

**REWARD SYSTEMS AND EMPLOYEES' BEHAVIOUR IN THE OBUASI MUNICIPAL ASSEMBLY IN
ASHANTI REGION, GHANA**

By

BENJAMIN KWAME DONKOR

(B.A. Hons Sociology and Social Work)

KNUST

A thesis submitted to the Department of Sociology and Social Work,
Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology,
in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS IN SOCIOLOGY

College of Art and Social Sciences

JANUARY, 2013

DEDICATION

To Maureen Poma Bediako, a wonderful course mate I met at the Graduate school and to my beloved parents the late J. E. Tawiah and Veronica Amponsah

KNUST



ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I owe tons of gratitude to many people for the successful completion of this thesis. First of all, I sincerely thank my two supervisors; Dr. Kofi Osei Akuoko and Mr. Peter Dwumah both of the Department of Sociology and Social Work, Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, Kumasi. Thank you for making time to go through the work correcting mistakes and putting in comments which served as guide for me.

Secondly, I thank Vincent de Paul Kanwetuu for his immense contributions to this study. I also thank all my course mates, for encouraging me to carry on and making useful suggestions when the times were tough. God richly bless you and replenish your time and energies lost hundred fold.

Thirdly, I am indebted to my brother Enock Asare Donkor and Linda Achia Asamoah for the many ways in which they contributed to the success of my study. Thank you for supporting me morally, spiritually, socially, affectionately and financially. God richly bless you all. Last but not least, I thank all Obuasi Municipal Assembly. I will, forever, be grateful. Above all, I am very grateful to the Almighty God for giving me good health and surrounding me with all these good people without whom this work would not have seen the light of day.

ABSTRACT

In Ghana, it is a known fact that the root cause of the reoccurrence of the numerous industrial actions embarked by employees is ineffective reward systems. The questions that still remain answered in the minds of people included; what effects do rewards have on employees' behaviour?

This question and others formed the bases from which by a case study as a research design. Thus, the objectives of the study among other things were to investigate whether rewards had any effect on employees' behaviour. Again, the study aimed to examine whether or employees were satisfied with rewards. The stratified sampling technique was used to select 200 respondents in the Obuasi Municipal Assembly to find these. The SPSS widows' software was used to analyse the data both qualitatively and quantitatively using tools such as percentages, frequencies, and the chi-square in the hypothesis test.

The results revealed that employees were not rewarded effectively and as such they were dissatisfied. Employees were also uncommitted and had no intention to remain with their jobs. The study thus, recommended that rewards should be integrative so as to make it satisfactory to employees.

TABLE OF CONTENT

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background of the study	1
1.2 Problem statement	3
1.3 Research Question	5
1.4 Objective of the study	6
Specific Objective.....	6
1.5 Hypothesis.....	6
1.6 Conceptual Framework of the study	7
1.7 Significance of the study	9
1.8 Definition of Concepts.....	10
1.9 Organization of the Study.....	11
CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW.....	13
2.1 Introduction	13
2.2 Theoretical Review	13
2.2.3 Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory	14
2.2.3 Equity Theory	15
2.3 Human Resource Management (HRM) Defined	16
2.3.1 Personnel Management (PM) versus Human Resource Management (HRM)	18
2.3.2 Hard and soft Approaches of Human Resource Management.....	20
2.3.3 Human Resource Function	23
2.4 Reward Systems as HR Function.....	25
2.4.1 Definitions and Philosophies of Reward System	25
2.4.2 Types of Reward System	27

2.4.3 Intrinsic Rewards	29
2.4.4 Extrinsic Rewards	32
2.4.5 Forms of Reward Systems	35
2.4.6 Advantages of Reward system	37
2.4.7 Criticisms against Reward System	39
2.5 Employee Behaviour.....	41
2.6.1 Rewards and Organisation Commitment	42
2.6.2 Reward Systems and Employee Absenteeism and Turnouts	44
2.6.3 Reward Systems and Employee Attraction and Retention	46
2.6.4 Reward System and Employee Satisfaction	48
CHAPTER 3 RESEARCH METHODS.....	51
3.1 Introduction	51
3.2 Research Setting.....	51
3.3 Research Design	52
3.4 Study Population and Target Population	52
3.5 Sampling Procedure	53
3.5.1 Sample Selection	53
3.6 Sources of Data	57
3.6.1 Pre-Testing of Questionnaires	57
3.6.2 Post- Testing of Questionnaire	58
3.6.3 Methods of Collecting primary Data	58
3.7 Field Problems	59
3.8 Data Handling and Analysis.....	60
3.9 Ethical Consideration	60
CHAPTER 4 DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION.....	62

4.1 Introduction	62
4.2 Socio-Demographic Characteristics of The Respondents	62
4.2.1 Age Distribution of Respondents	62
4.2.2 Sex Distribution of Respondents	63
4.2.3 Marital Status of Respondents	64
4.2.4 Academic Attainment	65
4.2.5 Year of Service.....	66
4.3 Number of Intrinsic Rewards Available in the Organization	67
4.3.1 Participation in Decision- Making.....	68
4.3.2 Praises and Recognition	70
4.3.3 Training and Development Programme.....	72
4.3.4 Job Autonomy	74
4.4 TYPES OF EXTRINSIC REWARD AVAILABLE IN THE ORGANIZATION	76
4.4.1 Salaries Received	78
4.4.2 Promotions Gained.....	79
4.4.3 Allowances Mostly Available.....	81
4.5: EFFECTS OF REWARDS ON EMPLOYEES BEHAVIOUR	82
4.5.1 Times Absent from Work in a Year	84
4.5.2 Effects of Rewards on Absenteeism.....	85
4.5.3 Job Retention	86
4.5.4 Effects of Rewards on Employees' Job Retention	88
4.5.5 Employees commitment	90
4.5.6 Effects of Reward on Employees' Commitment	90
4.6: Employees Satisfaction with Rewards	91

CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION OF MAJOR FINDINGS.....	93
5.1 Introduction	93
5.2 Findings	93
CHAPTER 6 SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION OF THE STUDY	103
6.1 Introduction	103
6.1 Summary of the Study	103
6.2 Recommendation	105
6.3 Conclusion	107
REFERENCES	108
APPENDIX A.....	113
QUESTIONNAIRE.....	113
SECTION A: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS	114
SECTION B: TYPES OF INTRINSIC REWARDS AVAILABLE IN THE ORGANISATION	114
SECTION C: TYPES OF EXTRINSIC REWARDS AVAILABLE IN THE ORGANISATION	115
SECTION D: EFFECTS OF REWARDS ON EMPLOYEES BEHAVIOUR.....	118
SECTION E: EMPLOYEE SATISFACTION WITH REWARD SYSTEMS	119

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1: Sample size for stratified groups55

Table 4.1 Age Distribution of Respondents61

Table 4.2 Sex Distribution of Respondents62

Table 4.3 Marital Status of Respondents.....63

Table 4.4 Academic attainment64

Table 4.5 Year of Service65

Table 4.6 Participation In Decision- Making67

Table 4.7 Praises and Recognition.....69

Table 4.8 Training and Development Programme.....70

Table 4.9 Job Autonomy.....72

Table 4.10 Salaries Received.....74

Table 4.11 Promotions Gained75

Table 4.12 Allowances Mostly Available76

Table 4.13 Times Absent from Work in a Year78

Table 4.14 Effects of Rewards on Absenteeism80

Table 4.15 Chi- Square Test between Rewards Satisfaction and Absenteeism80

Table 4.16 Job Retention.....81

Table 4.17 Effects of Rewards on Employees’ Job Retention82

Table 4.18 Employees Commitment84

Table 4.19 Effects of Reward on Employees’ Commitment86

Table 4.20 Chi-Square Test between Satisfaction with Rewards and Employees Commitment.....87

Table 4.21 Employees’ Satisfaction with Rewards in the Organisation88

LIST OF ACRONYMS

HR--- Human Resource

HRM-- Human Resource Management

HRF-- Human Resource Function

SHRM-- Strategic Human Resource Management

PM-- Personnel Management

OMA-- Obuasi Municipal Assembly

MMDA-- Metropolitan Municipal District Assembly



CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Organisations throughout the world exist with cooperate goals and objectives and the procedures by which these goals and objectives can be achieved in the organisations. However, these goals cannot be achieved without effective organizational mechanisms such as machines, equipment and human beings in place. Even though all these resources are vital for the organisation in meeting its objectives, it is the human resources and it management that is most vital for organization. As noted by Armstrong (2006), human resource management is the 'strategic and coherent approach to the management of an organisation's most valued assets-the people working there who individually and collectively contribute to the achievement of its objectives.

In their bid to achieve the above, human resource (HR) practitioners, resort to human resource function. These functions are concerned with the management and development of people in organizations. They are involved in the development and implementation of HR strategies and policies which include HR planning, talent management, recruitment and selection, learning and development, reward management, employee relations, health and safety, welfare and any other matter related to the employment relationship(Armstrong, 2001). Griffin (1999) noted, if employee lacks ability the manager can provide training or replaces the worker. If there is a resource problem, the manager can correct it. But if motivation is the problem, the managers' task becomes more challenging. Chuck Nelson, a former Vice President of HR for Texas Instruments realised the need to manage human resource

effectively when he stated that “the fact is, the only thing that differentiates us from our competitors is our people. The equipment, the building they are the same, it is the people who make the difference” (Schuler and Huber, 1993). From the above, it is abundantly clear that the contributions of the human resources manager in organisational development cannot be underestimated. This is evident in the role of the HR functions.

One fundamental HR function is rewarding employees for positive worker behaviour. HR specialists motivate employees in the form of designing appropriate reward systems. These rewards will motivate employee to work hard and achieve organizational goals (Poole and Waner, 2000). Rewarding individuals have existed since the time of Babylon in the 20th century B.C. The oldest of these is the number of units the employee produces (McShane and VonGlinow, 2000). Reward management is concerned with the formulation and implementation of strategies and policies, the purposes of which are to reward people fairly, equitably and consistently in accordance with their value to the organization and thus help the organization to achieve its strategic goals (Armstrong, 2006). It deals with the design, implementation and maintenance of reward systems (reward processes, practices and procedures) that aim to meet the needs of both the organization and its stakeholders. They are instrumental for recruiting and retaining participants in the organization. They thus serve as a major motivational tool for securing the participation of individuals in the pursuits of the organisation’s goal (Maciariello and Kirby, 1994).

After a company has designed and implemented a systematic performance appraisal system and provided adequate feedback to employees the next step is to consider how the high performing employees would be maintained and retained (Steers, 1991). Human Resource managers as indicated by Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelly (1982) have the responsibility of attracting qualified people to join the organization and keep employees coming to work and to motivate them to achieve high levels of performance through rewards. The study therefore sought to analyse how these rewards affected the workers behaviour in their various fields of operations such as their commitment to the organization among others.

1.2 Problem Statement

The way in which employees are rewarded is central to the regulation of employee behaviour and relationship. It is not surprising, therefore, that the recent emphasis placed upon the workforce as a source of competitive advantage has encouraged a strong interest in methods of reward and how they impact on employee behaviour among practitioners, policy-makers, academics and other commentators (Storey, 1992 cited in Storey, 1995). In spite of reward systems and policies being integral and influential, as noted by Fombrun et al. (1984) cited in Storey (1995) it is the ‘most underutilized tool for driving organisational performance’ globally. This phenomenon is of no exception to Africa and for that matter Ghana.

Decades after Ghana’s independence the public sector has struggled to perform effectively. One of the several reasons is the ineffective rewards given to individuals and

groups working in the sector. As noted by McShane (1992), *“Rewards are not rewarding. Many so called “rewards” have little value and may, in fact, be insulting to employees. Some merit increase plans offer “outstanding” employees only 2 or 3 percent more pay than “average” employees. Employees are quick to spot these bad deals and consequently redirect their energies toward activities with greater returns. In other situations, the rewards are large but do not correspond to employee needs”*.

Reward system influence an employee's decision to come to work or to remain with the organisation. Also, employees are said to develop ties with organisation when they perceive that the organisation is interested in their welfare and willing to protect employees' interest and vice versa (Gibson et al, 1991). It is again noted that negative worker behaviours such as absenteeism no matter for what reason, is costly and disruptive problem facing managers. It is costly because it reduces output and disruptive because schedules and programmes must be modified. Moreover, there is debate on how best employees can be rewarded to ensure retention. Others contend that the nature of reward system should be tied to the overall organizational strategy and the nature of the desired behaviour. For example, a firm needing highly skilled individual in short supply should utilize a system emphasizing employee retention (Schermerhorn, Hunt, and Osborn, 1992).

Rewarding employees to come to work, performing effectively and remaining with the organisation (retention) has become a challenge for organisations in Ghana generally and the public sector in particular. The challenge is manifestation of the numerous strike actions among employees in Ghanaian organisations over the decades. These grievances

expressed by the employees are response to the fact that employees are unduly rewarded either intrinsically or extrinsically.

It was against this background that the researcher sought to study the types and kinds of reward that affect employees' behaviour positively that leads to high performance in meeting organisational objectives. Moreover the study aimed at finding out whether organizational rewards ensure lower employee turnouts and high retention. Again, the study sought to investigate if reward systems were able to reduce absenteeism. These and other related issues were the focus of this research.

1.3 Research Question

The researcher in an attempt to find answers to the above problem asked the following questions:

- What types of rewards (extrinsic or intrinsic) are available to employees in the organisation?
- What effects do rewards have on employees' behaviour?
- What is the level of individual satisfaction with the reward systems in the inorganisation?

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The main objective of the study was to find out the relationship between reward systems and employee behaviour.

Specific Objective

Specifically the study sought:

- To find out the types of rewards (intrinsic and extrinsic) available in the organisation.
- To examine the effects of rewards on employees behaviour.
- To investigate whether or not employees were satisfied with the rewards in the organisation.
- To suggest recommendations on the best types of reward systems that affect employee behaviour positively in an organisation.

1.5 Hypothesis

Null H_0 : There is no significant relationship between employee absenteeism and employee satisfactions with rewards.

Alternative H_1 : There is a significant relationship between employee absenteeism and employee satisfactions with rewards.

Null H_0 : There is no significant relationship between employee commitment to stay on the job and employee satisfaction with rewards.

Alternative H₁: There is a significant relationship between employee commitment to stay on the job and employee satisfaction with rewards.

1.6 Conceptual Framework of the Study

Figure 1.1

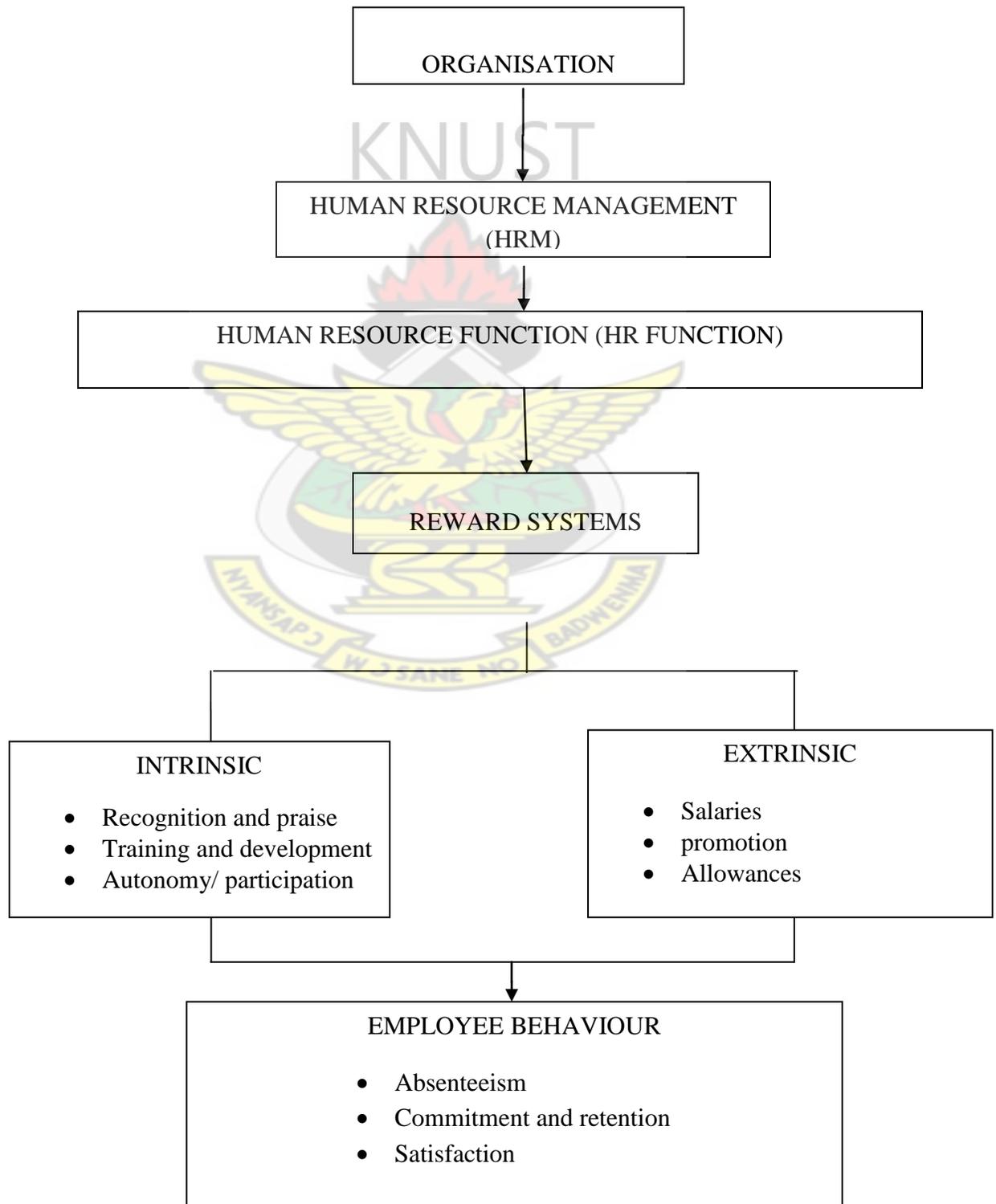


Figure 1.1 provides a diagrammatical representation of reward systems in an organisation and its administration. A brief explanation of the diagram has been provided below.

Organisational management experts generally acknowledge the fact that managing organisation most valuable asset (employees) is imperative if organisations are to endure, survive and become successful. It is against this background that the human resources management has gained attention in recent times. The diagram depicts reward systems as a core function of the HR specialist. In the conceptual framework intrinsic and extrinsic forms of rewards which are mostly available to many Ghanaian organisations have been listed.

Among the intrinsic rewards are job autonomy, recognition, training and responsibilities. On the other hand, extrinsic rewards comprise of salaries and wages, promotions, allowances and bonuses. The effective administration of these rewards or the otherwise affects employee's behaviour in an organisation. Rewards undeniably affect employee's behaviour in the areas of punctuality, turnouts, commitment and satisfaction. This in turn affects performance and eventually affecting productivity level either high or low. Employees high performance as a result of positive worker behaviour can be achieved if employees are rewarded equitably and effectively and the vice versa. Conceptualizing organisation's administration of reward to its employees is analogous to a moving vehicle being control by a driver. Here the driver determines the movement of the vehicle as well as the passenger on board. If the passengers are to be happy, arrive on time and have their safety assured is much dependent on the vehicle and how the driver controls the vehicle.

