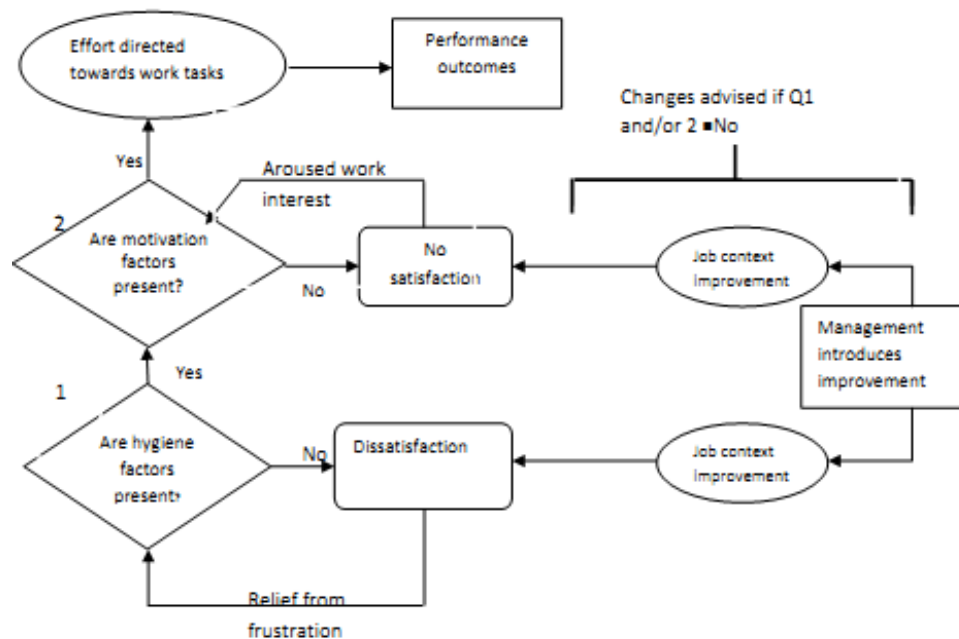| Maslow's hierarchy of needs	Alderfer's ERG theory
Physiological	Existence
Safety	
	Relatedness
Love	
Esteem	
	Growth
Self- actualization	

Figure 5. Herzberg dual factor theory of motivation (Bloisi et al., 2003).

continuous frustration is experienced in the quest for higher level needs. He further suggested that lower level needs are not to be completely satisfied before the emergence of a higher level. The ERG theory states that an individual is motivated by one or more set of needs. In this sense if a person's quest for a need is blocked, then attention should be focused on the satisfaction of needs at other levels (Mullins, 2005).

Herzberg' Two Factor Theory

Herzberg (1959) researched into job-related satisfaction and dissatisfaction and came out with a need-based model intended to provide direct managerial application (Figure 5). In this study, He carried out interviews with accountants and engineers using the critical incident technique. The technique is used to gather facts (incidents) from domain experts or less experienced users of the existing system to gain knowledge of how to improve it. The interviews were focused on two questions:

1. What made them feel good about their job?
2. What made them feel bad?

McGregor Theory X and Y Theory

McGregor (1960) constructed a philosophy based on differing managerial practice and presented a sharp contrast between two different sets of managerial assumptions about people and identified them as theory X and theory Y which represents two extreme ends of a

continuum of beliefs. Theory X set of assumptions about human behaviour suggest that people act to realize basic needs and, hence, do not voluntarily contribute to organizational aims (Bloisi et al., 2003).

McGregor made an assumption that individuals are indolent, self-centred, resistant to change, lack ambition, dislike responsibility and are naive (McCaffer et al., 2005). Managers are, therefore, to direct and modify worker behaviour to meet organisational needs by persuading; rewarding, punishing and controlling those who do not naturally strive to learn and grow.

On the contrary, theory Y view of workers behaviour sees people as been motivated by higher order growth needs. It is therefore the task of management to facilitate individuals to act on these needs and grow in their job. Management's essential task is to structure the job environment to allow people achieve their higher-order individual goals and accomplishing the organizational objective. McGregor saw theory Y as a way to align workers' goals with that of the organization (Bloisi et al., 2003).

