

**THE ECOLOGY OF NIGERIA'S PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND EMPLOYEE
MOTIVATION IN THE PLATEAU STATE CIVIL SERVICE (2004-2014).**

**UMOH, NANJI RIMDAN
215078173**

NOVEMBER, 2016.

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**UMOH, NANJI RIMDAN
215078173**

**Being a Research Thesis Submitted to the College of Humanities, School of Social
Sciences, University of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa, in fulfilment of the requirements
for the award of a Doctor of Philosophy Degree in Policy and Development Studies.**

SUPERVISOR: PROFESSOR BHEKITHEMBA R. MNGOMEZULU.

NOVEMBER, 2016.

DECLARATION

I, UMOH, NanjiRimdan declare that:

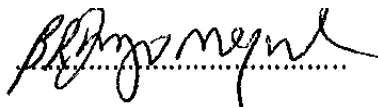
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215078173

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Prof. Bhekithemba Richard Mngomezulu
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CERTIFICATION

Prof. Bhekithemba R. Mngomezulu

Dissertation Supervisor

Date

Prof. Mahesh Naidu

Academic Leader, Research

Date

DEDICATION

To God Almighty, for His awesome goodness and His never-ending faithfulness.

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Indeed a tree cannot make a forest.

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ABSTRACT

From a general perspective, workers' motivation gained prominence with the abolition of the slave trade and the advent of the industrial revolution. The latter was to be anchored on legitimate trade as opposed to illegitimate trade that was characterised by the commodification of the people of African descent who were enslaved in the Americas and Europe. This new development led to the proposition of several theories by various Western scholars attempting to rationalize workers behaviour or misbehaviour in industrial settings. Thought processes alongside other factors are upheld as common denominators responsible for positively or negatively affecting workers morale, work ethic and productivity within the workplace. This is the belief and common practice across the globe. Within the broader context outlined above, the primary objective of this research was to examine the ecology of Nigeria's public administration to determine the possibility of its effect on employee motivation. To achieve this goal, the Plateau State civil service was investigated and raw data generated for analysis. While not disputing the validity of the existent content and process organizational motivation theories, this study specifically evaluated the extent to which the output of the Plateau State civil service staff was affected by factors extraneous to their immediate workplace environment and unaddressed by the theories. The research highlighted the influence of prevalent phenomena and diversities in the socio-cultural environments of a developing society like Nigeria that challenge the tenability of the major motivation theories in wholly explaining public sector workers motivation. It drew from the postulations of Riggs' fused-prismatic-diffracted model with focus on the non-administrative criteria present in the environments of most developing (prismatic) societies and from the primary notion of the contingency theorists that there is 'no one-best-way' in administration. These constituted the theoretical bases on which the re-evaluation of the motivation theories in the light of the

inherent characteristics of Nigeria's public administrative ecology was carried out. The research relied on data derived from primary and secondary data sources and analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (Version 20) and thematic content analysis respectively. The results show that Nigeria's ecology has an effect on employee motivation. Based on the findings of this research, target-oriented strategies for enhancing the Plateau State civil service employees' motivation and quality of work life were proffered. The dissertation report was concluded with suggestions for further research beyond the selected case study of Plateau State for clarity on the impact of a country's ecology on employee motivation.

Key Words: public administrative ecology, administrative criteria, non-administrative criteria, employee motivation, public sector efficiency.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Numerous Civil Service reforms undertaken over the years, from the pre-independence era to that done by the Obasanjo administration in the twenty-first century have not succeeded in providing the desired levels of administrative efficiency for Nigeria's bureaucracy which was created during the colonial era. Some reasons proffered for the failures of the bureaucracy to perform optimally despite the application of motivation tools include that it is a class and closed career service weighed down by bureaucratic red-tape and bedevilled by the substandard work ethos and habits of many Nigerian public sector workers. It is on this basis that the evaluation of the potency of the motivation theories in actually defining and describing employee motivation in Nigeria's public administration constitutes the basis of this research. In doing this, the research focused on the Plateau State Civil Service as a microcosm of the Nigerian civil service.

1.1 BACKGROUND AND OUTLINE OF RESEARCH PROBLEM

This is a study on the ecology of Nigeria's public administration and employee motivation in the Plateau State civil service over a ten-year period from 2004 to 2014. The ecology of any public administration usually encompasses the legal, social, political, economic, cultural, and other environments when broken down for analyses. Within developing societies, they are largely subsumed under the socio-cultural sphere because of the interaction and co-existence of the traditional and modern ways of doing things (Riggs, 1964; Mukoro, 2005).