In the same vein, the rewards available in organisation and its administration determines employees happiness, security and performance. If the rewards systems are well structured and effectively handled employees performance will be enhanced. This implies that the organisation will achieve its cooperate goals leading to organizational developments.

1.7 Significance of the Study

A study on reward systems and employees' behavior was worth pursuing for a number of reasons. In the first place, having studied theories, principles and concepts of reward systems, the study permitted the researcher an opportunity to merge theory with reality thereby helping bridge the gap between theory and practice for a successful future career and academic development. That is to say, the researcher has learnt at firsthand how reward systems are formulated and implemented for successful employees' behaviour and organisational performance thereby familiarizing him with practical experience.

The study was also significant to Obuasi Municipal Assembly as it afforded the opportunity to attaining a scientific assessment of its reward systems and their effect on the employees' behaviour in the organisation. Thus, the findings of the study confirmed some policies and systems of the selected organisation as well as offering it the opportunity to modify others or better design them for effective employees' behaviour.

Researches on reward systems specifically seem to be relatively less researched in Ghana. This has led to unavailability of information on reward systems in the country for consultation by both organisations and academia. This work was intended to contribute to such academic efforts at providing literature for the industry and future researchers.

The findings of the study would be of tremendous benefit to government and organizations in terms of policy formulation and implementation especially on reward systems. The recommendations suggested which were based on the findings if implemented would be of great importance to the Metropolitan Municipal District Assemblies especially to that of Obuasi where the study was conducted.

1.8 Definition of Concepts

In order to appreciate and understand the key concepts and terms which are being used in this study, an attempt has been made by the researcher to define these concepts in order to avoid any ambiguities and difficulties that would be associated with their usages. It must be stated that the definitions provided are conceptual and operational definitions but not dictionary meanings of the words necessarily. This is to provide clarity, precision, agreement and understanding of the terms and concepts which is being used.

Human Resource management: It is the ‘strategic and coherent approach to the management of an organisation’s most valued assets-the people working there who individually and collectively contribute to the achievement of its objectives (Armstrong, 2006).

Human Resource function: HR functions are the key policies, program and practices designed in response to organizational goals and contingencies managed to achieve those goals (Bratton and Gold, 2003).

Employee satisfaction. This refers to the feeling of pleasure that an employee gains when his needs or desires are fulfilled by the work processes.

Employee performance: It refers to workers inputs and outputs achieved(Armstrong, 2001).

Reward systems:It is the design, implementation and maintenance of reward processes, practices and procedures that aim to meet the needs of both the organisation and its stakeholders(Armstrong, 2006).

Extrinsic rewards: These are the type of rewards that the employee receives which are related directly to performing the job.

Intrinsic rewards: These are the type of rewards that the employee receives externally to the work.

Employee commitment: This is used in the study to represent the extent of dedication and devotion of an employee to an organisation.

1.9 Organisation of the Study

The study was divided into six chapters. Chapter One was concerned with the background to the study, statement of the problem, research question, objectives of the study, hypothesis conceptual framework, definition of concepts, significance of the study, and the organisation of the study. Chapter Two dealt with the literature review. This chapter examined the views of other theorists and authors about the issues under

discussion as well as review of previous studies on reward system. Chapter Three outlined the research methods the researcher employed in carrying out the study. The chapter also dealt with the study area, sampling procedure and the sample size as well as methods of data collection, management among others. Chapter Four discussed the analysis and presentation of data in this study. Chapter Five presented the discussion of major findings of the study. Chapter Six was summary, recommendations and conclusion of the study.

KNUST



CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The research problem focused on reward systems and employees behaviour. In this area, other scholars have propounded various theories in attempt to explain rewardsystems (motivation). It was therefore important that the researcher reviewed some of these theories and earlier works on the subject matter. Although most of these works had been written in different setting and context, their contribution to the success of this study is very meaningful.

2.2 Theoretical Review

The researcher examined the theoretical basis of this study. Reward system is the brain child of motivational system and its theories. The theoretical review therefore examined some key motivational theories and their applicability to the research topic.

Motivational theories have been broadly categorized into two. These include the content and process approaches of motivation. The content theories of motivation focuses on the factors within the person that energize, direct, sustain, and stop behavior (Ivancevich and Matteson, 2002). Four important content approaches to motivation are: Maslow's Need Hierarchy, Hezberg's Two Factor theory, the ERG theory, and McClelland learned need theory. According to Ivancevich and Matteson (2002), each of these four theories has had an impact on management practices. The Process theories on the other hand are concern

with how motivation occurs. Rather than identify motivational stimuli, process theories focus on why people choose certain behavior option to satisfy their needs and how they evaluate their satisfaction after they have attained these goals. They are concerned primarily about which specific things motivate people (Griffin, 1999; Ivancevich and Matteson, 2002). Example of the process theories includes the Expectancy theories, Equity and Goal-setting theories. For the purposes of this study one theory each from the process and content approaches were considered. One theory from each was deemed appropriate since they only provided the theoretical basis for the study and thus many of the theories were not necessarily important to be reviewed

2.2.1 Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

Fredrick Herzberg departed from the need theory of motivation and examined the satisfied or dissatisfied people at work, or extrinsic-intrinsic factors or what is referred to as the hygiene and motivator factors. This theory was developed after 200 accountants and engineers were interviewed (Nelson and Quick, 2003; Ivancevich and Matteson 2002; and Burack, 1975). Burack (1975) stated that after the interview data was analyzed two conclusions were drawn. First when people were dissatisfied with their job, their concern were involved with the environment about the job, rather than the job itself. These factors (also called hygiene) were used essentially to maintain people in the organization and include salary, status, job security and supervising. Second when people were satisfied with their job; the opportunity was present to build high motivation. These factors (the "motivator") were to be found in the job and included achievement,

responsibility, advancement and recognition. Griffin (1999) indicated that Herzberg, basing on his findings argued that process of motivating employees has two stages. First, managers must ensure that the hygiene factors are not deficient. What this means is that pay and security must be appropriate working conditions must be safe, technical supervision must be acceptable and so on. By providing hygiene factors at appropriate level managers do not stimulate motivation but merely ensure that employees are not dissatisfied. Second, managers must give employees the opportunity to experience motivation factors such as achievement and recognition.

2.2.2 Equity Theory

After need have stimulated the motivation process and the individual has chosen an action that is expected to satisfy those needs, the, individual assesses the fairness or equity of the outcome (Griffin, 1999). Ivancevich and Matteson (2002) stated that the essence of equity theory is that employees compare their efforts and rewards with those in similar work situations. The theory therefore contends that people are motivated to seek social equity in the rewards they receive for performance. Equity is an individual's belief that the treatment he or she is receiving is fair relative to the treatment others receive equity theory, output comes from a job include pay, recognition, promotions, social relationship and intrinsic rewards. To get these rewards the individual make inputs to the job, such as time, experience, effort, education and loyalty. The theory therefore suggests that people view their outcome and inputs as a ratio and then compare it to the ratio of someone else. It is indicated that the comparison result in three conditions. The

individual may feel equitably rewarded, under rewarded or over rewarded. A feeling of equity will result when the two ratios are equal.

2.3 Human Resource Management (HRM) Defined

Many definitions for HRM have been proposed by scholars from a short and simple definition to a lengthy and comprehensive description. Dessler (2004) defines human resource management as the strategy for acquiring, using, improving and preserving the organization's human resource. Armstrong (2001) defines HRM as a strategic and coherent approach to the management of an organization's most valued assets: the people working there who individually and collectively contribute to the achievement of its objectives. HRM is the design of formal systems in an organization to ensure effective and efficient use of human talent to accomplish organizational goals (Mathis and Jackson, 2004). It is the field of study and practice that focuses on people in organizations. According to Bratton and Gold (2003) HRM is a strategic approach to managing employment relations which emphasizes that leveraging people's capabilities is critical to achieving sustainable competitive advantage, this being achieved through a distinctive set of integrated employment policies, programs and practices. Again, Storey (1995) sees HRM as a distinctive approach of employment management which seeks to achieve competitiveness through the strategic development of a highly committed and capable workforce, using an integrated array of cultural, structural and personal techniques. In short, HRM is best understood as the process of managing human talents to achieve organization's objective. The process

of managing human talents is said to include the process of recruitment and selection, compensation and benefits, labour and industrial relations and also the management of employees' safety and health in organizations.

From the above definitions, it is clear that HRM consists of all the activities taking by the enterprise to ensure that the effective utilization of employees towards the attainment of individual, group, and organizational goals. Again, HRM portrays a fundamental belief that people are human capital and they make organisations; only people among other resource have the capacity to generate value. This is because human knowledge and skills are strategic resource that needs to be meticulously managed. Of course, people are a major component of any organization, so it follows that organizations with more productive employees tends to be successful. Employee productivity increases when organisations hire, train and motivate employees effectively. HRM is organizational function accountable for obtaining and maintaining qualified employees. In today's complex business environment, fulfilling that mission is a major contributor to an organisation's success.

The overall purpose of HRM is to ensure that the organisation is able to achieve success through people. Ulrich and Lake cited in Armstrong (2006) have remarked that "HRM can be the source of organizational capabilities that allow firms to learn and capitalize new opportunities". HRM among other things aims at achieving specific objectives such as resourcing and developing employees enhances motivation and commitment of employees and ensure better productive and harmonious relationship

between management and employees. HRM is aimed at recruiting capable, flexible and committed people, managing and rewarding their performance and developing their key competences.

2.3.1 Personnel Management (PM) versus Human Resource Management (HRM)

Some experts assert that there is no difference between human resource management and personnel management. They state that the two terms can be used interchangeably, with no difference in meaning. To Guest (1989) cited in Armstrong (2006), 'Personnel and HRM: can you tell the difference? He noted that 'in the UK for example, it has proved difficult to arrive at an agreed meaning and significance of HRM. For some, HRM represents a new approach to managing people; for others, it is simply a relabeling and repackaging of 'progressive' PM.

In an answer to the above question, he noted that;

"HRM is regarded by some personnel managers as just a set of initials or old wine in new bottles. It could indeed be no more and no less than another name for personnel management, but as usually perceived, at least it has the virtue of treating people as a key resource, the management of which is the direct concern of top management as part of the strategic planning processes of the enterprise. Although there is nothing new in the idea, insufficient attention has been paid to it in many organizations. The new bottle or label can help to overcome that deficiency".

Some scholars on the other hand do contend that there are some differences between the two. For those who recognize a difference between personnel management and human resources, the difference can be described as philosophical. Personnel management is more administrative in nature, dealing with payroll, complying with employment law,

and handling related tasks. Human resources, on the other hand, are responsible for managing a workforce as one of the primary resources that contributes to the success of an organisation. When a difference between personnel management and human resources is recognised, human resources are described as much broader in scope than personnel management. Human resources is said to incorporate and develop personnel management tasks, while seeking to create and develop teams of workers for the benefit of the organisation. A primary goal of human resources is to enable employees to work to a maximum level of efficiency.

KNUST

Personnel management can include administrative tasks that are both traditional and routine. It can be described as reactive, providing a response to demands and concerns as they are presented. By contrast, human resources involve ongoing strategies to manage and develop an organization's workforce. It is proactive, as it involves the continuous development of functions and policies for the purposes of improving a company's workforce. Personnel management is often considered an independent function of an organization. Human resource management, on the other hand, tends to be an integral part of overall company function. Personnel management is typically the sole responsibility of an organization's personnel department. With human resources, all of an organization's managers are often involved in some manner, and a chief goal may be to have managers of various departments develop the skills necessary to handle personnel-related tasks.

As far as motivators are concerned, personnel management typically seeks to motivate employees with such things as compensation, bonuses, rewards, and the simplification of work responsibilities. From the personnel management point of view, employee satisfaction provides the motivation necessary to improve job performance. The opposite is true of human resources. Human resource management holds that improved performance leads to employee satisfaction. With human resources, work groups, effective strategies for meeting challenges, and job creativity are seen as the primary motivators. When looking for a job in personnel management or human resources, it is important to realize that many companies use the terms interchangeably. If you are offered a job as a personnel manager, you may be required to perform the same duties as a human resource manager, and vice versa. In some companies, a distinction is made, but the difference is very subtle.

2.3.2 Hard and Soft Approaches of Human Resource Management

Human resource as defined by Dessler (2004) is the strategy for acquiring, using, improving and preserving human talents that affects organisational performance. It is therefore an utmost importance that people as opposed to just employees-need to be managed in a way that consistent with broad organisational requirement such as quality or efficiency. As in most cases organisational effectiveness depends on there being a tight 'fit' between human resource and business strategies.

Human resource as could be said is all about making business strategies work. It is therefore important that emphasis is placed on how to best match and develop

"appropriate" human resource management (HRM) approach/system of managing people in the tourism hospitality and leisure industry (THL). Thus, we would therefore be looking at some of the HRM approaches used such as the Harvard model; hard and soft approach in conjunction with the real world of the THL industry and to determine whether the hard approach is more appropriate.

Human resource management (HRM) as described by Johnson (2000) has a concept with two distinct forms; soft and hard approach, where the soft approach of HRM is associated with human relation and the hard on the other hand sees people as human resource. The Soft HRM is the notion that workers respond better when an organization recognises their individual needs and addresses them as well as focusing on the overall business objectives. The work of Maslow in stating that humans have a 'hierarchy' of needs, which they will exert considerable energy towards achieving, claims that organisations that recognises and addresses these needs will have a happier, more fulfilled, more loyal and productive workforce. As argued by Noe (2006) the way to success is through deep empathy of other people either by observing how to best 'connect' with others in the workplace, and motivate and inspire them as a result.

The Hard HRM on the other hand therefore sees people as human resources. Holding that employees are a resource in the same way as any other business resource and they must therefore be; obtained as cheaply as possible, used sparingly, developed and exploited as much as possible. As indicated by Johnson (2000) under this model of HRM, control is more concerned with performance system, performance management and tight control

over individual activities with the ultimate goal being to secure the competitive advantage of the organisation. The hard HRM therefore is primarily concern to promote human resource strategy and align with business strategy. It may also include out sourcing, flexibility, performance management, hence downsizing or work intensification, sees workers as another resource to be exploited and can operate against the interest of workers.

The Harvard model as indicated by sees employees as resource, but human where the managers are responsible to make decisions about the organisation and employee relation. The employment relation is seen as a blending of business and societal expectations and because it recognises the role societal outcomes play, it could be argued that the Harvard model provides a useful basis for comparative analysis. The Harvard model also cover the four HRM policy areas which are human resource flows, reward system, employee influence, work system, which leads to the four Cs; competence of employees, commitment of employees, congruence of organisation goals and cost effectiveness of HRM. As could be argued striving to enhance all four Cs could lead favourable consequences for individual well-being, societal well-being and organisational effectiveness either as long-term consequence

2.3.3 Human Resource Function

HRM is the part of management that is concerned with the 'people' dimension. Because every organization is comprised of people, acquiring their services, developing their skills, motivating them to high levels of performance, and ensuring that they continue to maintain their commitment to the organization are essential to achieving organizational objectives. This is primarily the role of the HR function.

Armstrong (2001) notes that HR functions specialize in matters connected with the management and development of people in organizations. They may be concerned in any or all of the areas of HRM such as organizational design and development, human resource planning, recruitment and selection, training and development, employee relations, employee reward, health and safety, welfare, human resource administration, fulfillment of statutory requirements, equal opportunity issues and other matters concerned with employment relationship. The overall role of HR function is to enable the organisation achieve its objectives by taking initiatives and providing guidance and support on all matters relating to its employees. Although this model of excellence was a welcome addition to the field of HRM, De Cenzo and Robins (1994) notes that much confusion and debate arose out of this. Questions were raised regarding what was included in each of the components raised, as well as how these pieces are linked together. This suggests the variations in the role of HR function in different organizations. According to Hailey (1998) cited in Armstrong (2006), HR could be regarded as chameleon a function in the sense that diversity of practices suggests that contextual variables dictate different roles for the function and different practices of people management. This means that HRM is not a single homogeneous occupation. It

involves a variety of roles and activities which differ from one organization to another and from one level to another in the same organisation.

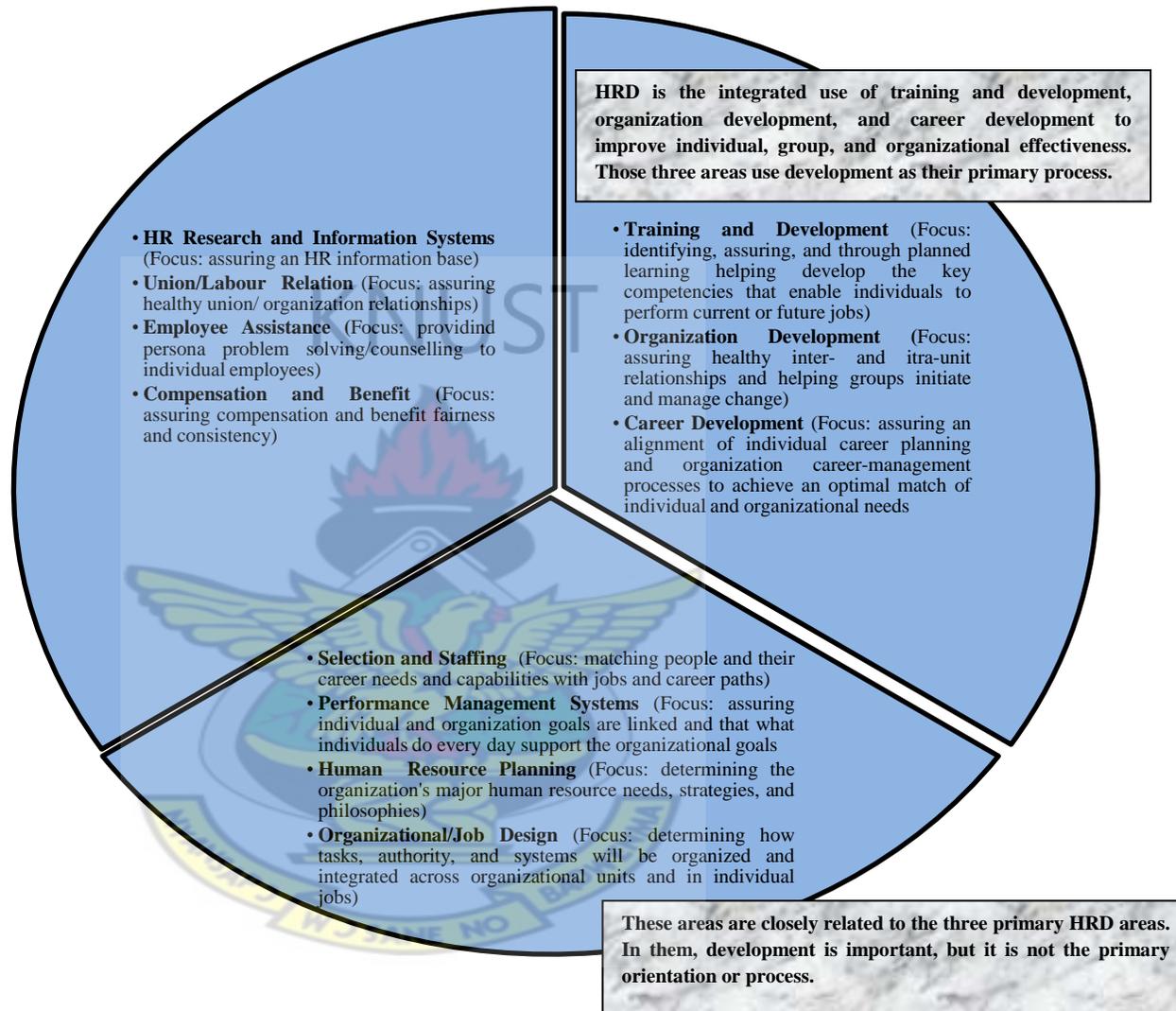


Figure 2.1 ASTD Human Resource Wheel

Source: De Cenzo and Robbins

(1994)

2.4 Reward Systems as HR Function

Global competitiveness of business organization in the world today has increased the tasks and challenges of organization's stake holders if they are to endure survive and achieve their goals. It is in the light of this that the contribution of the HR specialists becomes indispensable in organizational setting. The HR specialist carries along his tails vital task and duties in the areas of staffing, planning, and training, rewarding, talent management just to mention but a few. The functional obligation of the HR specialist can never be completed without employee motivation. According to (Armstrong 2006) all organisations are concerned with what should be done to achieve sustained levels of performance through people this means giving close attention to how individuals can best be motivated through such means as incentives, reward, and leadership. In other words, motivation is when the HR specialists stimulate the employee to work hard as well as give their best at the workplace and give them that extra boost of energy needed to get them through tough times in their jobs. To Bennis (1969) this is done through rewards such as salary increments, rewards promotions, end of year bonuses among many others especially for those who have done well after evaluation of performance is done.