McClelland's Achievement Motivation Theory

McClelland (1988) achievement theory focused on the relationship between hunger needs and the extent to which imagery of food dominated thought processes and identified four main arousal-based, and socially developed, motives:

1. The Achievement motive
2. The Power motive
3. The Affiliate motive
4. The Avoidance motive

The initial three motives correspond to Maslow's self-actualization, esteem and love needs. The relative intensity of these is dependent on the individual and it also varies between different occupations. With the perception that managers are higher in achievement than affiliation, McClelland saw the achievement need (n-Arch) as the most significant for the success and growth of any nation. He used Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) and subjective judgement and identified four achievement needs:

1. A preference for moderate task difficulty: Individual prefers moderate task difficulty as an incentive and this serves as the best chance to do better. Tasks which are too difficult and risky reduce the chance of success and gaining need satisfaction. Contrary to this, when the tasks are too easy and safe, there is little challenge in task accomplishment and little satisfaction.
2. Personal responsibility for performance: Individuals prefer to attain success through their own efforts rather than teamwork or factors outside their control.

Satisfaction is derived from the accomplishment of the task and not from recognition from others.
3. The need for feedback: Individuals have a clear and unambiguous feedback on how they perform. Feedback should be within reasonable time to enable individual to assess them to determine success or failure in their accomplishment of goals from which they derive satisfaction from.
4. Innovativeness: They always seek moderately challenging tasks and tend to be moving on always to more challenging things. There is a constant search for variety and for information to find new ways of doing things. These make them restless and avoid routine, and also tend to travel more.

The extent of achievement motivation varies between individual. Two categories of achievers were identified namely:

1. People with high achievement motivation: This category of people are normally challenged by opportunities and work hard towards a goal. Money is not an incentive to high achievement motivated people but rather as a feedback on their performance. With this motive they tend not to stay for longer period in organisations that do not pay them well for good performance. Money in this context may seem to be important to them but value it as a symbol of successful task performance and goal achievement.
2. People with low achievement motivation: This category of people do not care much and have little urge for achievement. These people value money more as an incentive for performance (Mullins, 2005).

McClelland (1988) further suggested that effective managers need to be successful leaders and to influence other people. More so, they should possess a high need for power and score high on inhibition. The power in this context is directed to the organisation and concern for group goals and is being exercised on behalf of other people. The theory suggested that n-Ach is not hereditary but as result from environmental influence and has the possibility of training people to develop a greater motivation to achieve. Four steps in attempting to develop achievement drive:

1. Striving to attain feedback on performance.
2. Developing models of achievement by seeking to emulate people who have performed well.
3. Attempting to modify their self-image and to see themselves as needing challenges and success.
4. Controlling day dreaming and thinking about themselves in more positive terms (Mullin, 2005).

Process theories

These theories are extrinsic theories and they attempt to identify the relationships among the dynamic variables

which make up motivation and the actions required to influence behaviour and action. They provide a further contribution to our understanding of the complex nature of work motivation (Mullins, 2005). Process theory on the other hand is also known as cognitive theory because it is concerned with people's perceptions of their work environment, the ways in which they interpret and understand. According to Guest, process theory provides a much more relevant approach to motivation than Maslow and Herzberg which he suggests, have been shown by extensive research to be wrong. Cognitive theory can certainly be more useful to managers than need theory because it provides more realistic guidance on motivation techniques (Armstrong, 2006). The process theories are:

- Expectancy theory
- Goal theory
- Equity theory

Expectancy theory

Expectancy theory is a generic theory of motivation and cannot be linked to a single writer. Motivation based on expectancy theory focuses on a person's beliefs about the relationships among effort, performance and rewards for doing a job. There have been different versions of which some are complex. Recent approaches to expectancy theory have been associated with works of Vroom (Mullins, 2005).

Vroom's expectancy theory

Vroom (1964) criticised Herzberg's two-factor theory as being too dependent on the content and context of the work roles of workers and offered an expectancy approach to the study of motivation (Bloisi et al., 2003). This theory therefore is aimed at work motivation and based on three variables namely valence; instrumentality and expectancy. This theory was centered on the idea that people prefer certain outcomes from their behaviour over others (Mullins, 2005). He proposed that individuals will be motivated to achieve a desired goal as long as they expect their actions will achieve the goal (Bloisi et al., 2003).

Valence as a variable of this expectancy theory is the feelings about a specific outcome or an anticipated satisfaction from on outcome. It can further be explained as the attractiveness of, or preference for a particular outcome to an individual. This is derived from their own right but usually derived from the other outcome to which they are expected to lead of which accumulation of wealth from money is an example (Mullins, 2005). $M = \sum_{1}^{n}(E.V)$.