2.4.1 Definitions and Philosophies of Reward System

Armstrong (2006) defines reward management as the formulation and implementation of strategies and policies, the purposes of which are to reward people fairly, equitably and consistently in accordance with their value to the organization and this will help the organization achieve its strategic goals. He noted however, that reward system specifically consists of;

- Policies that provide guidelines on approaches to managing rewards.
- Practices that provides financial and non-financial rewards.
- Processes concerned with evaluating the relative size of jobs (job evaluation and assessing individual performance (performance – management)
- Procedures operated in order to maintain the system and to ensure that it operates efficiently and flexibly and provides value for money. McShane (1992) sees organisational reward system as those mechanisms which offer money and other extrinsic and intrinsic rewards to motivate employees toward fulfilling organizational obligations.

From the definitions, rewards systems raise primary concern with processes, practices and procedures. They are also concerned with how individuals would be motivated fairly and equitably. Reward systems are either extrinsic or intrinsic with its objective as motivating employees toward the achievement of organisational objectives. Reward system is said to be a process because it starts from a given point and ends at a particular point. The process may also be continuous. It is also a procedure because it follows a specific line in which the system is organised. Reward system, lastly, is argued to be practiced because it is organised by certain group of people (HR specialists) who are expert in the field.

Reward management is based on a well-articulated philosophy-a set of beliefs and guiding principles that are consistent with the values of the organization consistent with the values of and help to enact them. These include beliefs in the need to achieve

fairness, equity, consistency and transparency in operating the reward system. The philosophy recognizes that if HRM is about investing in human capital from which a reasonable return is required, then it is proper to reward people differentially according to their contribution (Armstrong, 2006). The philosophy of reward system recognises that it must be strategic in the sense that it addresses longer-term issues relating to how people should be valued for what they do and what they achieve. Reward strategies and the processes that are required to implement them have to flow from the business strategy.

According to Armstrong (2006) reward system adopts a total reward approach, which emphasises the importance of considering all aspects of reward as a coherent whole that is integrated with other HR initiative designed to achieve the motivation commitment, engagement and development of employees. This requires the integration of reward strategies with other HRM strategies, especially those concerning human resource development. The philosophy will be affected by the business and HR strategies of the organization, the significance attached to reward matters by top management, and the internal and external environment of the organisation.

2.4.2 Types of Reward Systems

Classification of reward system has generated a lot of debates among organisational behavioural experts. McShane and von Glinow (2000) identified four main types of organizational rewards; membership and seniority, job status competency and performance based reward systems. Hodgetts (2002) on the other hand categorized rewards under three important areas extrinsic and intrinsic rewards, performance based

rewards and discipline as a reward. Rewards have also been classified into two broad areas: extrinsic and intrinsic rewards. Intrinsic rewards represent those rewards that are related directly to performing the job which include participation in decision making, greater job freedom and discretion (autonomy), more interesting work, task accomplishment and work diversity. Extrinsic rewards on the other hand are those rewards that the employee receives externally to the work itself. They consist of financial and non-financial rewards which include wages and salary, fringe benefits, promotions, and recognition and praise from others (Steers, 1991; Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelly, 1991; De Cenzo and Robbins, 1994).

De Cenzo and Robbins (1994) noted that there are a number of ways to classify rewards. They selected three of the most typical dichotomies which rewards can be classified; intrinsic versus extrinsic rewards financial versus non-financial rewards and performance-based versus membership-based rewards. To them rewards system comes under the umbrella of either being intrinsic or extrinsic. Intrinsic reward includes participation in decision making, more responsibility just to mention a few. Extrinsic rewards on the other hand can be financial or non-financial. Financial rewards also comprises of performance based and membership based. The non financial rewards include preferred office furnishings business card, impressive titles and many others. The next few pages look at the above extensively.

2.4.3 Intrinsic Rewards

Intrinsic rewards represent those rewards that are related directly to performing the job. It is also said to be those rewards that are part of the job itself (Steers, 1991; Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelly, 1991). They are internal and psychological, taking such forms as feeling of accomplishment, increased responsibility, and the opportunity to achieve. Intrinsic rewards are the satisfaction one gets from the job itself. These satisfactions are self-initiated rewards, such as having pride in one's work, having a feeling of accomplishment or being part of a team (Hodgetts, 2002; De Cenzo and Robbins, 1994).

From the definition above, intrinsic rewards can be said to be the type of reward that the employees get when they are actually performing their various task or duties in the organisation. Employees value this type of reward. In the sense that before every person consciously unconsciously engages in any behavior the basic question he poses for him or herself is what is in it for me? For this reason if an employee is engaging in any behaviour at the work placed he is influenced or his behaviour is determined by upon his calculation on whether or not he/she will be giving the opportunity to take more responsibility greater job freedom, the opportunity for his or her personal growth and many others. For example some people want jobs that provide them with the right and privilege to make decisions they want to operate without being closely supervised. The following are some well known intrinsic rewards employees derived from their organisations.

Job autonomy. This could result from the freedom to do what the employee considers best in a particular situation. In jobs that are highly structured and controlled by

management, it is difficult to create tasks that lead to a feeling of autonomy, (Gibson et al, 1991). Also, intrinsic reward can be seen in the area of personal growth. A person who is personally growing senses his or her development and can see how capabilities are being expanded. By expanding capabilities a person is able to maximize or at least satisfy skill potential. If some people are not allowed or encouraged to develop their skills they often become dissatisfied with their jobs and organisations (Gibson et al, 1982).

Employee involvement or participation in decision making is another powerful form of intrinsic reward. To understand employee involvement in organisation, it is very fundamental to appreciate the concept of employee voice Boxall and Purcell (2003), as cited in Armstrong (2006), see employee voice as the term used to cover a whole variety of processes and structures which enable, and sometimes empower employees, directly and indirectly, to contribute to decision-making in the firm. Employee voice can be seen as the ability of employees to influence the actions of the employer' (Milliard et al. 2000 cited in Armstrong 2006).

Involvement means that management allows employees to discuss with it issues that affects them but that management retains the right to manage. Participation is about employees playing a greater part in the decision making process (Armstrong, 2006). Employee participation and voice is therefore synonymous since both forms on arrangements for ensuring that employees are given the opportunity to influence management decisions and to contribute to the improvement of organizational

development. Employee participation is a valuable intrinsic reward because it is when employees are involved in decision making or are given the opportunity to influence management decisions bring out the “we feeling” in them thereby making them feel part of the organization. This is to say, when employees view is solicited in organizational management it makes them feel that they are also recognized as responsible individuals or groups and this to them is enough motivation.

The last form of intrinsic reward under review in this study was **status recognition and praise**. These are distributed by managers and co-workers. Gibson et al, (1991) argue, by assigning individuals to prestigious jobs the manager can attempt to improve or remove the status a person has. It is said, however, that if co-workers do not believe that an employee merits a particular job, status is not likely to be enhanced. In some situations, by reviewing performance, managers can grant what they consider to be job changes that improve status. Status is synonymous to recognition. In a reward context, recognition refers to managerial acknowledgment of employee achievement that could result in improved status. (Gibson et al, 1991). According to them recognition from a manager could include public praise, expression of a job well done, or special attention. It is therefore very important for managers to recognize how valuable praise as a reward can be. Unlike most forms of rewards that are expensive and costly, recognition in the form of praise does not cost or involve any money at all. This is however usually underutilized by managers. Managers on this note are advised to adopt that practice which says “criticize in private and praise in public”. This reinforces worker behavior as it may also lead to internal healthy competition among workers in which will eventually lead to

organizational development. It must be noted that the extent to which recognition is motivating depends, as do most rewards, on its perceived value and on the connection that the individual sees between it and behaviour

2.4.4 Extrinsic Rewards

Extrinsic rewards are external to the job and come from an outside source, mainly managements (De Cenzo and Robbins, 1994) Extrinsic rewards has similarly be seen as those rewards which are external to the work itself (Steers, 1991). To him they are administered externally that is by someone else (usually management). They include wages and salary, fringe benefits promotions, and recognition and praise from others.

Salaries. Money is one of the most widely used, and often misused, rewards applied to motivate work behavior. Money (pay) which can be in the form of salary or wage is very popular because they serve to fulfill basic needs of mankind in the areas of food and shelter. Although wages and salary are costive to organisations they seldom motivate the work behaviour except for decision to join or leave the organisation (Umstot, 1984). Gibson et al, (1982) noted that money is a major extrinsic reward. It has been said that “although it is generally agreed that money is the major mechanism for rewarding and modifying behaviour in industry, very little is known about how it works. To really understand how money modifies behaviour, the perceptions and preference of a person being rewarded must be understood.

From the explanations above wages and salaries even though are expensive and costly to organizations it does not motivate employee to perform higher. One of the major reasons is that pay systems are not tied to performance (Pigors and Meyers, 1985). It is also said that managers find it difficult administering wages and salary to influence work behavior because they usually do not know the perception and preferences of employees. To achieve this managers need a careful attention and observation of the person. In addition the manager must be trusted so that employees will be able to communicate their feelings about financial rewards.

KNUST

Promotion. This represents another form of non-monetary reward system. Salary increases usually accompany promotions, but promotions alone are a form of recognition for past performance or service and a symbol of the company's confidence in the employee's future performance (McShane, 1992). To him many organizations have discovered how such non-monetary rewards are powerful incentives, particularly in relation to their relatively low cost. For many employees, promotion does not happen often, some never experience it in their careers the manager making a promotion reward decision attempts to match the right person with the job. The criteria that are often used to reach, promotion decisions are performance or seniority. Performance, if it can be accurately assessed, is often given significant weight in promotion reward allocations (Gibson et al, 1982). In spite of all the advantages, promotion as a reward comes with it some problems. This problem is at times caused by job evaluation. Job evaluation sometimes changes promotional patterns and thereby establishes new human problems because it affects employees' plans and hopes for progress up the promotional ladder. He

gives a scenario of an occasion; a worker spends years preparing for a job that pays more. Then a job evaluation is conflicted, the desired job is rated equally either the former job. In effect, this nullifies the years of preparation and waiting. The worker becomes conscious and will therefore approach the next promotions “opportunity” move cautiously.

Fringe Benefits. In most cases fringe benefits are primarily financial. The major financial fringe benefit in most organisations is the pension plan. (Gibson et al, 1982). Fringe benefits such as pension plans, hospitalization and vacations are not usually contingent on the performance accomplishment of employees. In most cases fringe benefit plans are based on seniority or attendance. To Schermerhorn et al (1992) the total compensation package of an employee includes not only direct pay but also any fringe benefits provided by the organisation. It adds the equivalent of 10% to 40% to a salary. They noted that organisations need to allow for individual differences when developing fringe benefit programs; otherwise, the motivational value of this indirect form of pay incentive is lost. It is against this background that some managerial experts argue that fringe benefits should provide individuals with the benefits they prefer rather than the benefits that someone else establishes for them (cafeteria-style fringe benefits) (Gibson et al, 1991). Schermerhorn et al (1992) argue that the approach known as the flexible benefits plan allows workers to choose their total pay package by selecting benefits up to a certain dollar amount on their own from a range of options offered by the organization. The cafeteria fringe benefits which also may be term flexible benefit plan allows workers to choose their total pay package by selecting benefits according to their

needs. For example a single worker may prefer quite a different combination of insurance and retirement contributions than a married person. However there are some disadvantages, some fringe benefits plans shift costs to the employee by raising the required co-pay and deductibles on such items as medical coverage. Also, labour and benefits legislation and tax provisions limit the amount of the flexibility in flexible benefit plans (Sechermerhorn et al, 1992).

.2.4.5 Forms of Reward Systems

Reward system whether intrinsic or extrinsic may also be a form of performance base and membership based, seniority based and competency performance-based. Organizational rewards can be said to be either based on the performance or membership criteria. Most managers may in fact arrange that their reward system pay off for performance, however, this is really not the case. Few managers actually reward their employees based on performance. Rather the commitment basis for reward allocation in organization is membership (De Cenzo and Robbins, 1994). According to McShane (1992) most performance pay increase guidelines use performance appraisals as the indicator of performance. They are not new but they now come in more flavours than ever before. They are amplified by the use of commission piecework pay plans, incentives systems, group bonuses and royalties (McShane and Von Glinow, 2000; DeCenzo and Robbins 1994). Membership base reward on the other hand includes cost-of-living increases, benefits and salary increases attributed to labour market conditions, seniority or time ranks, credentials or future potential. The key point here is that membership based rewards are extended irrespective of an individual's or organization's performance (De Cenzo

and Robbins, 1994) the differences between the two is not always obvious. In practice, performances may only be a minor determinant of reward, despite academic theories holding that high motivation depends on performance based reward. In practice, a lot of lip services may be given to the organization reward may not closely parallel employee performance.

Competency and seniority based pay. According to McShane and Von Glinow, (2000) the emerging reward system strategy is to pay employees more than their competencies than for the task they perform at a particular time. Competency based payrewards employees for their skills, knowledge, and traits lead to desire behaviours. Employees are expected to have several competencies, and these competencies are evaluated by observing specific behaviour patterns. Competency-based system of reward use fewer pay grades within very wide range between the lowest and highest pay ranges allow more room to reward employees for their competencies rather than specific job they hold. For example, some competency-based system allows highly competency employees to learn more than their supervisor or team leaders. Similarly this motivates employees to acquire skills and knowledge by moving laterally through several jobs, rather than waiting for promotion up a career ladder.

On the other hand rewards may increase with the person's seniority in the firm. Some organisations may choose to offer longer vacation to those with higher seniority. Base pay sometimes increases with the number of years in a job. It is said that Japanese firms usually move employees into a higher pay rate for each years on the job or their age.

According to McShane and Von Glinow, (2000) company pension plan emphasis seniority because those who have within the first five years typically forfeit some or all of the company's contribution to the pension plan. Some firms offer special perquisites to employees above a certain seniority level. They give a scenario at KingstonTechnologies. There they argue that employees receive a special bonus based in part on their years of service. Also, new Age industries, a plastic and material testing manufacturer in Willow Grove, Pennsylvania, offers employees a complimentary meal every month at a local upscale restaurant, but to those with five or more years of seniority.

2.4.6 Advantages of Reward System

Reward systems as a core HR function has a distinctive role to play in every organisation. Generally reward system if properly put in place helps in organisational development. The following are some advantages of reward system as it has been identified by some organisational experts. In order for harmony to exist between managers and stakeholders there should be rewards system. Maciariello and Kirby (1994) argue, reward system is necessary in organisations in order to blend the interest of stakeholders with the interests of managers. They noted, the interest of stakeholders, who are by and large not managers, must be blended with the interest of managers who by and large are not major stockholders. It is the separation of ownership from control that creates a need for effective and efficient managerial reward systems. Shareholders are interested primarily in the profitability and growth of the enterprise. This goal is often stated as 'wealth maximization'. The design of the firms reward system is a major tool that shareholders use to ensure that the interests of managers are blended with interest of shareholders.

Again the distribution of money and other extrinsic benefits to motivate employees rewards fulfilling organizational obligations (McShane, 1992). As indicated earlier, organisations all over the world exist to fulfill specific purpose or goals. These cannot be achieved without human contribution and efforts, skills, and competency just to mention few. These qualities possess by the individual are best brought fore when they motivated through rewards. This is so because human beings unlike lower class animals are endowed with the capacity for thought. They therefore engage in cost-benefits analysis before taking actions. In other words for individual to perform or not to perform is strongly dependent on the perceived rewards he will be given at the end. The moot point is that when individuals are rewarded they give up their best which in turn lead to fulfillment of organization purposes. Moreover, rewards system are said to have strong relationship with employee satisfaction. A significant amount of research has been done on individual satisfaction and rewards. Edward E. Lawler identified five conclusions concerning the relationship between rewards and satisfaction (Steers, 1991; Gibson et al, 1982). They are:

1. Satisfaction with a reward is a function of both how much is received and how much the individual feels should be received. This conclusion has as its basis the comparisons that people make. When individuals receive less than they feel they should there is some dissatisfaction.
2. An individual's feeling of satisfaction are influenced by comparisons with what to others people tend to compare their efforts, skills, seniority and job performance with those of others. They then attempt to compare rewards. That is they examine inputs of others relative to the rewards received.

3. Satisfaction is influenced by how satisfied employee is with both intrinsic and extrinsic reward. There is some debate among researchers whether intrinsic or extrinsic rewards are more important. One clear message from the research is that extrinsic and intrinsic rewards satisfy different needs.
4. People differ in the rewards they desire and in how important different rewards are to them. Individual differ on what rewards they prefer. In fact, at different points in a person's career, at different ages, and in various situations preferred rewards vary.
5. Some extrinsic rewards are satisfying because they lead to other rewards. There are some extrinsic rewards that lead to other more preferred rewards for example the size of a person's office or whether the office has carpet or drapes often is considered a reward because it indicates the individual's status and power. Money is a reward that leads to other things such as prestige, autonomy and independence, security and shelter (Lawler cited in Gibson et al, 1982).

2.4.7 Criticisms against Reward System

In spite of the numerous advantages of reward system, it is still associated with some problems and difficulties (disadvantages)

McShane (1992) noted, many so-called "reward" have little value and may, in fact, be insulting to employees. Alfie Khon an educational researcher and writer propounded one of the strong critics of workplace rewards. To him praise is even unhealthy when applied as a reinforcer. Khon's five main arguments against rewards are as follows:

1. Rewards punish. Khon's suggests that there are punitive features built into every reward. First, when rewarding people we are also demonstrating our control over them. This can eventually be assumed a punitive quality by making the reward recipient feel subservient. Second, after being rewarded in the future. If their expectation is not met, they feel punished.
2. Reward rupture relationship. Khons explains that individual rewards create jealousies and competition in other words rewards usually leads to feeling of inequity because people in variable aren't any better because they encourage peer pressure. Rewards also create psychological distance between the person given and receiving the reward. Taken together, rewards disrupt the collaboration needed for organisational learning.
3. Reward ignores reasons. Employers need to spend time discovering the cause of behavior problems. Instead, according to Khon, they use intensive as quick fixes. We can see this in situation where companies use incentive for most trivial reasons. For example, an Arizona company hands out cash to employees who arrive early at company meetings and fines those who arrive late. Company will be better off identifying the cause's lateness and changing the conditions, rather than using money force situations to the problem.
4. Reward discourage risk taking. Kohn cites evidence that reward motivate people to do exactly what is necessary to get the rewards nothing more. Incentives dampen creativity because employees no longer explore new opportunities outside the realm of rewarded behavior or result. In other

hands rewards motivate employees to get rewards, not discovers better ways of help the organization.

5. Rewards undermine intrinsic motivation. Kohn's greatest concern with reward system that they kill a person's motivation found in the work itself. This intrinsic motivation relates to fulfilling growth needs which are the most powerful and sustaining source of motivations. Kohn report studies indicating that employees are less intrinsically motivated to perform a task after they have received an extrinsic reward for performing it.

Khon's criticisms have generated many debates among scholar. Some of his critics point out that these studies were not conducted in real work situations. However, until more precise research indicates otherwise, we should be concerned about the risk of losing intrinsic motivation when extrinsic rewards are introduced.

2.5 Employee Behaviour

Employee behaviour is complex and as such cannot have specific definition. In this study the researcher uses employee behaviour to mean some workplace behaviours. These behaviours include employee's satisfaction, absenteeism, turnout, employee attraction and retention, and employee commitment. By employee satisfaction, the researcher's interest was to look at whether or not employees are content with what they do in the production process. Absenteeism meant the frequency at which employees refuse to come to work on daily basis. Turnout on the other hand implied the rate at which employees leave their job

or organisations for another. In other words the process in which employees quit their jobs for other jobs is referred to as turnover. Attraction and retention simply is the process in which employees join and remain with the organization. Lastly, employees become loyal and identify themselves with an organization (Guth and Macmillan, 1986).

2.5.1 Rewards and Organisational Commitment

Encouraging employees to work and be committed to organisation toward achieving organisational goals and objectives is one of the most significant challenges for any management team (Floyd and Wooldridge, 1994; Guth and Macmillan, 1986). The continuous survival of any work organisation requires the cooperation of labour with the other factors of production such as land and capital. Organisation commitment refers to the relative strength of an individual's identification with, and involvement in an organisation (Mowday, Porter, and Steers, 1982). It is characterized by a strong belief in, and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation, and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation (Porter, 1968:). It involves active relationship with the organisation in which individuals are willing to give something of them in order to help the organisation succeed and prosper (Meyer and Allen, 1997). Real commitment often evolves into an exchange relationship in which individuals attach themselves to the organization in return for certain rewards or outcomes. Employees' commitment reduces turnover but increases performance and employee can only be committed when their needs are met and fulfilled by their organisations (Maslow, 1954).

Commitment to an organisation involves three attitudes; a sense of identification with the organizations goals; a feeling of involvement in organizational duties and a feeling of loyalty for the organisation (Gibson et al,1982). There are indications that commitment or rather its absence can reduce organisational effectiveness.

Veldsman (1980) defined organisational effectiveness as a qualification value attached to an organisation resulting from the comparison of the actual state of the entity against its ideal state.

People who are committed are less likely to quit and accept other jobs. Thus, the costs of high turnover are not incurred. In addition, committed and highly skilled employees require less supervision. A system of close supervision and rigid monitoring control process is time consuming and costly. Furthermore, a committed employee perceives the value and importance of integrating individual and organisational goals. The employee thinks of his or her goals and the organisations in personal terms.

Monetary reward which is pay (wages and salaries) could also determine the commitment level of an employee to the organisation, and it is needed as means of fulfilling and meeting the needs of employees. This is because without pay, employees will not be able to feed themselves, take care of their nuclear and extended families, belong to associations of their choice, and gain recognition and respect from others.

Maslow (1954) who asserts in his hierarchy of needs theory that human being is motivated to work when their needs are fulfilled. These needs are the physiological

needs, social needs, safety needs, esteem needs, and self-actualization accomplished without giving the employees monetary reward which would be used to meet and fulfill these needs. The fulfillment of employee's personal needs brings about greater commitment.

2.5.2 Reward Systems and Employees Absenteeism and Turnouts

Some managers assume that low turnover is a mark of an effective organization. This view is somewhat controversial because a high quit rate means more expense for an organization. However, some organizations would benefit if disruptive and low performers quit. Thus, the issue of turnover needs to focus on the frequency and on who is leaving. Ideally, if managers could develop a reward system that could retain the best performers and could cause the poor performers to quit, the overall effectiveness of an organization would improve. To approach this ideal state an equitable and favourably compared reward system must exist (Gibson et al, 1991).

The feeling of equity and favourable comparison has an external orientation. That is, equity of rewards and favourableness involves comparisons to external parties. This orientation is used because quitting most often means that a person leaves one organization for an alternative elsewhere. According to Gibson et al, (1982) if an organisation had an endless stream of extrinsic and intrinsic rewards and could increase the level of rewards distributed, high performers could usually be retained. There is no perfect means of retaining high performers. It appears that a reward system that is based on merit should encourage most of the better performers to remain with organizations.

Absenteeism is a costly and disruptive problem facing managers. It is costly because it reduces output and disruptive because schedules and programmes must be modified. Employee attends work because they are motivated to do so. The level of motivation will remain high if an individual feels that attendance will lead to more valued rewards and fewer negative consequences than alternative behaviour.

Gibson et al (1991) wrote; *“there has been some research on reward and attendance. The researcher used a poker incentive plan to improve attendance. Each day as an employee came to work and was on time, he was allowed to select one card from a regular playing deck. At the end of a five-day week, the employees who attended regularly on time would have a regular five-day card on hand. The highest had won \$20. There were eight winners, one for each department. This plan seemed to result in a decrease in absenteeism of 18.7 percent. The study did not compare the poker incentive with any other system, so whether it would be better than some other reward system is not known. However, it was better than when no bonus or prize was distributed for attendance”*.

Another study reported the effects of an employee-developed bonus plan on attendance. Three work groups developed a plan that offered cash on attendance. The result indicated that job attendance improved significantly. Further data from the study shows what happens when a plan developed by some individuals is imposed on other people. The plan developed for the three groups was applied to two other groups in the organisation. The findings indicated that it was not effective in reducing absenteeism. The success of a

reward plan involving employee participation was linked to where the plan was developed.

To Mcshane and Von Glinow (2000), seniority based rewards reduce turnover because the cost of quitting increases with the employee's length of service. They also regarded financial incentives as "that golden handcuffs" in the sense that, to them, it discourages people from leaving the organization. It however, tend to undermine their loyalty and job performance to the organisation. In a nutshell, whether or not a reward system will reduce absenteeism or turnout is determined by the value of the rewards perceived by employees, the amount of the rewards and whether employees perceive a relationship between attendance and rewards.

2.5.3 Reward Systems and Employee Attraction and Retention

The selection of an occupation by an individual as well as the decision to join a particular organization within that occupation, are influenced by the rewards that are thought to be available in the organization (Steers, 1991; McShane, 1992). In fact, the main objective of a reward system is to attract people to join or become members of an organization.

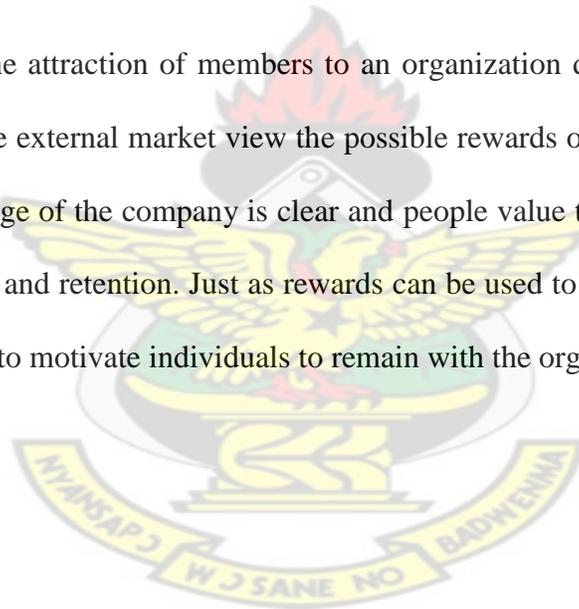
Gibson et al(1982) noted that there have been a number of research studies that examine the organizational entry decision of employees. Most of the studies, according to them, indicated that people are attracted to organisations which are rated highest on the individuals' expectations about what the organisational goals and values are. It appears

that people will choose the organisation which they believe will result in the best set of outcomes or rewards.

In a study of job choice, individuals were asked to rate the jobs they were considering in terms of their chances of achieving a number of goals. They were also asked to rank the goals in order of importance. The data showed that, these individuals were attracted to organisations that were seen as being instrumental for the attainment of their preferred goals.

KNUST

In a summary, the attraction of members to an organization depends to some extent on how people in the external market view the possible rewards offered by the organization. If the reward image of the company is clear and people value the potential rewards, there will be attraction and retention. Just as rewards can be used to attract people to join, they can and are used to motivate individuals to remain with the organisation.



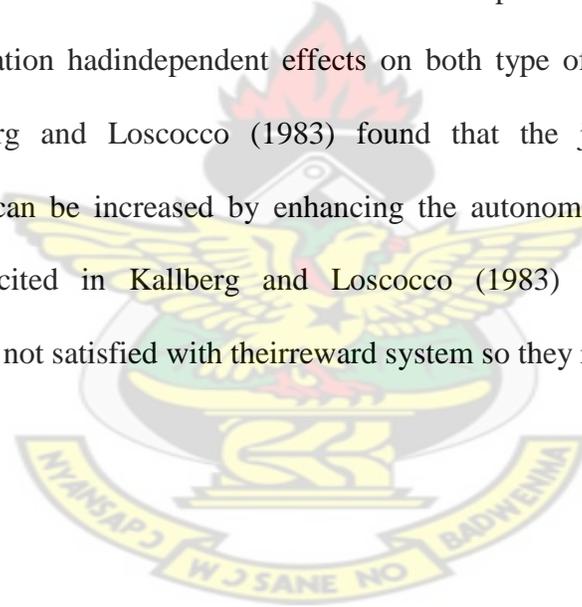
2.5.4 Reward System and Employee Satisfaction

The quality of work life experienced by employees in organizations has been an area of great interest for practitioners and researchers (Sekaran, 1989). The concept of work satisfaction had a significant importance in the social sciences literature for many years. A vast amount of research has been conducted on this subject, and related work dimensions. Job satisfaction is a yardstick for appraisal of the quality of work experiences as mentioned by Locke (1976). He also reported that over hundreds of articles have been compiled on this topic, and are still growing with exponential numbers. Among the most accepted definitions of job satisfaction is the one by Locke (1976) who defines job satisfaction as “a positive emotional feeling, a result of one’s evaluation towards his job and his job experience by comparing between what he expects from his job and what he actually gets from it”. Job satisfaction may also be discussed as the result of the interaction of the employees and his perception towards his job and work environment. The antecedents that affect the job satisfaction may be large like work values, rewards systems, work ethics, personal attributes, hours of work, emotions, performance, and others.

However there have been several studies that support different dimensions that rewards structures have strong relationship with job satisfaction (Clifford, 1985). Earlier reward systems have been noted as salary, promotions, behaviour of supervisors and co-workers, cohesiveness of work groups, security, fringe benefits, and working environment. Eventually reward systems are the intrinsic and extrinsic benefits that workers receive from their jobs. Researchers argued that job satisfaction is affected by both factors, but

rewards related to financial part of reward system are more significantly related to job satisfaction vis-à-vis job values which are related to intrinsic part of job rewards. Clifford (1985) had divided rewards system into categories, a conceptual division such as intrinsic and extrinsic reward. It can be subdivided into intrinsic rewards as task autonomy, task significance, and task involvement (Clifford, 1985). Task autonomy refers to the degree of freedom in task performance. Task significance implies the degree to which the task is perceived as a significant contribution to the work process. Task involvement refers to the degree to which the task is considered interesting or challenging. Extrinsic rewards are financial benefits and organizational rewards. Nevertheless some scholars suggest that employees can be satisfied with some elements of the job and simultaneously dissatisfied with others. Different types of satisfaction will lead to different intentions and behaviors that arise from different types of motivation in getting different types of rewards. Amabile (2003) implied that employee who exhibits high job satisfaction is motivated by rewards and rewards supported work engagement. They recommended that rewards with outcome relationships were expected to vary based on employee satisfaction with their organization. Zaini et al. (2007) proposed that public sector employees who have greater needs for achievements and private sector employees are motivated by extrinsic rewards. They argued that rewards satisfaction is seen to be positively related to job satisfaction in public and private sector organisations. Ramlall (2002) cited in Zaini et al (2007) argued that private sector managers place greater value on economic rewards than public sector managers who are more job security oriented. Previous studies found that job satisfaction facet-satisfaction with the monetary compensation (pay) and benefits (non-monetary) compensation are one of the most important explanatory variables in both sectors.

Added to the above findings of different researches suggested that reward systems are strongly correlated with job satisfaction and no significant difference for male and females (Watson and Meiksins, 1991 cited in Concha, 2009). But the study of (Kalleberg and Loscocco, 1983) confirmed that women receive significantly fewer job rewards than men. While assessing the job satisfaction of engineers, the work of Concha (2009) found that task significance and the intrinsic interest of the work is the major predictor of their job satisfaction. Kalleberg (1980) cited in Kalleberg and Loscocco (1983) had studied “differences in rewards” as a result of class and occupation differences. He found that class and occupation had independent effects on both type of rewards. Ravinder (1977) cited in Kalleberg and Loscocco (1983) found that the job satisfaction of lower level employees can be increased by enhancing the autonomy in the jobs. Clifford and Macue (1971) cited in Kalleberg and Loscocco (1983) revealed that higher level professionals are not satisfied with their reward system so they report low job satisfaction.



CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODS

3.1 Introduction

This chapter dealt with the methods the researcher employed in carrying out this study. It therefore looked at the research setting and design, the sampling procedure and data collection method. It also captured the problems the researcher anticipates to confront at the field, data handling and analysis, ethical considerations and other related issues.

3.2 Research Setting

The Obuasi Municipal Assembly, which used to be part of the former Adansi West District Assembly was created by executive instrument number (E.1.15) on 15th December 2003 and legislative instrument (LI.1795) of 17th March, 2007. The municipality is located between latitudes 5°35N and 5°65N and longitudes 6°35W and 6°90W. It covers a total land area of 164.4 square kilometer (km). It is located in southern part of Ashanti region of Ghana. There are 63 communities in the municipality with 30 electoral areas. The municipality is bounded on the south by Upper Denkyira District of the Central region, East by Adansi South, West by Amansie Central and North by Adansi North. Obuasi is the capital town.

The population for the municipality is estimated at 205,000 using the 2000 Housing and Population Census as a base and applying a 4% annual growth rate as at 2012. Obuasi municipality has 53 settlements which share 30 electoral area with most communities concentrated in urban and pre-urban areas. There are 16 urban settlements which have

77.4% of the total population of the municipality ([www.ghana district.com/districts](http://www.ghana-district.com/districts); GLSS, 2000)

The total number of staff was given by the personnel manager as 344 as at the beginning of 2011. Out the total number of staff 42 were in the management position. It is given that, 243 were permanent staff and 101 were temporary staff. Also, out of the total number of staff 102 were females while 242 were males.

3.3 Research Design

The research was a case study. Adelma et al (1997) as cited in Bell (1999) indicated that a case study has been described as ‘an umbrella term for a family of research methods having in common the decision to focus on inquiry around an instance’. It is also a method of investigation, which aims at studying the fact of a particular case from all angles (Kumekpor, 2002). It is also said that a case study provides in real situation enabling reader to understand ideas more clearly than simply presenting them with abstract theories (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2005).

The researcher evaluated other research designs intended to use the case study method because of its advantages and appropriateness to the study. For example, it can be undertaken by a single researcher without the need for research assistants (Nisbet and Watt, 1984 cited in Bell, 1999). Again the results are more easily understood by a wide audience as they are frequently written in academic language and since the findings are anticipated to be used by the Metropolitan Municipal District Assembly (MMDA's) thus,

the method is appropriate. The researcher, however, was aware of some limitations associated with its usage. For example, Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2005), argue that case study is prone to observer bias but the researcher intended to use questionnaires and interviews as instruments for data collection to overcome this problem.

3.4 Study Population and Target Population

The population universe for the study was all employees Metropolitan Municipal and District Assemblies in Ashanti. The target population, however, consisted of all employees at the Obuasi Municipal Assembly. The list of the workers served as the sampling frame. The sampling frame was given by the Personnel Manager as 344 being all employees in the Municipal Assembly as at the end of January, 2012. This was made up of 242 males and 102 females.

3.5 Sampling Procedure

The stratified sampling method was employed to select 200 respondents randomly. The sampling unit of the study was identified out of the sampling frame. This consisted of the single individuals working at the Obuasi Municipal Assembly such as the management staff, temporary and permanent staff.

3.5.1 Sample Selection

Kish (1967) cited in Twumasi (2001) mentions that the first step in the selection of a sample is to consider a sampling design. It denotes all the stages and the processes involved in reaching the respondents. To him it must indicate clearly the characteristics of the population. He noted that intelligible idea about the parameters of the population can help the investigator to determine the type of sampling design. If a group is a

heterogeneous one in terms of its social characteristics, there is the need to include more individuals and to stratify the group in order to lower variance. In this case, stratification means putting individuals in common groups. All units of the institutions must be represented, if they are relevant to the aims and objectives of the research (Twumasi, 2001). It was against this background that the researcher chose the stratified sampling procedure as a probability sampling procedure for this study.

The probability sampling design was used because this was the method of selection in which every member of the target population has a known chance or probability of being included in the sample. There were however many types of random sampling but the stratified sampling technique were employed in the study. It is advised that when the population under study is heterogeneous and if that has a bearing on the study then stratified sampling technique becomes useful. In organisations such as the Obuasi Municipal Assembly the population is heterogeneous in terms of age, sex and educational background of workers. As indicated by Kumekpor (2002), 'when a particular universe is known to vary significantly according to characteristics such as age, sex, literacy then it becomes imperative to take into account these variations in drawing sample. This was done by first, dividing the target population into none overlapping groups or strata that is, core-management, and non-management. Again the non-management group was further divided into permanent workers and temporary workers. Then, the simple random sampling technique was applied to each stratum to draw the sample for the study.

Thus, a sample size of two hundred (200) respondents was selected from the population of three hundred and forty-four (344) representing 58.1% of the population of the study. The rationale for choosing a sample size of two hundred was to make the sample size large enough and to ensure that the findings could be more representative of the target population

In view of the sampling method adopted, the population was stratified into three (3) main groups from which a representative sample was drawn. The formula used in drawing a representative sample for each stratified group was given as; $\frac{N_1 \times S}{N} = n_1$

N

Where n_1 = the sample drawn, N_1 = the total number of members in the stratified group,

N = the total population under study and S = sample size for the study.