Goal theory

Goal theory plays a key part in performance management process and was evolved from the largely discredited management-by-objective (MBO) approach. It was postulated by Locke and Latham (1979) and they stated that motivation and performance are higher when individuals set specific goal, when accepted goals are difficult, and when there is feedback on performance. The basic premise of this theory is that people's goals or intentions play an important part in determining behaviour. Goals guide people's response and action by directing work behaviour and performance, and lead to certain feedback. Locke stressed that goal setting is viewed as a motivational technique rather than a formal theory of motivation. Erez and Zidon (1984) emphasised the need for acceptance of and commitment to goal. This emphasis was based on findings that, as long as they agree, demanding goals lead to a better performance than easy ones. Erez (1977) also stressed on the importance of feedback as Robertson et al. (1992) pointed out: "Goals inform individuals to achieve particular levels of performance, in order for them to direct and evaluate their actions; while performance feedback allows the individual to track how well an individual has been doing in relation to the goal, so that, if necessary adjustment in effort, direction or possibly task strategies can be made" (Armstrong, 2006). Individuals with specific and difficult goals perform better than those with vague and easier goals. This goes to confirm Gratton (2000) stretch goals which are ambitious, highly targeted opportunities for breakthrough improvement in performance. Hannagan has suggested that "at present goal-setting is one of the most influential theories of work motivation applicable to all cultures" (Mullins, 2005) (Figure 6).

Goal theory has a number of practical implications:

- Specific performance goals should be identified and set in order to direct behaviour and maintain motivation
- The set goals should be challenging but at a realistic level
- Complete, accurate and timely feedback and knowledge of results is usually associated with high performance.
- Goals can be determined either by superior or individuals themselves.

Equity theory

- Adams (1963) considered this theory from perceived equitable rewards which are variations in satisfactions in Porter and Lawler (1968) expectancy model. This theory looked at the perception people have about the treatment being given them in relation with others. Equity deals with fairness compared to others and it involves feelings,
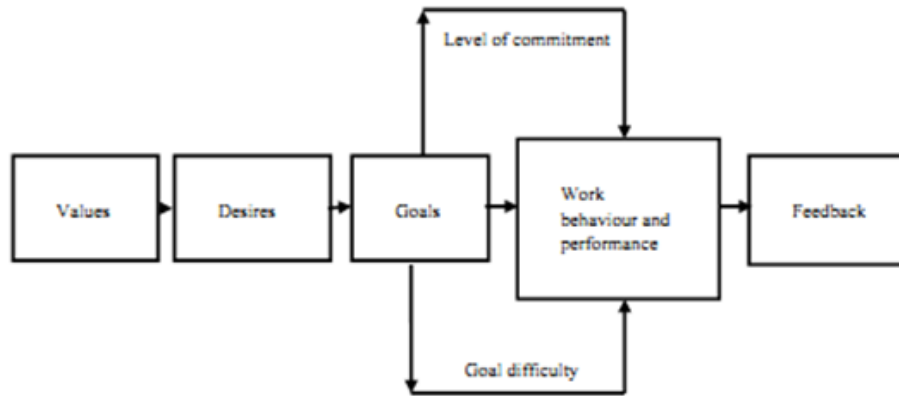
Figure 6. Illustration of goal-setting theory (Mullins, 2005).

perceptions and comparative process. The theory states that people will be better of motivated if they are treated equitably and de-motivated if treated inequitably (Armstrong, 2006). There exists equity when the ratio of an individual's total outcomes to total inputs equal the perceived ratio of other people's total outcome to total input. An inequity feeling causes unpleasant tension which motivates the person to remove or reduce the level of tension and perceived inequity. Adams identified six feedbacks to inequity:

1. Changes to input: An individual may increase or decrease the level of inputs through quantity, quality, absenteeism, or working extra hours without pay.
2. Changes to outcome: An attempt by an individual to change outcome such as pay, working conditions, status and recognition without change in input.
3. Cognitive distortion of input and outcomes: People may distort cognitively, their inputs or outcomes to achieve the same results. He further suggested that although it is difficult for individuals to distort facts about themselves, it is possible to within limits to distort the utility of those facts.
4. Leaving the field: It is the situation where an individual finds a more favourable balance by absenteeism, request for transfer, or resigning altogether from the job or organisation.
5. Acting on others: A person may try to bring changes in others by lowering inputs or accepting greater outcomes or force others to leave the job.
6. Changing the object of comparison: This is the change in reference group with whom comparison is made (Mullins, 2005).
Figure 7 depicts Adam's equity theory of motivation. Adam further postulated two forms of equity:

1. Distributive equity: This is concerned with the fairness with which people feel they are rewarded in accordance

with their contribution and comparison with others.
2. Procedural equity: This is also known as procedural justice and it refers to the perception workers have about the fairness with events such as performance appraisal, promotion and discipline are being operated.
Tyler and Bies (1990) identified five factors which contributes to perceptions of procedural fairness:

1. Adequate consideration of an worker's viewpoint
2. Suppression of personal bias towards the worker
3. Applying criteria consistently across workers
4. Providing early feedback to workers concerning the outcome of decision
5. Providing workers with an adequate explanation of the decision made (Armstrong,2006).
Kreitner et al. (1999) as quoted in Mullin (2005) suggested at least seven practical implications of equity theory:

1. It provides managers with another explanation of how beliefs and attitudes affect job performance
2. It emphasises the need for managers to pay attention to worker's perception of what is fair and equitable.
3. Managers benefit by allowing workers to participate in making decisions about important work outcomes
4. Workers should be given the opportunity to appeal against decisions that affect their welfare.
5. Workers are more likely to accept and support organisational change when they believe it is implemented fairly.
6. Managers can promote co-operation and teamwork among group members by treating them equally
7. Workers denied justices at work are turning increasingly to arbitration and the courts (Mullins, 2005).

Factors affecting labour productivity

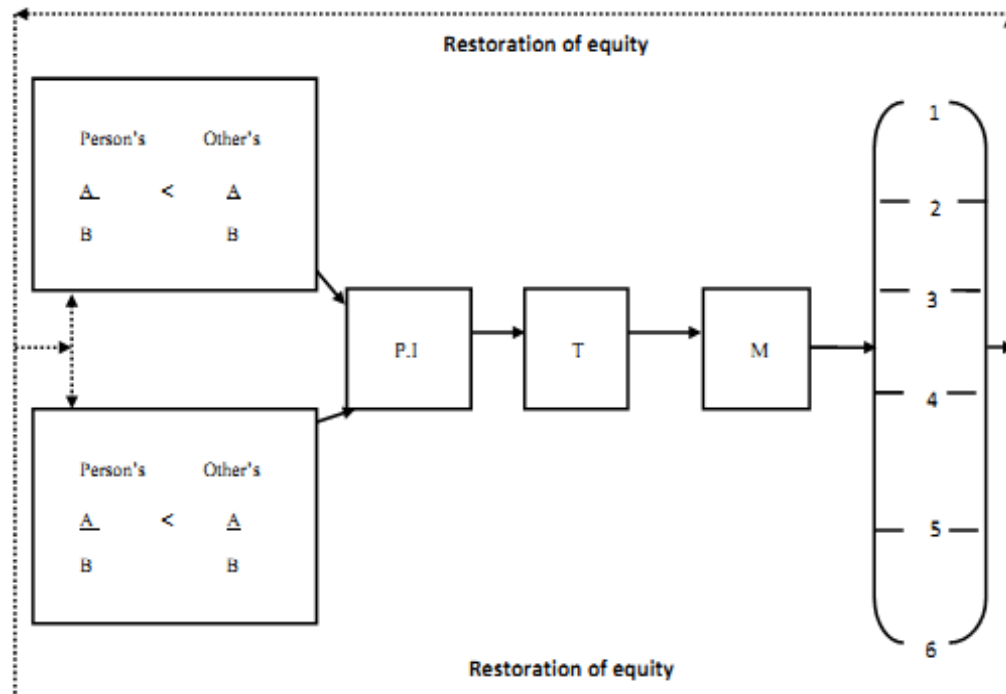Several factors affect labour productivity and prominent

Figure 7. Illustration of equity theory of motivation.

A,Outcomes; B, Inputs; P.I, Perceived inequity; T, Tension; M, Motivation; 1, Changes to inputs; 2, Changes to outcomes; 3, Cognitive distortion; 4, Leaving the field; 5, Acting on others; 6,Changing the object of Comparison

among them is the basic education for any effective labour force. In addition to the above is the diet of the labour force and social overhead such as transportation and sanitation (Heizer and Render, 1999). Furthermore, motivation, team building, training and job security have a significant bearing on the labour productivity. Coupled with the afore-stated factors, labour productivity cannot be achieved without maintaining and enhancing the skills of labour and human resource strategies. Better utilized labour with stronger commitment and working on safe jobs also contribute to affect labour productivity (Wiredu, 1989).