For the purpose of the study, the stratified groups were represented as follows;

i. Management Staff: This group was made up of the core management of the municipal assembly charged with the day to day administration of the assembly. This group included the Municipal Chief Executive, the Municipal Coordinating Director, the two Deputy Municipal Coordinating Directors, the Municipal Finance Officer, the Municipal Chief Personnel Officer and the Municipal Budget Officer, the Municipal Planning Officer and the Municipal Sanitation Officer and all heads of various departments. Thus, there were twenty-two (22) members in this stratum made up of 18 males and 4 females. The group was represented as; $\frac{N_1 \times S}{N} = n_1$

N

Where **n1** = the sample drawn, **N1** = the total number of members in the stratified group,

N = the total population under study and **S** = sample size for the study.

$$\frac{N1 (22) \times S (200)}{N (344)} = n1 (13)$$

N (344)

ii. Permanent Employees: This stratum comprised of the non management employees of the various decentralized departments and units of the Assembly. These were employees who were directly remunerated by the central government and were on the Controller and Accountant General's payroll. The group included departments such as the Information Service, Social Welfare, Rent Control, Stoll Lands, Statistical Service and National Disaster Management Organization (NADMO). This group consisted of two hundred and forty three (243) members made up of 145 males and 98 females. The group was represented as follows;

$$\frac{N1}{N} \times S = n1$$

Where **n1** = the sample drawn, **N1** = the total number of members in the stratified group,

N = the total population under study and **S** = sample size for the study.

$$\frac{N1 (243) \times S (200)}{N (344)} = n1 (141)$$

N (344)

iii. Temporary Employees: This group was employed and paid by the assembly through its own Internally Generated Funds (IGF). In other words these employees were not paid by the central Government through the Controller and Accountant General's office. They were therefore neither civil servants nor permanent workers of the Assembly. Such employees were with the Sanitation and Environment, Records, Secretarial, Works and Transport units of the assembly. The group was seventy-nine(79) respondents. This group was represented as follows;

$$\frac{N1}{N} \times S = n1$$

Where **n1** = the sample drawn, **N1** = the total number of members in the stratified group,

N = the total population under study and **S** = sample size for the study.

$$\frac{N1 (79)}{N (344)} \times S (200) = n1 (46)$$

3.6 Sources of Data

The study made use of primary and secondary sources of data. The primary source of data was obtained from the respondents through questionnaire administration and face-to-face interviews. Related theories and studies also constituted the secondary source of data.

3.6.1 Pre-Testing of Questionnaires

The questionnaires were pre-tested at the Fomena District Assembly. 15 respondents were selected for the administration of the questionnaires. The researcher realized that the

respondents found it difficult answering some of the questions. As a result some of the questions were reviewed and reframed. Even though the researcher found out that the number of questions asked was appropriate for the study the pre-test respondents complained that the questions were quite many. As such the total number of questions was reduced. Based on the above problems many questions were left unanswered in the pre-test.

3.6.2 Post-Test.

The questionnaires were post-tested at the New Edubiase District Assembly. A total number of 15 respondents were sampled. In the post test the researcher appreciated the fact that respondents understood the questions better than the pre-test. It was thus assumed that the data collection instrument was appropriate and ready enough to be taken to the field.

3.6.3 Method of Collecting Primary Data

The primary source of data was collected by self-administered questionnaires. A questionnaire is a form or a document containing a number of questions on a particular theme, problem, issue or opinion to be investigated. Questionnaires were used because they were easy to administer and analyze. Bell (1999) argues 'the more structured a questionnaire the easier it will be to analyzed. Interviews were also used in the data collection. Interviews were used for some members of the core management who by virtue of their busy schedules did not have time to answer the questionnaires. Also, the

face-to-face interview was used for staff members who could not read nor comprehend the English language.

3.7 Field Problems

The busy schedule of the respondents especially the core management such as the Municipal Chief Executive made the questionnaires administration time consuming but they did not decline to answer them. This challenge was mitigated by the researcher when he made sure that the questionnaires were precise and straight forward touching on the relevant areas of the research topic.

The researcher again encountered a problem when some respondents became reluctant in revealing vital information about their jobs for the fear of victimization by management. They were however encouraged to cooperate and were assured that their individual identities would not be revealed in any way in the study.

Also, some respondents assumed that the researcher was engaging in a monetary study and as such demanded money in the answering of questionnaires. The researcher thus explained the purposes and aims of the study in an effort to mitigate the problem. The researcher explained to participants that the study was purely an academic work which was only in partial fulfillment for the award of a Master of Arts degree in Sociology at the KNUST.

As a result of the busy schedules of respondents many questionnaires were either misplaced or lost. The researcher therefore had to reprint different sets of questionnaires

to replace the lost ones. This therefore meant that the researcher spent more time on the field collecting data rather than what had been on planned for the study.

Lastly, some respondents were cold towards the researcher. As a matter of fact a respondent almost walked the researcher out of his office on an initial request of his voluntary co-operation in the questionnaire administration. The researcher however exercised restraint and respondents were approached later and counseled on the purpose of the study. They in turn accepted to offer and volunteered their assistance to the study.

KNUST

3.8 Data Handling and Analysis

The data collected from the field was edited and coded. Using the SPSS windows software the data was entered into the computer and cleaned afterwards. The data was analyzed in two parts. The first part involved the descriptive analysis. By this the data was summarized into graphs, tables and numerical summaries. The second part of the analysis was where the researcher made deductions from the numerical summaries through the use of chi-square to test the hypothesis. The Chi-square test was only performed on the permanent staff that consisted of 141 respondents. This was so because they formed the core of subordinates' staff and, thus, reward systems were basically designed for them.

3.9 Ethical Consideration

The researcher made sure that the information provided by the participants was in no way revealed their identity. They were therefore instructed by the researcher not to indicate their names or telephone numbers on the questionnaire forms. This was in accordance

with Nachmias and Nachmias (1992) as cited in Cohen et al (2005) who were of the view that ‘the obligation to protect the anonymity of research participants and keep research data confidential should be fulfilled at all cost unless arrangement to the contrary are made with the participants’.

The participants had the right to either participate in the study or not and as such they must be informed that their involvement was voluntary at all times and for that matter can pull out of the study at any time they wanted to do so. They also received a thorough explanation beforehand of the benefits, rights, and dangers involved as a consequence of their participation in the research project (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1992 as cited in Cohen et al, 2005). They were thus informed of their right to withdraw their participation in the study any time they felt so.

Also, the researcher acknowledged scholars’ works that were referred to in the course of the study to avoid plagiarism otherwise known as academic crime.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presented the findings of the data collected. The data was presented mainly in a tabular form. Interpretations of the data were made in order to facilitate.

4.2: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE RESPONDENTS

4.2.1 Age Distribution of Respondents

Table 4.1 Age Distribution of Respondents

Age groups	Management		Permanent staff		Temporary staff	
	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency
18-28	0	0	58	41.1	14	30.4
29 – 39	4	30.8	53	37.6	14	30.4
40 – 49	6	46.2	21	14.9	13	28.3
50 – 59	3	23.1	9	6.4	5	10.9
Total	13	100.0	141	100.0	46	100.0

Source: Author's survey, June 2012

From table 4.1, 41.1 per cent of the permanent staff sampled was within the ages of 18 – 28 and 30.4 per cent of temporary staff was in the same range. Again 37.6 per cent respondents from the permanent staff were between the ages of 29 – 39 and 30.4 per cent of temporary staff respondents were in the same age category. Management staff within the ages of 29 – 39 was 30.8 per cent. The age range 40 – 49 had 14.9 per cent, 28.3 per

cent and 46.2 per cent of permanent, temporary and management staff respectively. Also, the age range 50 – 59 had 6.4 per cent, 10.9 per cent, and 23.1 per cent of respondents representing permanent, temporary and management staff respectively. The modal age was 18 – 28 and 36 percent of respondents fell in this range. This was followed by the age range 29 – 39 with 35.5 percent. Exactly one – fifth of the respondents (20 per cent) were within the ages of 40 – 49. The age range of 50 – 59 had the least number of respondents and they formed 8.5 per cent of the total respondents. From table 4.1 it was evidently clear that many of the respondents were within the ages of 18-28 since it was the modal age with 36 percent. This therefore implied that most of employees in the organisation were young and youthful. As such if they were managed well and rewarded equitably and fairly it would go a long way to enhance organisational performance thereby leading to its development. This is because it is generally believed that the most active population of every country is the youth. This is based on the fact that they are the most energetic section of the population. The organization thus, should take a keen interest in developing them so as to get the best out of them.

4.2.2 Sex Distribution of Respondents

Table 4.2 Sex Distribution of Respondents

Sex of Respondent	Management		Permanent staff		Temporary staff	
	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent
Male	10	76.9	73	52.5	36	78.3
Female	3	23.1	67	47.5	10	21.7
Total	13	100.0	141	100.0	46	100.0

Source: Author's survey, June 2012

Table 4.2 shows that 52.5 per cent of permanent staffs were males as against 47.5 per cent of females. On the side of the temporary staff sampled 78.3 per cent of the respondents were males while 21.7 per cent were females. In the same vein, a large majority (76.9 per cent) of respondents in the management staffs were males and 23.1 per cent females. The data revealed that the organisation like many other organisations in Ghana is gender insensitive. It was a clear example of men dominated society. Even though females are the majority in this country they are mostly sidelined as against their men counterparts in areas of job acquisition. The disparity was very significant at the management level which recorded almost 77 percent of male respondents. This gender disparity may be attributed to the traditional belief that the school was not suited for girls whose proper place was the kitchen as noted by Nukunya (2002). This might have denied the females to gain the requisite qualification and the skills required to attain the management positions in the organisation. Again, the differences could be attributed to the traditional role of women which was noted as reproductive and community managing roles.

4.2.3 Marital Status of Respondents.

Table 4.3 Marital Status of Respondents

Marital Status	Management staff		Permanent staff		Temporary staff	
	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent
Married	9	69.2	55	39.0	16	34.8
Single	3	23.1	78	55.3	20	43.5
Divorced	1	7.7	8	5.7	8	21.7
Total	13	100.0	141	100.0	46	100

Source: Author's survey, June 2012

Table 4.3 shows that 69.2 per cent of the management staffs were married, 23.1 per cent were single while 7.7 per cent had divorced. Also, 55.3 and 39 per cent of the permanent staff were single and married persons respectively while 5.7 per cent were divorced. Again, 43.5 per cent of the temporary staffs were single while 34.8 per cent of them were married. Again, 21.7 per cent of them had divorced. Also, 52 per cent of the respondents were single while 37 percent were married, 7.5 per cent and 2 per cent of the respondents were divorced. Majority of the overall respondents (51.3 per cent) were single and this could be attributed to the fact of formal education and apprenticeship which postponed the marriage time of the youth in modern Ghana. This was the reverse in traditional Ghanaian society where people married at early ages. This became evident since the modal age of respondent was between 18- 28 year range.

4.2.4 Academic Attainment

Table 4.4 Academic attainment

Education	Management		Permanent staff		Temporary staff	
	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent
Basic			6	4.3	12	26.1
SHS	1	7.7	31	22.0	13	28.3
Tertiary	12	92.3	98	69.5	18	39.1
None	0	0	6	4.2	3	6.5
Total	13	100.0	141	100.00	46	100.0

Source: Author's survey, June 2012

From table 4.4 an over whelming majority of management staff representing 92.3 per cent had tertiary education while 7.7 per cent had Senior High School education. Again, 4.3

per cent of the permanent staff had basic education with 22 per cent having secondary education. 69.5 per cent of them have had tertiary while 4.2 per cent of them had no formal education at all. Out of the total number of temporary staff 26.1 per cent had basic education while 28.3 per cent had secondary education. But 39.1 per cent the temporary staff had tertiary education while 6.5 per cent had no qualification. Out of the total number of 200 respondents 64 per cent had tertiary education, 19 per cent obtained secondary education, and 12.5 per cent had basic education. There were 3.5 per cent who had no formal education at all. This implied that 64 per cent being the majority of the workers had at least a tertiary education and as such the organization could be said to have had competent and knowledgeable workforce. This also implied that the organisation had a pool of skillful human resource at their disposal and would not be found wanting in the areas of level headed workforce who could deliver since majority of its workers were highly educated with at least a tertiary qualification. This again suggested that the organisation places high premium on education in recruiting employees. Those respondents with lower or no formal education at all were those who performed the jobs which involved less skill such as cleaning and weeding jobs.

4.2.5 Years of Service

Table 4.5 Years of Service

Range	Management		Permanent staff		Temporary staff	
	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent
0 – 5	5	38.5	74	52.5	25	54.3
6 – 10	3	23.1	34	24.1	13	28.3

11 – 15	2	15.4	22	15.6	2	4.3
16 – 20	1	7.7	5	3.5	2	4.3
20 and above	2	15.4	6	5.2	4	8.7
Total	13	100.0	141	100.0	46	100.0

Source: Author's survey, June 2012

Table 4.5 shows that 38.5 per cent of management staff had served up to 0-5 years while 23.1 per cent had worked for 6-10 years. 15.4 per cent of the workers had served for 11-15 years and 7.7 per cent served for 16-20 years while 15.4 per cent had worked for over 20 years. The majority of permanent staff (52.5 per cent) indicated they had served for less than 6 years whereas 24.1 per cent had worked from 6-10 years. However, 15.6 per cent of permanent staff had worked between 11 and 15 years and 5.2 per cent of them indicated they had worked for 20 and above years. On the side of the temporary staff majority of them (54.3 per cent) had served up to 0-5 years and 28.3 per cent had worked for 6-10 years. Furthermore, 8.7 per cent of them had worked for more than 20 years. From the above statistics depicted by table 4.5, it was clear that the majority of respondents (52 per cent) had less than five years of work experience. Hence, they would need guidance and support from the fewer experienced staff to avoid mistakes and guess work. Again, 25 per cent had worked between six and ten years 13 per cent had worked for eleven to fifteen years. Those who had worked for 16-20 years or above constituted 5 per cent. This implied that the organisation lacked the ability to retain its workers. This was because the organisation had existed for almost three decades. The PNDC law 207 established the then Adansi West District in 1987. For this reason one could say that the organisation may face the challenge of inexperienced workforce. Research indicates that it is usually expensive to replace experienced and productive employees. It is usually

quite expensive to train and develop new employees as noted by Gibson et al, (1991). The problem above could be attributed to the fact that the organisation is situated in a very competitive environment surrounded by a giant mining company AngloGold Ashanti and its partners. This company being one of the biggest mining companies in the world may be far superior to the municipal assembly in the areas of worker motivation and remuneration. It would thus not be a surprise if the employees moved to for the mining company. What this implied was that organisational continuity, stability, progress and eventually stable workforce may pose a greater challenge to the stakeholders of the organisation. This is based on the fact that the organisation had existed for more than two decades hence majority of its employees should serve for longer years than the less than 6 years as the data revealed.

4.3 TYPES OF INTRINSIC REWARDS AVAILABLE IN THE ORGANISATION

4.3.1 Participation in Decision- making

Table 4.6Participation in Decision-making

Number of times	Management		Permanent		Temporary	
	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent
1-3	0	0	41	29.1	14	30.4
4 – 7	1	7.7	26	18.4	7	15.2
8 – 11	2	15.4	25	17.1	4	8.7
12 and above	9	69.2	25	17.7	5	10.9
None	1	7.7	24	17.0	16	34.8
Total	13	100.0	141	100.0	46	100.0

Source: Author's survey, June 2012

One of the specific objectives of the study was to find out the types of rewards (intrinsic and extrinsic) available in the organisation in which the study was conducted. To this effect a question was asked on how many times the respondents participated in decision making in the organisation. Table 4.6 shows the responses provided. 69.2 per cent of the respondents of the management staff, 10.9 per cent of the temporary staff respondents and 17.7 per cent of the permanent staff respondents had participated in decision making for more than eleven times. Also, 29.1 per cent of the permanent staff and 30.4 per cent of the temporary staff interviewed indicated that they have participated in decision making. Again 34 per cent, 24.2 per cent and 23.1 per cent of permanent, temporary and management staff respectively admitted that they had participated in decision making process between four and eleven times. However, some respondents accepted the fact that they had never participated in any decision making process before. 17.0 per cent, 34.8 per cent and only 7.7 per cent of permanent, temporary and management staff respondents respectively stated they had never took part in decision making. The respondents explained that the participation was evident in the areas of general assembly meetings and conferences where important issues were placed before them for discussion. The data analysis showed that almost all the management staff interviewed takes part in decision making in one way or the other. The number of temporary workers who had never participated in decision making was quite high (34.8 per cent). To this people they did not receive any notification for such purposes. Some respondents interestingly revealed that even though they do not receive any official invitation to attend meetings they themselves took the initiative to attend the meetings but they were not allowed to participate in decision making process. This suggested that there was problem in

information dissemination in the organisation. They explained that management positions and viewpoints at such meetings were always final and could not be opposed. As such their views were not respected by management. They therefore saw meetings as a waste of time and unproductive. This corroborates the findings of several studies (McShane and Von Glinow, 2000; Ivancevich and Matteson, 2002 and Schermerhorn *et al*, 1991) that when employees are side-lined in the decision-making process it decreases their morale and affects organisational performance. From the above it could be concluded that participation in decision making as an intrinsic reward was available in the organisation since majority of the respondents sampled took part in the decision making process. This, in the words of Boxall and Purcell (2003), as cited in Armstrong (2006) implied that employee voice is quite high in the organisation. To them it is a term used to cover a whole variety of processes and structures which enable, and sometimes empower employees, directly and indirectly to contribute to decision-making in the firm.

4.3.2 Praises and Recognition

Table 4.7 Praises and Recognition

Level of Recognition	Management staff		Permanent staff		Temporary staff	
	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent
very often	2	15.4	48	34.8	1	2.2
Often	2	15.4	43	31.2	18	39.1
not very often	4	30.8	15	10.6	18	39.1
not often	5	38.5	35	25.4	9	19.6
Total	13	100.0	138	100	46	100.0

Source: Author's survey, June 2012

In response to how often respondents were praised or recognised when they accomplished task majority of the management staff (69.2 per cent) stated they did not receive praises and recognition often as against 30.8 per cent who agreed that they did receive praises and recognition often. This could be attributed to the fact that management being a top hierarchy position of the organisation may not work directly under many people. Their immediate bosses were the board of executive committee and the central government who did not form part in the day to day running of the administration. In fact some management members (35.6 per cent) attested to the fact that they only met the members of the executive committee not more than three times in a year and the opportunity to meet and interact with them only availed itself during executive committee meetings. As such receiving praises and recognition was quite scarce since their immediate supervisors were far away from them on daily basis. However, 60 per cent of the permanent staff admitted that they very often received praises and recognition. But 33.3 per cent respondents from this category on the other hand attested that they did not receive praises and recognition very often respectively. With regards to temporary staff, 41.3 per cent of the respondents received this reward often whereas 56.5 per cent did not receive praises and recognition. The majority of all the three categories of respondents indicated that they received intrinsic reward (59 per cent) of the respondents received this reward often. This was against 41 per cent of the respondents who did not receive praises and recognition often. It was evident from the data collected that the organisation exhibited high level of praises and recognition as an intrinsic reward administered to its employees. This finding contradicts the claim by Gibson et al (1991) who postulated that praises and recognition is underutilized by

managers in most organizations in spite of it being inexpensive and less costly. Even though management themselves were not praised and recognized for their achievements for obvious reasons, they praised and the recognised their employees. This may be attributed to the fact that the cultural values of Ghanaians among other things stressed on mutual respect and expression of appreciation to the other when appropriate.

4.3.3 Training and Development Programme

Table 4.8 Training and Development Programme

Number	Management staff		Permanent staff		Temporary staff	
	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent
1 – 3	4	30.8	50	35.5	11	23.9
4 – 7	4	30.8	38	27.0	8	17.4
8 – 11	1	7.7	20	14.2	3	6.5
12 and above	3	23.1	13	9.2	2	4.3
None	1	7.7	20	14.2	22	47.8
Total	13	100.0	140	100.0	46	100.0

Source: Author's survey, June 2012.

In response to how many times respondents went for training and development programmes since they started working with the organisation, 30.8 per cent, 35.5 per cent, and 23.9 per cent of management, permanent and temporary staff respectively had not had more than three times of training and development programmes. Another 30.1 per cent, 27.0 per cent, and 17.4 per cent of management, permanent and temporary staff respectively had had four to seven times of training and development programmes while 7.7 per cent of management staff, 14.2 per cent permanent staff and 6.5 per cent of

temporary staff had had eight to eleven times of opportunity to go for training and development programmes in the organization since they were employed. Quite a good numbers of management staff had over twelve times and above training and development program. The number steadily declined in the permanent and temporary staff category. The figures stood at 14.2 and 4.3 per cent respectively. Interestingly, high number of the temporary workers had never benefited from this reward from the organisation. The data showed that 49.8 per cent of temporary staff had not received any training and development programme since they were employed. Information gathered by the researcher on the field indicated that some management positions were government appointments and managers of such departments such as National Disaster Management Organisation (NADMO) and the National Youth Employment Program (NYEP) experienced constant reshuffle and this might have caused the 7.7 per cent who had not benefited from training and development programmes. This could be attributed to the fact that some of the coordinators might just have assumed their position. From the data collected training and development programme as an intrinsic reward was minimal. This was due to the fact that training and development programme for employees in organisations were usually expensive as noted by De Cenzo and Robbins (1991) and McShane (1992). It was, therefore, not surprising that majority of the temporary or contract workers had not benefited from it. Some respondents of the permanent workers revealed that the only opportunity they had for training was the orientation training given to them right after recruitment. Training and development programme for all respondents could be said to be quite minimal. Out of the total number of 200 respondents interviewed only 8.5 per cent had received training and development which was beyond

twelve times whereas 12 per cent and 25 per cent participated in training and development programmes for eight to eleven and four to seven times respectively. From the data therefore one could argue that training and development opportunities were minimal in the organisation especially to non-management staff. This authenticates Griffin's (1999) postulation that continues growth and employee training and development is the most difficult task for managers to address. Among other things he indicated that such need may be met entirely from the individual and also the society at large.

KNUST

4.3.4 Job Autonomy

Table 4.9 Job Autonomy

Employee autonomy	Management staff		Permanent staff		Temporary staff	
	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent
Yes	10	76.9	81	57.4	14	30.4
No	3	23.1	60	42.5	32	69.6
Total	13	100.0	141	100.0	46	100.0

Source: Author's survey, June 2012

According to Gibson et al, (1991) a feeling of autonomy could result when one has the right privilege and freedom to take responsibility to do what the employee considers best in a particular situation. To this effect the researcher posed the question whether respondent had ever been allowed to take over all responsibility or decision making about their duties before? Table 4.9 shows that majority of the management staff have had greater job autonomy as 76.9 per cent of them responded affirmatively while 23.1 per

cent said they did not have job autonomy. In the quest of explaining their answers it was revealed that majority of the managers saw decision taking as part of their duties. Some management members however indicated that they did not work directly with the assembly and as such most decision comes from the headquarters namely Kumasi and Accra offices. This was in sharp contrast to the responses from temporary staff sampled. Out of the total number of 200 respondents interviewed 69.6 per cent indicated that they did not have job autonomy but 30.4 per cent agreed that they had the freedom to take responsibilities of their jobs. Some respondents actually stated that they did not have the expertise to take decision on what they did. Other respondents also reported that the organisation (management) was highly structured, autocratic and a bit rigid and as such would not give them the opportunity to decide on what they could do best under their own jobs. This finding reinforced the literature as Gibson et al, (1991) recounted that in jobs that are highly structured and controlled by management it is very difficult to create tasks that lead to a feeling of autonomy. Interestingly the situation was not the same for permanent staff sampled as majority 57.4 per cent of them claimed to have had job autonomy. However 39.7 per cent of them reported they did not have any job autonomy. They explained that they had the expertise and competencies to decide on the best things to do under a given situation hence management gave them the opportunity to do so. They only acted based on the instructions received from their superiors.

4.4: TYPES OF EXTRINSIC REWARDS AVAILABLE IN THE ORGANISATION

4.4.1 Salaries Received

Table 4.10 Salaries Received

Level	Management		Permanent		Temporary	
	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent
Very often	11	84.6	90	63.8	22	47.8
Often	1	7.7	34	24.1	19	41.3
Not very often	1	7.7	4	2.8	5	10.9
Not often	0	0	13	7.8	0	0
Total	13	100.0	141	100.0	46	100

Source: Author's survey, June 2012

In an attempt to find out how often employees received salaries at the end of every month, 92.3 per cent of the 13 management staffs reported that they received their salaries at the end of the end of the month. Out of the 141 permanent staffs, 87.9 per cent indicated that they received salaries often at the end of every month. This was against 12.1 per cent who indicated they did not receive salaries often. On the side of the temporary staffs interviewed 52.2 per cent reported that they often received salaries at the end of every month while 47.8 per cent of them indicated that they did not receive salaries very often at the end of the month.

Probing further the researcher discovered that delays experienced by some respondents with regard to their salaries were mostly caused by the individual banks where they received their salaries. However, some temporary staff interviewed for the study revealed that their salaries delayed because they were paid through the internal generated fund of the assembly. Hence the manual computation of the salaries usually based on wages caused the delays.

The data analysis revealed that an absolute majority (89 per cent) of the overall respondents received their salaries often as against the 11 per cent who did not receive their salaries often. Thus, this suggested that the organization had realized the fact that salaries were very essential reward to employees and indeed they served to fulfill basic needs of mankind in the areas of food and shelter as recounted by Umstot (1984).

4.4.2 Promotions Gained

Table 4.11 Promotions Gained

Responses	Management staff		Permanent staff		Temporary staff	
	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent
Yes	10	23.1	85	39.7	22	35.8
No	3	76.9	56	60.3	34	64.2
Total	13	100.0	141	100.0	46	100.0

Source: Author's survey, June 2012

In response to the question as to whether employees had gained promotion in the organisation, table 4.11 indicated that 23.1 per cent of management staff reported they had gained promotion as against 76.9 per cent who had never being promoted. Majority of the permanent workers interviewed (60.3 per cent) had not gained any promotion while 39.7 per cent however said they had been promoted before. Again 64.2 per cent of the temporary workers selected for the study said they had been promoted before whereas 35.8 per cent had not gained any promotion. Some of the top management members interviewed by the researcher revealed that in the public sectors like the assembly,

promotions were usually based on long of service rather than actual performance. Since majority of the total respondents had not served for longer years it was therefore not surprising that they (53 per cent) had not been promoted before as against 39 per cent who had gained promotion. This finding confirms the literature as McShane (1992) asserted that “even though many organisations have discovered how important promotion (non-monetary) rewards are, yet for many employees a promotion does not happen often and some have never experienced in their careers”.

KNUST

4.4.3 Allowances Mostly Available

Table 4.12 Allowance Mostly Available

Types of Allowances	Management staff		Permanent staff		Temporary staff	
	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent
Medical allowance	0	0	0	0	0	0
Overtime allowance	0	0	27	19.1	8	17.3
Car maintenance allowance	7	53.8	41	29.1	4	8.7
None	1	7.7.1	55	39.0	31	67.4
Rent allowance	5	38.4	18	12.7	3	6.5
Total	13	100	141	100	46	100

Source: Author's survey, June 2012

Table 4.12 shows that the responses to the question of which types of allowances were received, majority of the management staff (53.8 per cent) indicated that they received car

maintenance allowance while 38.5 per cent reported that they received rent allowance. However, 7.7 per cent said they received no allowance. Results from the 141 permanent staffs also showed that 12.7 per cent received rent allowance while 19.1 per cent received overtime allowance and 29.1 per cent received car maintenance allowances, 39.0 per cent received no allowance at all. Among the 46 temporary staffs also, 6.5 per cent received rent allowance, 17.3 per cent received overtime allowance, 8.7 per cent received car maintenance allowances, and 67.4 per cent received no allowance at all. The data showed that there was no medical allowance for all employees.

From the data analysis it was quite surprising that temporary workers received rewards such as rent allowances. It was made known to the researcher that some temporary workers had been contracted to perform an information technology related jobs for some few weeks and these people were well taking care of and as such may have benefited from these allowances. Expectedly majority (67.4 per cent) of temporary workers had never received any allowance. 39 per cent of permanent staff had never received any allowance before. One could therefore say that apart from the temporary staffs that were contract workers of the organisation there were some forms of allowances for permanent and management staff while some allowances did not exist at all.

4.5: EFFECTS OF REWARDS ON EMPLOYEES BEHAVIOUR

4.5.1 Times Absent from Work in a Year

Table 4.13 Times Absent from Work in a Year

Number of	Management staff	Permanent staff	Temporary staff
-----------	------------------	-----------------	-----------------

times workers absented themselves	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent
1 – 2	3	23.1	41	29.0	11	23.9
3 – 4	2	15.4	21	14.9	12	26.1
5 – 6	1	7.7	21	14.9	5	10.9
7 and above	1	7.7	10	7.1	3	6.5
None	6	46.2	48	34.0	15	32.6
Total	13	100.0	141	100.0	46	100.0

Source: Author's survey, June 2012

Table 4.13 represents the number of times that workers had absented themselves from work in a year. 23.1 per cent of the 13 management responded to have been absent for 1-2 times, 15.4 per cent reported 3 – 4 times. Also, 7.7 per cent indicated that they absented themselves for 5 - 6 times, and 7.7 per cent responded to more than 7 times while 46.2 indicated they did not absent themselves at all. With regards to the permanent staffs interviewed 29 per cent revealed that they had absented themselves for 1-2 times a year. Again, 14.9 per cent had absented themselves for 3-4 and 5-6 times while 7.1 per cent had been absent for more than 7 times and 34 per cent had not absented themselves at all. The temporary staff had 32.6 per cent not absenting themselves in a year as against 67.4 per cent who indicated that they had absented themselves from work for at least once a year.

From the data analysis, majority of respondents from all the three categories (69.5 per cent) did absent themselves from work at least once a year while 31.5 per cent of the respondents did come to work throughout a year.

4.5.2 Effects of Rewards on Absenteeism

Table 4.14 Effects of Rewards on Absenteeism

Level of agreement	Management staff		Permanent staff		Temporary staff	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Strongly agree	2	15.4	9	6.4	1	2.2
Agree	2	15.4	16	11.3	12	26.1
Disagree	2	15.4	34	24.1	18	39.1
Strongly disagree	2	15.4	36	25.5	3	6.5
Neither of them	5	38.5	46	32.6	12	26.1
Total	13	100.0	141	100.0	46	100.0

Source: Author's survey, June 2012

Table 4.14 presents the responses provided by respondents whether they agreed or disagreed that their absenteeism was in one way or the other influenced by the reward systems in the organisation. 30.8 per cent of management staff and 17.7 per cent of permanent staff, and 28.3 per cent of temporary staff interviewed agreed that the rewards available in the organisation influenced them to absent themselves from work. Also, 30.8 per cent of management staff, 49.6 per cent of permanent staff and 45.6 per cent of the temporary staff disagreed that their absenteeism was influenced by the reward systems in the organisation. However, 38.5 per cent, 32.6 per cent and 26.1 per cent of management, permanent and temporary staff respectively neither agreed nor disagreed that their absenteeism was influenced by the organisational rewards. An absolute majority of the management staff (83 per cent) who explained their answers claimed they wanted to show leadership by example hence they could not afford to be absenting themselves from work while 30.5 per cent of permanent and temporary workers who had never absented

themselves from work explained that they would not do anything at home if they decide to absent themselves from work and that staying at home was boring compared to the work place. Interestingly others were afraid of the consequences of absenteeism as it could result in severe punishment from management and not necessarily because of the reward systems in the organisation. This was confirmed through the tested hypothesis on rewards satisfaction and employees absenteeism which stated that:

Null Ho: There is no significant relationship between absenteeism and employee satisfaction with rewards.

Alternative H1: There is a significant relationship between absenteeism and employee satisfaction with rewards.

Table 4.15 Chi- Square Test between Rewards Satisfaction and Absenteeism

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	23.184 ^a	16	.109
Likelihood Ratio	26.072	16	.053
Linear-by-Linear Association	5.394	1	.020
N of Valid Cases	124		

Alpha= 0.05

Source: Author's survey, June 2012

From table 4.15 the p-value (0.109) is greater than the alpha (0.05). Thus, the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis. The researcher, therefore, concluded at 95 per cent confident level that there is no significant relationship between satisfaction with rewards and employee absenteeism. In other words, any absenteeism from one's job may be due

to other factors but not dissatisfaction with rewards. Any such coincidence can, thus, be attributed to chance.

This corroborates with the studies of Ramlall (2002) cited in Zaini et al (2007) that employees may absent themselves from work in the organisation not because of inadequate salaries, lack of job training, allowances and so on but for some factors. Some respondents, interestingly, reported that there was a “hot iron” mechanism pulling employees to work daily and most importantly on time. This “hot iron” was the employee attendance book placed at the reception of the assembly. Employees were expected to write down their names, time of reporting and signed against them. A red line was drawn to check absenteeism and lateness after 8:00 am every morning. Thus the time book was very instrumental in checking lateness as well as absenteeism. Some management members actually disclosed that the attendance book was periodically reviewed and employees who were found culprit of truancy and lateness were dealt with. This corroborates the findings of Schermerhorn et al (1992) that punishment can be used to eliminate unwanted behaviour such as lateness and absenteeism. In fact other studies report that properly administered disciplinary actions such as punishment backed with positive reinforcement improve work attendance. From the data analysis, there was not enough evidence to state that reward systems had significant effects on the attendance of employees as there were other factors which were directly linked to employee absenteeism.

4.5.3 Job Retention

Table 4.16 Job Retention

Level of willingness	Management staff		Permanent staff		Temporary staff	
	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent
Most willing	3	23.1	24	17.0	17	37.0
Willing	6	46.2	30	21.3	17	37.0
Somehow willing	2	15.4	47	33.3	8	17.4
Neither of them	2	15.4	30	21.2	3	6.5
Not willing	0	0	10	7.2	1	2.1
Total	13	100.0	141	100.0	46	100.0

Source: Author's survey, June 2012

Table 4.16 shows the responses of whether respondents were willing to leave the organisation for another if there was an opportunity to do that. 84.6, 71.7 and 91.4 per cent of the management, permanent, and temporary staff respectively indicated that they would leave the organisation if the opportunity come. However, 7.1 and 2.1 per cent of permanent and temporary staff reported they would not leave the organisation even if they had the opportunity to leave. An overwhelming majority of temporary workers (91.4 per cent) reported that they would leave when the opportunity came their way. This was not surprising because temporary workers of the organisation were not full time workers and could not compare themselves to the full time workers. Besides these employees could have had their appointments terminated at any point in time and they were not entitled to any compensation thereafter. Thus, they would be more than willing to leave their jobs when they had the opportunity to do that. Comparing this finding to the number

of years served which had the modal range of 0-5 years, was a clear indication that the organisation lacked the ability to retain its employees.

4.5.4 Effects of Rewards on Employees' Job Retention

Table 4.17 Effects of Rewards on Employees' Job Retention

Response	Management staff		Permanent staff		Temporary staff	
	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent
No	3	23.1	28	19.9	11	23.9
Yes	9	69.2	98	69.5	33	71.7
Somehow	1	7.7	15	10.6	2	4.4
Total	13	100.0	12	90.8	45	97.8

Source: Author's survey, June 2012

To investigate whether or not the rewards available in the organisation had influence on employee's intention to remain in their jobs the following responses were obtained from respondents as depicted in table 4.17. Some management staff interviewed (23.1 per cent) stated that they would remain in their jobs because of the reward systems. Majority of the management staff (69.2 per cent) agreed that they would not remain in their jobs because of the reward system available in the organisation. In the case of the permanent staffs, 19.9 per cent indicated that rewards would influence their decision to remain in their jobs while 69.5 per cent specified that rewards would influence their decision not to remain in their jobs. With regards to temporary staff who were interviewed, 71.7 per cent agreed that they would leave the organisation because of the prevailed organisational

reward systems while 23.9 per cent wanted to stay on to their jobs because of the reward systems.

In spite of the fact that other forms of rewards especially salaries existed for employees in the organisation many of them did not have the desire to retain their jobs. This could stem from the fact that “many so-called rewards have little value and may in fact be insulting to employees” McShane (1992). This could also be attributed to the fact that money is not the sole incentive to work as some studies such as the Hawthorne studies had reported. This corroborates Gibson et al (1982) postulation that although it is generally agreed that money is a major mechanism for rewarding and modifying behaviour in industry very little is known about how it works as it can hardly retain employees in an industry. The finding also authenticates the claim by McShane and von Glinow (2000) that if an organisation which does not have an endless stream of extrinsic and intrinsic rewards and could not increase the level of rewards distributed, high performers could usually not be retained.

4.5.5 Employees commitment

Table 4.18 Employees Commitment

Responses	Management staff		Permanent staff		Temporary	
	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent
Yes	1	7.7	70	49.6	11	23.9
No	11	84.6	66	46.8	33	71.7
Somehow	1	7.7	5	3.6	2	4.4

Total	13	100.0	141	100	46	100
-------	----	-------	-----	-----	----	-----

Source: Author's survey, June 2012

Veldsman (1980) advised that to know if employees' are committed, we can find out whether or not they will quit their jobs to accept another offer. To this effect the question as to whether or not employees' would spend the rest of their career with their current organisation was asked. Table 4.18 shows the responses provided as 7.7 per cent of management staff said that they would not quit. An absolute majority of them (84.6 per cent) indicated that they would not spend the rest of their career with the organisation. This could be based on the fact that most of the management staff were highly qualified and could easily switch from one job to the other. On the other hand 49.6 per cent of permanent staff indicated that they would spend the rest of their career with the organization while 46.8 per cent answered in the negative. Also, 23.9 per cent of the temporary workers accepted to spend the rest of their career with the organisation while 71.7 per cent said they would quit their organisation for another job. Those who wanted to maintain their career could be explained by the fact that it was very difficult getting unemployment in Ghana which is evident in the high employment rate in the country. People who did not have advanced certificates or vast experiences may be content with which ever jobs they had and as such could hardly thought of other jobs.

Majority of respondents from the three categories(55 per cent)indicated that they did not desire to spend the rest of their career with organisation. 41 per cent said that they would not change their organisation and for that matter their jobs. Veldsman (1980) noticed that employees who are committed are less likely to quit and accept other jobs. On this premise the researcher concluded that employees in the organisation were not committed.