De-motivational factors

The existence of de-motivational factors could result in decline of workers' productivity, since workers feel they have no control over their work and what they produce. Some of the de-motivation factors that reduce workforce productivity are:

- Lack of adequate planning and materials
- Improper scheduling
- Project confusion
- Frequent delays

- Constant disruption of job assignment
- Communication breakdown
- Unavailability of tools and equipment
- Overcrowded work areas and rework
- Unsafe working conditions
- Lack of recognition and training
- Disrespectful treatment
- Little feeling of accomplishment
- Little participation in decision making
- Lack of quality assurance
- Poorly trained foremen
- Poor supervision
- Restrictive procedure

Makulsawatudom and Emsley (2001) observed that, there were 8 factors which according to the craftsmen, affected productivity in Thailand construction industry. These factors were as follows:

- Lack of materials
- Lack of tools and equipment
- Incomplete drawings
- Overcrowding
- Poor site conditions
- Incompetent supervisor
- Rework and poor communication

How employee motivation affects employees' performance

The extent in which employees are motivated in their work depends on how well those employees are able to produce in their job. Motivation is expected to have a positive effect on quality performance; employees who are characterized by a high level of motivation show a higher work and life satisfaction. Having a high level of motivation is therefore in itself valuable for employees and a decrease in motivation might affect employee's performance.

The motivation leads to high level of initiative and creativity from the employee and where monitoring is difficult, motivation is therefore extremely important for ensuring high quality performance. Quality of employee performance could be measured by three individual measures of employee performance.

The first measure of the individual performance items is a self-rating measure of employee performance through a program called SAP. The performance of the employee asks to indicate eight-point scale on how well the employee is doing the job.

The second measure of the performance is the extent to which the workers are willing to conduct tasks that are not part of their job description. The employees are asked to report on the SAP about their willingness to perform additional tasks that are not expected from them regularly and to think constructively about how the organization they work for could be improved upon.

Finally, the measure of performance is the numbers of days they are absent.

Conclusion

In light of the findings of the study, a hired staff should be given a job he has been trained for and is best suited for so that he can enjoy doing what he knows best. Subordinates are also well motivated when granted responsibility and some form of authority. Hard working, talented and ambitious staff members should be given room to develop their full potential.

Our findings also revealed that there is obvious difference between properly motivated workers and those who are not. This means that workers who are motivated have a sense of belonging, recognition and achievement. If employees are encouraged by motivation, they can strive to make sure that they identify with the organisation. Since they are highly motivated, they will perform their functions with all sense of responsibility, humility and efficiency.

All motivated workers are pampered in their effort to perform creditably well in their functions. The needs and wants of the employees should be looked into. The employees should be exposed to seminars and workshops as they play significant role in reviewing the past with criticisms and providing solutions and remedies to current problems and issues in the best interest of the employees and the organization itself. The use of periodic performance reviews, basing recognition upon systematic evaluation would also help motivate workers.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. They should provide an atmosphere for the attainment of high productivity, which will in turn give employees a feeling of satisfaction.
2. Employees should be given the opportunity to contribute their ideas to the affairs of the organization as this will boost their morale and consequently lead to higher productivity.
3. Management should make positive effort towards improving and maintaining effective communication system between the three levels of management (top, middle and low) and subordinates, so that workers will be acquitted of what is expected of them by the management.
4. Employees should be promoted when due in order to ensure better job performance.
5. Management should make efforts to improve salaries, working conditions, job security, job dissatisfaction and poor supervision to certain standard that will make employees feel happy about their job.
6. Managers should hold out the promise of reward once the objective is achieved, because behaviour, which is perceived to be rewarded, will tend to be repeated.
7. Management should try to make materials and equipments that will enhance effective performance of workers available.
8. Management should also use merit award for difference displayed in the performance of a job by an employee.
9. Employees should be given the opportunity to take part in training programmes to help them improve their skills and knowledge on the jobs.
10. Finally, functional recreational facilities should be provided for employee's relaxation.

Conflict of Interests

The author has not declared any conflict of interests.

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