Indeed this finding correlates Ambrose (1996) claims that when employees loose commitment there is a likelihood of higher turnover amongst the very people organisation can least afford to lose. Probing further some respondents specified that working in the organisation was boring. Also, management did not regard them in terms of their knowledge and competence and this reflected Porter (1968) who remarked that uncommitted employee does not exhibit strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation. This, therefore, implied that giving employees' responsibility and autonomy to do their jobs were insufficient to some respondents. This to them had influenced their decision not to spend their entire career with the organisation. As a matter of fact some respondents went further to assert that they would have quitted for other job offers but the difficulty in finding jobs had kept them with the organisation.

4.5.6 Effects of Reward on Employees' Commitment

Table 4.19 Effects of Reward on Employees' Commitment

Responses	Management staff		Permanent staff		Temporary staff	
	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent
Yes	1	7.7	53	37.6	10	21.7
No	11	84.6	75	53.2	32	69.6
Somehow	1	7.7	13	9.2	4	8.7
Total	13	100.0	141	100.0	46	100.0

Source: Author's survey, June 2012

Maslow (1954) noted that employees can only be committed when their professional and domestic needs are fulfilled by organisational rewards. To this effect respondents were asked if their professional and domestic needs were fulfilled by the organisational

rewards. The responses provided by respondents are shown in table 4.19. An overwhelming majority (84.6 percent) of the management staff said their needs were not fulfilled by the rewards in the organization. Also, majority of the permanent staff interviewed (53.2 percent) indicated that their needs were not fulfilled by the organisational rewards while 37.6 per cent stated that their needs were fulfilled. Besides, these 69.6 percent of the temporary staff said that their needs were not fulfilled by the organisational reward systems; because the salaries were woefully inadequate to cater for their needs. They explained that salaries and allowances were too meager to fulfill their numerous needs. They revealed that they did not receive much rewards at the end of the month thereby making them unable to take care of their nuclear and extended families. This supported the literature on as indicated by Veldsman (1980) that without enough pay employees will not be able to feed themselves take care of their nuclear and extended families, belong to association of their choice, and gain recognition and respect from others.

The data analysis revealed that majority of the respondents from the three categories (68 per cent) indicated that, the organisation did not fulfill their needs. The literature highlighted that employees can only be committed when their needs are met and fulfilled by their organisation and as such they will be generally satisfied with rewards (Maslow, 1954). This was confirmed by the tested hypothesis which stated:

Null H_0 : There is no significant relationship between employee commitment to stay on the job and employee satisfaction with rewards.

Alternative H₁: There is a significant relationship between employee commitment to stay on the job and employee satisfaction with rewards.

Table 4.20 Chi-Square Test between Satisfaction with Rewards and Employees Commitment

Statistics	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	12.161 ^a	4	.016
Likelihood Ratio	13.017	4	.011
Linear-by-Linear Association	.879	1	.349
N of Valid Cases	133		

Alpha= (0.05)

Source: Author's survey, June 2012

From table 4.20 the p-value (.016) is smaller than the alpha (.05) as such the null hypothesis was rejected while the research hypothesis was accepted. The researcher therefore, concluded that he was 95 percent confident that there is a significant relationship between satisfaction with rewards and employee commitment to stay on the job. In other words, one's level of commitment to stay on the job is dependent on one's level of satisfaction with rewards in the organisation.

4.6: Employees Satisfaction with Rewards

Table 4.21 Employees' Satisfaction with Rewards in the Organisation

Level of satisfaction	Management staff		Permanent staff		Temporary staff	
	Frequency	Per	Frequency	Per	Frequency	Per

		cent		cent		cent
very dissatisfactory	5	38.5	61	43.3	18	39.1
Dissatisfactory	3	23.1	58	41.1	15	32.6
Satisfactory	1	7.7	14	9.9	6	13.0
very satisfactory	4	30.8	8	5.7	7	15.2
Total	12	92.3	135	95.7	42	91.3

Source: Author's survey, June 2012

Table 4.21 revealed that 71.7 per cent of temporary staff, 84.4 per cent of permanent staff, and 53.9 per cent of management staff were dissatisfied with rewards in the organisation. Numerically, majority of all respondents in the organisation were dissatisfied with reward systems in the organisation. This reflects Locke's (1976) assertion that job satisfaction may be a function of many variables amongst them includes organisational rewards. It also confirmed the literature as noted by Clifford (1985) who wrote "employees are often dissatisfied by financial rewards than the values which are related to intrinsic part of job rewards". The findings from the data analysis corroborates with the studies of Zaini et al (2007) who proposed that public sector employees who have greater needs for achievements and private sector employees are motivated by extrinsic rewards than intrinsic rewards. However, there was a mixed reaction on the side of temporary and permanent workers on the followed up question as to whether they were most dissatisfied with intrinsic or extrinsic rewards. There was 45.6 per cent of the permanent staff who indicated that they were mostly dissatisfied with intrinsic rewards but they were satisfied with extrinsic rewards. With regards to the temporary workers 48 per cent indicated they were much dissatisfied with intrinsic rewards. The moot point, therefore, was that workers

were generally dissatisfied with the organisational rewards available to them in the organisation.

KNUST



CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION OF MAJOR FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presented the major findings of the study. It therefore, touched on the most salient revelation the study discovered. The findings were examined in line with the specific objectives of the study. It also relates the various findings to the literature review of the study.

KNUST

5.2 Findings

From the data analysis, it was evidently clear that majority of the respondents were within the ages of 18-28 since it was the modal age with 36 percent. This therefore implied that most of employees in the organisation were young and youthful. As such if they were managed well and rewarded equitably and fairly it would go a long way to enhance the organisational performance thereby leading to its development. The data analysis also showed that the organisation like many other organisational set ups in Ghana is gender insensitive. It was clear example of men dominated society. Even though females are the majority in this country they are mostly sidelined as against their men counterparts in areas of job acquisition. The disparity was very significant at the management level which recorded almost 77 percent of male respondents. This gender disparity against females could be attributed to the traditional belief that the school was not suited for girls whose proper place was the kitchen as noted by Nukunya (2002).

Again, majority of the respondents (51.3 per cent) were single and this could be attributed to the fact of formal education and apprenticeship which postponed the marriage time of the youth in modern Ghana. This was the reverse in traditional Ghanaian society where people married at early ages. This became evident since the modal age of respondent was between 18- 28 year range.

The data analysis brought fore that 64 per cent being the majority of the workers had at least a tertiary education and as such the organisation could be said to have had competent and knowledgeable workforce. In fact an overwhelming majority (92.3) of management staff had tertiary qualification. This implied that the organisation had a pool of skillful human resource at their disposal and would not be found wanting in the areas of level headed workforce who could perform well in their jobs. This again suggests that the organisation placed high premium on education in recruiting employees. Those respondents with lower or no formal education at all were those who performed the jobs which involved less skill such as cleaning and weeding jobs.

The study made an important revelation when it discovered that only 5 per cent of respondents had worked for 16-20 years. This implied that the organisation lacked the ability to retain its workers. This was because the organisation had existed for almost three decades. The PNDC law 207 established the then Adansi West District in 1987. For this reason one could say that the organisation may face the challenge of inexperienced workforce. Research indicates that it is usually expensive to replace experienced and productive employees. It is usually quite expensive in training and developing new employees as noted by Gibson et al (1991).The problem above was attributed to the fact that the organisation is situated in a very competitive environment surrounded by a giant

mining company AngloGold Ashanti and its partners. This company being one of the biggest mining companies in the world may be far superior to the municipal assembly in the areas of worker motivation and remuneration. It would thus not be a surprise if the employees moved to for the mining company. What this implied was that organizational continuity, stability, progress and eventually stable workforce may pose a greater challenge to the stakeholders of the organisation.

One of the specific objectives of the study was to find out the types of intrinsic rewards available in the organisation. The data analysis showed that employees' participation in decision-making was available in the organisation. However, there was an important finding, the data analysis showed that almost all management staff took part in decision making in one way or the other. The number of temporary workers who had never participated in decision making was quite high (34.8 per cent). To this people they did not receive any notification for such purposes. Some respondents interestingly revealed that even though they did not receive any official invitation to attend meetings they themselves took the initiative to attend meetings but they were not allowed by management. This suggested that there was problem in decision making in the organisation. They explained that management positions and viewpoints at such meetings were always final and could not be opposed. As such their views were not respected by management. They therefore saw meetings as a waste of time and unproductive. This corroborates the findings of several studies (McShane and Von Glinow, 2000; Ivancevich and Matteson, 2002 and Schermerhorn *et al*, 1991) that when employees are side-lined in the decision-making process it decreases their morale and affects organisational performance.

In an attempt to investigate whether praises and recognition as a reward was available in the organisation majority of the respondents (59 per cent) indicated that they received this intrinsic reward. This was against 41 per cent of the respondents who did not receive praises and recognition often. It was evident from the data collected that the organisation exhibited high level of praises and recognition as an intrinsic reward administered to its employees. This finding contradicted the claim by Gibson et al (1991) who postulated that praises and recognition is underutilized by managers in most organisations in spite of it being inexpensive and less costly. From the study, though, management themselves were not praised and recognized for their achievements, they praised and the recognised their employees. This was attributed to the fact that the cultural values of Ghanaians among other things stressed on mutual respect and expression of appreciation to the other when appropriate.

The study also found out that training and development programme for respondents was quite minimal. Out of the total number of 200 respondents interviewed only 8.5 per cent had received training and development which was beyond twelve times whereas 12 per cent and 25 per cent participated in training and development programmes for eight to eleven and four to seven times respectively. From the data therefore one could argue that training and development opportunities were minimal in the organisation especially to non-management staff. This authenticates Griffin's(1999) postulation that continuous growth and employee training and development is the most difficult task for managers to address.

The study again, found out that majority of the respondents interviewed 69.6 per cent indicated that they did not have job autonomy but 30.4 per cent agreed that they had the

freedom to take responsibilities of their jobs. Some respondents actually stated that they did not have the expertise to take decision on what they did. Other respondents also reported that the organisation (management) was highly structured, autocratic and a bit rigid and as such would not give them the opportunity to decide on what they can do best under their own jobs. This finding reinforced the literature as Gibson et al (1991) recounted that in jobs that are highly structured and controlled by management it is very difficult to create tasks that leads to a feeling of autonomy.

One significant finding from the data analysis was that an absolute majority (89 per cent) of the respondents received their salaries often as against the 11 per cent who did not receive their salaries often. This implied that the organisation used salary as a reward system. Thus this suggest that the organisation had realized the fact that salaries were very essential reward to employees and indeed they served to fulfill basic needs of mankind in the areas of food and shelter as recounted by Umstot (1984).

The study again found out that promotion as an extrinsic reward was available to employees in the organisation. However, the analysis showed that majority of the respondents had not served for longer years and as such majority of the respondents (53 per cent) had not gain any promotion before as against 39 per cent who had gained promotion. This finding confirmed the literature as McShane (1992) asserted that “even though many organisations have discovered how important promotion (non-monetary) rewards are yet for many employees a promotion does not happen often some never experience in their careers”.

The study made an important finding when the analysis showed that the temporary workers received rewards such as rent and car maintenance allowances. It was made known to the researcher on the field of study that some temporary workers had been contracted to perform an information technology related jobs for some few weeks and these people were well taken care of and as such may have benefited from these allowances. This showed that temporary workers who are skilled and highly certificated got better condition of service and may at times be treated as full time workers or better still management. Expectedly, a large majority 67.4 per cent of temporary workers had never received any allowance. 39 per cent of permanent staff sampled had never received any allowance before. It could, therefore, be said that apart from the temporary staffs that were contract workers of the organisation there were some forms of allowance for permanent and management staff.

One significant finding from the study was the relationship between reward systems and employees absenteeism in the organisation. First, the study revealed that a large majority (69.5 per cent) of respondents absented themselves from work in one way or the other against 31.5 per cent who reported otherwise. However, majority of the respondents especially management staff (83 per cent) explained that their absenteeism or not was not directly associated with the rewards in the organisation but to some factors such as to show leadership by example hence they could not afford to be absenting themselves from work. Again, 30.5 per cent of permanent and temporary workers who had never absented themselves from work explained that they would not do anything at home if they decided to absent themselves from work and that staying at home was boring compared to the work place. Interestingly others were afraid of the consequences of absenteeism as it

could result in severe punishment from management and not necessarily because of the reward systems in the organisation. This was confirmed through the tested hypothesis on rewards satisfaction and employees absenteeism. The p-value (0.09) was greater than the alpha (0.05) thus, the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis and therefore concluded that he was 95 per cent confident that there was no significant relationship between satisfaction with rewards and employees absenteeism in the organisation. This corroborates with the studies of Ramlall (2002) cited in Zaini et al (2007) that employees may absent themselves from work in the organisation not because of inadequate salaries, lack of job training, allowances and so on but for some factors. Some respondents, interestingly, reported that there was a “hot iron” mechanism pulling employees to work daily and most importantly on time. This “hot iron” was the employee attendance book placed at the reception of the assembly. Employees were expected to write down their names, time of reporting and signed against them. A red line was drawn to check absenteeism and lateness after 8:00 am every morning. Thus the time book was very instrumental in checking lateness as well as absenteeism. Some management members actually disclosed that the attendance book was periodically reviewed and employees who were found culprit of truancy and lateness were dealt with. This corroborates the findings of Schermerhorn et al (1992) that punishment can be used to eliminate unwanted behaviour such as lateness and absenteeism. In fact other studies report that properly administered disciplinary actions such as punishment backed with positive reinforcement improve work attendance. From the data analysis, there was no enough evidence to state that reward systems had significant effects on the attendance of employees as there were other factors which were directly linked to employee absenteeism.

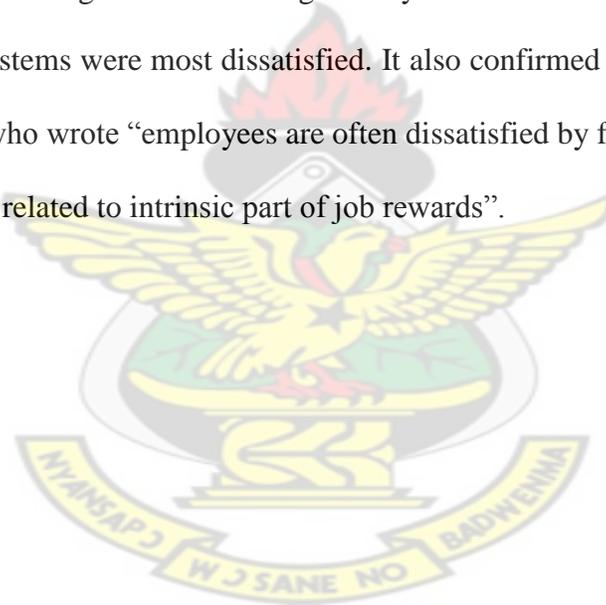
One key finding of the study was the revelation about the relationship between reward systems and employees job retention. The data analysis showed that 84.6, per cent 71.7 per cent and 91.4 per cent of the management, permanent, and temporary staff respectively were willing to leave the organisation when the opportunity come. The study further indicated that majority of the respondents (69.5 and 69.2 per cent) of management and temporary staffs respectively were willing to leave the organisation for the other jobs because of the reward systems available in the organisation. This indicated that in spite of the fact that other forms of rewards especially salaries existed for employees in the organisation many of them did not had the desire to retain their jobs. This could stem from the fact that “many so-called rewards have little value and may in fact be insulting to employees” McShane (1992). This corroborates Gibson et al (1982) postulation that although it is generally agreed that money is a major mechanism for rewarding and modifying behaviour in industry very little is known about how it works as it can hardly retain employees in an industry. The finding also authenticates the claim by McShane and Von Glinow (2000) that if an organisation which does not have an endless stream of extrinsic and intrinsic rewards and could not increase the level of rewards distributed, high performers could usually not be retained.

A significant objective of the study was to find employees committed and its relationship with reward systems. Majority of respondents from the three categories of workers(55 per cent)indicated that they did not desire to spend the rest of their career with organisation. 41 per cent said that they would not change their organisation and for that matter their jobs. Veldsman (1980) noticed that employees who are committed are less likely to quit and accept other jobs. On this premise the researcher concluded that employees in the

organisation were not committed. Indeed this finding correlates Ambrose (1996) claims that when employees loose commitment there is a likelihood of higher turnover amongst the very people organisation can least afford to lose. Probing further some respondents specified that working in the organisation was boring. Also, management did not regard them in terms of their knowledge and competence and this reflected Porter (1968) who remarked that uncommitted employee does not exhibit strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation. This, therefore, implied that giving employees the responsibility and autonomy to do their jobs were insufficient to some respondents.

Further, the study found out that employees job satisfaction was significantly influenced by employees rewards satisfaction. The data analysis revealed that majority of the respondents from the three categories interviewed (68 per cent) indicated that, the organisation did not fulfill their needs as against 32 per cent who answered in contrast. The literature highlighted that employees can only be committed when their needs are met and fulfilled by their organisation and as such they will be generally satisfied with rewards (Maslow, 1954). This was confirmed through the hypothesis test. In the test the p-value (.016) was smaller than the alpha (.05) and as such the null hypothesis was rejected while the research hypothesis was accepted. The researcher therefore, concluded that he was 95 percent confident that there was a significant relationship between satisfaction with rewards and employee commitment to stay on the job. In other words, one's level of commitment to stay on the job was dependent on one's level of satisfaction with rewards in the organisation.

Another important finding of the study was the fact that majority of the respondents were dissatisfied with the rewards in the organisation. For example a huge majority (71.7 per cent) of temporary staff was dissatisfied with rewards. Also an absolute majority(84.4 per cent) of permanent staff was dissatisfied with rewards as against 11.4 per cent who reported that they were satisfied with rewards. In the same vein majority of management staff (53.9 per cent) was dissatisfied.This reflects Locke’s (1976) assertion that job satisfaction may be a function of many variables amongst them includes organisational rewards. Probing further, majority (78.9 per cent) of management staff respondent revealed that even though rewards were generally dissatisfied rewards related to financial part of reward systems were most dissatisfied. It also confirmed the literature as noted by Clifford (1985) who wrote “employees are often dissatisfied by financial rewards than the values which are related to intrinsic part of job rewards”.



CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION OF THE STUDY

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presented the overall summary of the study. The second part of the chapter was the recommendations which were suggested based on the findings of the study. The conclusion of the study was the last part of this chapter.

KNUST

6.2 Summary of the Study

The study was a case study aimed at examining the effects of reward systems and employees behaviour in the Obuasi Municipal Assembly in the Ashanti Region of Ghana. The target population comprised all employees of the organisation in Obuasi. A stratified sample of 200 respondents was selected consisting of 13 managerial staff, 141 permanent staff and 46 temporary staff.

A background study was conducted by the researcher on motivational theories. The various types of reward systems as well as their effects on employees' behavior were also reviewed. The literature revealed that effective and integrated reward systems engender positive employee behaviour such as increasing employee satisfaction and gaining commitment.

Questionnaire was used as the principal tool for data collection. The questionnaire was pre-tested and post-tested to ascertain its validity and reliability before it was finally used for the data collection. The stratified sampling technique was employed to select 200

respondents randomly. The data was analysed quantitatively using both descriptive and inferential statistics. The descriptive statistics consisted mainly of frequency tables with percentages which permitted comparison of responses. The inferential statistics used was the chi-square for the hypotheses test.

Analyses of the results showed that majority of both subordinate employees and managers were males. It was also revealed that generally, managerial staff served longer periods and had higher qualification than subordinating staff. In terms of educational qualification, a considerably small number of subordinate employees had tertiary education compared to managerial staff where almost everyone had either a first degree or a master's degree.

The analyses further indicated that there were intrinsic and extrinsic rewards available to employees in the organization which included various allowances, salaries, job autonomy, promotion just to mention a few. Responses generally showed that respondents somehow agreed that the reward systems had effects on their behaviours. Responses from the management, permanent, and temporary employees also indicated that they were generally dissatisfied with rewards in the organisation.

The Chi- Square test performed revealed that there was a significant relationship between satisfaction with rewards and employee commitment to stay on the job. In other words, one's level of commitment to stay on the job was dependent on one's level of satisfaction with reward systems in the organisation.

The hypothesis tested showed again that there was no significant relationship between satisfaction with rewards and employee absenteeism in the organisation. In other words,

any absenteeism from one's job may be due to other factors but not dissatisfaction with rewards

6.3 Recommendations

The researcher recommends the following based on the findings uncovered.

It was discovered from the study that a large majority of the workers especially the management staff (76.9 percent) were males. This was disturbing since majority of the Ghanaian population are females yet they are often dominated by their male counterparts in job acquisition. As such the Metropolitan Municipal District Assemblies (MMDA'S) should have a policy of employment in place that could check these the women are fairly represented in future employment especially at the decision-making level.

Again, it was found out from the study that majority of the respondents were allowed to take part in decision making. Notwithstanding the above some few workers were not allowed to participate in decision-making. This, however, was a healthy practice since majority of the employees participated in decision-making and for this reason the organisation should create more room for most members to have a say in decision making process in the organisation. This is very important because it makes employees feel that they are part of the organisation and this raises their morale and increases their commitment levels.

The study discovered that majority of non-management staff did not receive training and development programmes from the organisation. It is therefore recommended that the

Assembly can grant study leaves with or without pay to its employees who have the desire and the ability to improve upon their qualification. This will increase performance as majority of them were youthful.

Furthermore, the researcher discovered from the data analysis that absenteeism was quite low. This was so because of the fact that employees were compelled to write down their names and time of arrival in a time book. This was very effective mechanism in reducing absenteeism. With advancement in technology in the society today the researcher recommends that a technology based time indicator could be acquired instead of the manual time book for the organisation and this will help improve employees' attendance.

The study revealed that majority of the workers did not have the desire to remain with the organisation. For instance an overwhelming majority (93.5 per cent) of the temporary and 77 per cent of management staff indicated they will quit the job when the opportunity comes for them to leave for other jobs. Some respondents revealed that their jobs were boring and as such they were not happy working in the organisation. It is, therefore, suggested that the practice of job rotation and enrichment where possible should be practiced in the organisation. This can be done when employees are routinely changed across or within departments in the organisation. Also jobs could be enriched by management if they combined two or more jobs for an employee or a group of employees at a time. This will help deal with the problem of job boredom in the organisation.

The researcher recommends again that management should seek experts view on how monetary rewards such as salaries are used to motivate workers. This stems from the fact that even though the organisation administers salaries often it had little impact in

influencing workers behaviour. The literature confirmed that money is the major mechanism for rewarding and modifying behaviour in organisation yet very little is known about how it works (Umstot, 1984; Gibson et al, 1982 and Pigors and Meyers, 1985)

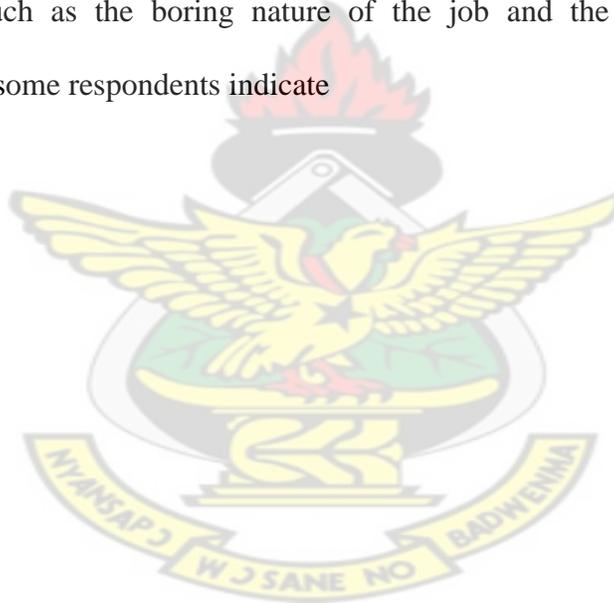
Lastly, majority of the workers (63%) confirmed that they were dissatisfied with rewards .The literature revealed that rewards systems should be integrated in order for employees to gain satisfaction. It is therefore recommended that rewards systems should be more integrated in order for employees to gain satisfaction.As such two or more reward systems can be combined at a time for an individual employee or a group of employees. Also, individual needs must be taken into accounts when management distributes rewards since different people may prefer different rewards in a given situation.

6.3 Conclusion

The workforce of the Obuasi Municipal Assembly was predominantly males. The level of academic attainment among managerial staff was considerably higher than that of subordinate employees (permanent and temporary employees). This is due to the fact that managers needed to be more knowledgeable than their subordinates in terms of theory and practical expertise so that they could be in a position to instruct and advise workers to carry out organisational tasks. There were varieties of intrinsic and extrinsic reward systems available in the organisation. These included salaries, allowances, promotions, training and development just to mention a few. Also, the study brought fore that reward systems were keen in modifying employees' behaviour in the areas of job retention and

employee commitment. Majority of the respondents indicated that generally rewards systems were not satisfactory and as such they would leave their jobs for other jobs if the opportunity comes.

The hypotheses test concluded that there was a significant relationship between rewards satisfaction and employee satisfaction to stay on the job at 95 percent confidence level. There was, however, no significant evidence between employees' absenteeism and organisational reward systems. This implied that employees who absented themselves were not caused by effectiveness or the ineffectiveness of rewards. This was attributed to other factors such as the boring nature of the job and the leadership style of the management as some respondents indicate



REFERENCES

A Copy of PNDC Law 107 (1991).Immigration and Refugee Board of Canada. Ghana.

Ali, R., and Ahmed, M. S., (2009).The Impact of Reward and Recognition Programs on employee's Motivation and Satisfaction an Empirical Study, International Review of Business. Research Papers (5), 270-279

Amabile, T.M., (1993). Motivation Energy: Towards new Conceptions of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation in the Workplace, Human Resource Review. Research Papers 5(4), 270-279.

Ambrose, D., (1996). Healing the Downsized Organisation, New York: Rivers Press.

Armstrong, M., (2001).A Hand Book of Human Resource Management Practice,London: Kogan Press Limited.

Armstrong M., (2006).A Hand Book of Human Resource Management Practice,London:Kogan Press Limited.

Bell, I., (1999), Doing your Research Project: A First-Researcher in Education and Social Science, Open University Press.

Bennis, W., (1969).Organisational Development: Its Nature, Origin and Prospects, New York:Addison Wesley Inc.

J., Bratton, J., and Gold (2003).Human Resource Management: Theory and Practice.New York:Palgrave Macmillan.

Burack,E., (1975). Organisational Analysis; Theory and Application,Hinsdale-Illinois: The Dryden Press.

Clifford, J.M., (1985).The Relative of Importance of Intrinsicand Extrinsic Rewards as Determinants of Work Satisfaction; Soc. quat. 26(3): 365-385 U.S.A.

Clifford, J.M., Gerasimos, A.G.,(1997).The Relationship Between Jobs Satisfaction and Performance.The Case of Local Government Finance Offices in Ohio Publican Prod. Manage. Rev., 21(2).

Cohen, I.,Manion I., and Morrison K., (2005).Research Methods in Education, Fetter Lane, London: RoutledgeFalmer II New.

Concha, A., (2009).The Impact Role Stress on Worker Behaviour through Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment, International Journal of Psychology: Spain.

Cuming, M. W.,(1975). The Theory and Practice of Professional Management,London:Heinemann.

De Cenzo, D.A, and Robins, S. P., (1994).Human Resource Management: Concepts and Process,Texas: Business publications, Inc.

Dessler, G., (2004). Human Resource Management. Englewood Cliffs New Jersey: Pearson/ Prentice-Hall.

Floyd, S.W., and Wooldrigde, R., B., (1994).Dinosaurs or Dynamos.Middle Management Strategic Role.Academy of Management Executive 8(4)New York.

Geare, A. J., and Stablein, R., (1993). 'Human Resource Management in New Zealand: Profession and Practice'. AsiaPacific Journal of Human Resources, vol. 31, No. 2.

Ghana Living Standard Survey, (2000).Accra: Ghana Publishing Cooperation.

Gibson, J.L., Ivancevich J.M., and Donnelly J.H., (1991).OrganisationalBehaviour, Structure and Process,New York: Richard D. Irwin, Inc.

Gibson, J. L., Ivancevich J.M., and Donnelly J. H., (1982).OrganisationalBehaviour, Structure and Process,Plano, Texas:BusinessnPublications, Inc.

Greer, C., (1995). Strategy and Human Resources,New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Griffin, W. R., (1999).Management,New York: Houghton Mifflin Company.

- Guth, W.D., and Macmillan, I. C., (1986). Strategy Implementation versus Management Self-interest. Journal of Strategic Management. 36, 300-313.
- Hodgetts, R.M., (2002). Modern Human Relations at Work, New York: South-West Thomson Learning.
- Ivancevich, J. M., and Matteson, M. T., (2002). Organisational Behaviour and Management, New York: McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc.
- Johnson, E. K., (2000). The Practice of Human Resource Management in New Zealand: Strategic and Best Practice. Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources, Vol. 38, No. 2.
- Kalleberg, A.L., Karyn, A., Loscocco, C., (1983). Aging, values, and Rewards: Explaining Age Differences in Job Satisfaction, American Sociological Review. 48(1) U.S.A.
- Kumekpor, T. B. K., (2002). Research Methods and Techniques in Social Sciences, Accra: Sonlife Press.
- Locke, E.A., (1976). The Nature and Causes of Job Satisfaction A Handbook of Industrial and Organisational Psychology, Chicago: Rand McNally Press.
- Maciariello, J.A., and Kirby C.J., (1994). Management Control Systems. Using Adaptive Systems to Attain Control, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Maslow, A.H., (1954). Motivation and Personality, New York: Harper and Row.
- Mathis, R. L., and Jackson, J. H., (2004). Human Resource Management, Singapore: South-Western.
- McShane, S. L., (1992). Canadian Organisational Behaviour, New York: Richard D., Irwin, Inc.
- McShane, S. L., and von Glinow, M. N., (2000). Organisational Behaviour: Emerging Realities for the Workplace Revolution, Boston: Irwin McGraw-Hill.

Meyer, J.P., and Allen, N.J., (1997). Commitment in the Workplace: Theory, Research and Application, California: Sage Publications Inc.

Meyer, J.P., and Allen, N.J., (1997). Strategy Implementation Versus Management Self-Interest, Journal of Strategic Management. California: Sage Publications Inc.

Meyer, M., and Kirsten M., (2005). Introduction to Human Resource Management, Claremont: New Africa Books Ltd.

Mowday, R.T, Porter, L., and Steers, R. M., (1982). Effective Behaviour in Organisation. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Nelson, D.L., and Quick J.C., (2003). Organisation Behaviour Foundations, Realities and Challenges, New York: Thomson South-Western.

Noe, R. A., (2006). Human Resource Management. Gaining a Competitive Advantage, Boston: McGraw Hill.

Nukunya, G.K., (2002). Social Changes in Ghana, Accra: Ghana universities Press.

Obuasi Municipal Assembly Profile (www.google.com/en.wikipedia.org/wiki/obuasi). Accessed on 11th February, 2012

Pigors, P., and Myers C. A., (1985). Personnel Administration, U.S.A: McGraw-Hill Inc.

Poole, M., and Warner M., (2000). A Handbook on Human Resource Management Practice, Boston: International Thompson Business Press.

Porter, L., W., (1968). Management Attitude and Performance, Home Wood: Irwin, Inc.

Rasinder, N., James J. B., (1997). Hours of Work, Job Satisfaction as a Social Concern, Singapore: Academy of Managers.

Robbins, S. P., and Robbin, S. K., (1986). Management, Concepts and Practices, Scarborough-Ontario: Prentice-Hall Inc.

Schermerhorn, J.R., Hunt J.G., and Osborn, R.N., (1992). Managing Organisational Behaviour, Toronto: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.

Schuler R. S., and Huber, V.L., (1993). Personnel and Human Resource Management, St. Paul Minnesota: West Publishing Company.

Sekaran, U., (1989). Paths to the Job Satisfaction of Bank Employees, Malaysia, Journal of Organisational Behaviour: 10 (4): 347- 359.

Simon, H. A., (1960). The New Science of Management Decision, New York: Harper and Row.

Steers, R., M., (1991). Introduction to Organisational Behaviour, New York: Happer Collins Publishers.

Storey, J., (1995). Human Resource Management, A Critical Text, International Thomson Publishing Company.

Twumasi, P. A., (2001). Social Research in Rural Communities, Accra: Ghana Universities Press.

Umstot, D. D., (1984). Understanding Organisational Behaviour, Concepts and Application, Minnesota, U.S.A: West Publishing Company.

Veldsman, T., (1980). Human Resource Management: Retention of Managerial and Specialist Staff, Johannesburg South Africa: Penjournals Publishing.

Wagne, J.S., and Hollenbeck, J. R., (2002). Organisational Behaviour Securing Competitive Advantage, New York: Harcourt Inc.

www.ghanadistrict.com/districts. Accessed on 10th February, 2012.

www.google.com/districts. Accessed on 15th march, 2012.

Zaini, A., Nilufar, S., Syed S. A., (2007). The Effect of Human Resource Management Practice on Business Performance among Private Companies in Malaysia. Malaysia: International Journal of Business and Management. 4: 65-72.

APPENDIX A

**KWAME NKRUMAH UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND
TECHNOLOGY, KUMASI**

COLLEGE OF ART AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY AND SOCIAL WORK

MASTER'S THESIS

**REWARD SYSTEMS AND EMPLOYEES' BEHAVIOUR IN THE OBUASI
MUNICIPAL ASSEMBLY IN ASHANTI REGION, GHANA**

By

**BENJAMIN KWAME DONKOR (B.A HONS. SOCIOLOGY AND SOCIAL
WORK)**

SUPERVISORS:

DR. KOFI OSEI AKUOKO

MR. PETER DWUMAH

QUESTIONNAIRE

I am Benjamin Kwame Donkor, a postgraduate student of the Institute of Department of Sociology and Social Work, KNUST. I am conducting this research as part of preparation for a Masters Degree Programme. Your organisation has been chosen for a study for learning purposes and as such I would appreciate your voluntary cooperation to complete the questionnaire or allow me to interview you. Your responses will not be disclosed to any person. I do appreciate the least effort you make at enabling me complete my programme successfully.

IN CASE OF QUERIES AND FURTHER INFORMATION, PLEASE DO NOT
HESITATE TO CONTACT THE RESEARCHER 0242263918 OR
bengazy74@gmail.com

Thank you.

*Instruction: Please, tick (✓) appropriately in the boxes in each question and kindly
provide details the spaces provide where an explanation is needed necessary.*

**SECTION A: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF
RESPONDENTS**

1. Age of respondent

- (a) 18 – 28 [] (b) 29 – 39 [] (c) 40 - 49 [] (d) 50– 59 []

2. Sex

- (a) Male [] (b) Female []

3. Marital Status

- (a) Married [] (b) Single [] (c) Divorced [] (d) Widow []

5. Educational status

- (a) Primary school [] (b) Middle/JHS [] (c) Tertiary [] (d) None []

(e) Others (please specify).....

6. Number of years served in the organisation.

- (a) 0 – 5 [] (b) 6 – 10 [] (c) 11 – 15 [] (d) 16 – 20 [] (e) 20 and
above

SECTION B: TYPES OF INTRINSIC REWARDS AVAILABLE IN THE ORGANISATION

7. How many times have you participated in decision making in this organisation?

- (a) 1 – 3 [] (b) 4 - 7 [] (c) 8 – 11 [] (d) 12 and above [] (e) none

8. How often do you receive any praise or recognition when you are able to accomplish a task within this organisation?

- (a) Very often [] (b) often [] (c) not very often [] (d) not often [] (e) none []

9. How many times have you undergone an in-service, training or development programme in this organisation?

- (a) 1-3 [] (b) 4-7 [] (c) 8-11 [] (d) 12 and above [] (e) none

.....

10. Have you ever been allowed to take over all responsibility or decision of your duties before?

- (a) Yes [] (b) No []

SECTION C: TYPES OF EXTRINSIC REWARDS AVAILABLE IN THE ORGANISATION

11. Do you often receive salary at the end of every month?

- (a) Very often [] (b) often [] (c) not very often [] (d) not often []

12. Have you been promoted in this organisation before?

- (a) Yes [] (b) No

13. Which type of allowances do you receive most in this organisation?

- (a) Rent allowance [] (b) Medical allowance [] (c) Overtime allowance [] (d)
Car maintenance/ fuel allowance [] (e) None [] (f) Other Specify

.....

14. Which type of bonus do you often receive most in this organisation?

- (a) Performance bonus [] (b) Christmas bonus [] (c) None [] (d) Other Specify

.....

SECTION D: EFFECTS OF REWARDS ON EMPLOYEES BEHAVIOR

15. Do you often come to work earlier or in time?

- (a) Yes [] (b) No [] (c) somehow []

16. Do you think the rewards available within the organisation influence your decision in question 15?

(a) Yes [] (b) No [] (c) somehow []

17. How many times do you absent yourself from work in every one year?

(a) 1-2x [] (b) 3-4x [] (c) 5-6x [] (d) 7 and above [] (e) none

If you did not answered (f) then answer 18 but skip to 19 if you answered (e)

18. Would you agree to the view that your decision to absent yourself is influenced by the organisational rewards?

(a) Strongly agree [] (b) Agree [] (c) Disagree [] (d) Strongly disagree []

19. Would you agree to the view that your decision of not absentsing yourself from work is influenced by the organisational rewards?

(a) Strongly agree [] (b) Agree [] (c) Disagree [] (d) Strongly disagree []

20. Would you be willing to leave your current job (organisation) for another when the opportunity comes?

(a) Most willing [] (b) Willing [] (c) Somehow willing [] (d) Not willing

20. Which of the following reward factors within the organisation would influence your decision in question 20?

(a) Effective rewards [] (b) Ineffective rewards [] (c) Others specify

.....
.....

21. Would you like to spend the rest of your career with your current job?

(a) Yes [] (b) No

22. Please give reason(s) for your answer?

.....

23. Are many of your professional, vocational and domestic needs fulfilled by your current job?

(a) Yes [] (b) No

23b. Explain your answer please.....

.....
.....

SECTION E: EMPLOYEE SATISFACTION WITH REWARD SYSTEMS

24. Would you say rewards are generally satisfactory in this organisation?

(a) Very Dissatisfactory [] (b) Satisfactory [] (C) very satisfactory [] (d) neither of them []

25. How satisfied are you with rewards such as pay, bonuses, allowances and promotions?

- (a) Very satisfied [] (b) Satisfied [] (c) Very dissatisfied []
(d) dissatisfied [] (e) neither of them []

26. How satisfied are you with rewards such as recognition, training and autonomy?

- (a) Very satisfied [] (b) Satisfied [] (c) dissatisfied []
(d) Very dissatisfied

KNUST