It is imperative to note that the public sector of a developing nation like Nigeria carries more weight in terms of responsibility for developmental policies, projects, governance and the

delivery of socio-economic and political goods to her citizenry. This is different in the developed world where the reverse obtains with the predominance of individual ownership of the means and forces of production that invariably reduces the burden and direct responsibility of the government. The ecology of Nigeria's public administration therefore implies the environment within which the Nigerian public sector worker is expected to work and maximize his potential while in turn, boosting the productive/output quality of the Nigeria civil service. Employee motivation on the other hand implies the drives, needs, wants, impulses and motives that energize, direct and maintain behaviour and activities towards goals or rewards (Leonard et. al., 1999; Polinaidu, 2004).

The study examined the evolution of public administration in Nigeria in order to make sense of the current developments and how changes in the sector have impacted employee motivation in general and the Plateau civil service in particular. Apart from drawing from history to make sense of the current developments, the study also depended on empirical data to evaluate and recommend strategies for addressing Nigeria's social, economic and political problems in order to consolidate the progress of the country's public administration.

Indisputably Africa's most populous country, Nigeria, has an estimated population of over 172 million people (Mngomezulu, 2013). The diversity of the country is evidenced in its various ethno-linguistic groups which are estimated at around 500 in total (Gaadi, 2014; Otitie, 2015). The poverty and vices which pervade the society, polarization of the country between the North, South-West and South as well as the Muslim and Christian orientation (PBS Newshour, 2007; Pew Forum, 2011) make nation-building a mammoth task for the country's political leadership. Intermittent disturbances in the Niger Delta area – the hub of Nigeria's economic activity occasioned by oil reserves – make it difficult for Nigeria to live to her full potential.

Nigerian public administration has its origin in the administrative civil service machinery created by the British government during its colonial rule before Nigeria obtained political independence in October, 1960. Initially, it was created with the primary concern of the maintenance of law and order and the extraction of various natural resources from the country to satisfy the needs of the British industries (Abdulsalami, 1998). Overtime, it metamorphosed into a large scale organization with responsibilities for the promotion of national unity, nation-building and the economic, social and political development of the nation. In spite of these clearly articulated objectives and the intentions of their sponsoring regimes, the central issues of efficiency and effectiveness, administrative organization, work ethics, etc. have remained unresolved thereby deterring the nation's full capacity and potentials for development (Ikoiwak and Nze, 1989). Several reasons have been adduced for the state of affairs of Nigeria's public administration, one of which is the maladjustment of the bequeathed civil service model overtime to cope with the new goals and the burden caused by the ever increasing demands on the government despite numerous reforms (Ikoiwak and Nze, 1989).

Since independence, the civil service has metamorphosed into a large scale, complex organization. The functions and responsibilities of the civil service increased to accommodate various societal issues such as the attainment of independence with high expectations on the part of the citizens for accelerated improvement in the economic and social conditions of living. Today, it is the control motive in the task of nation building through the promotion of national unity and the economic, social and political development of the nation (Abdulsalami, 1998).

The cumulative view of many observers of the Nigerian Civil Service is that in spite of these objectives and the intentions of their sponsoring regimes, the central issues of efficiency and effectiveness, administrative organization, work ethics, workers attitudes, etc. have remained

largely unresolved thereby undermining its output and quality of services provided. As a result, several civil service/administrative reforms were undertaken from the pre-independence to the post-independence era to correct the structural and other flaws in the civil service/administrative apparatus. It is noteworthy that the terms, Civil Service reforms and Administrative reforms are used interchangeably and have the same meaning in administrative literature (Ikoiwak and Nze, 1989).

The institution of Civil Service reform measures in any administrative machinery presupposes the existence of some administrative deficiencies. Reforms focus on administrative and bureaucratic components perceived as inhibiting efficiency and effectiveness. They imply a package of policy measures with set goals to achieve (Adedeji, 1975). They connote a deliberate attempt to change the structure and procedure of the public bureaucracies involved in order to promote organizational effectiveness and attain national developmental goals (Quah, 1976). Abueva (1976) views administrative reform as, ‘a deliberate attempt to use power, authority and influence to change the goals, structure or procedure of the bureaucracy and therefore alter the behavior of its personnel’. Administrative reform is an effort to apply new ideas and combinations of ideas to an administrative system with a conscious view to improving the system for positive goals of national development (Hahn-Been Lee, 1970). Basically therefore, administrative reform is an integral part of the developmental process (Caiden, 1973) designed to give the bureaucracy administrative capability which is a ‘common denominator’ to all developmental efforts (Brown, 1964).

Civil Service reforms in Nigeria were undertaken to revamp the public administrative procedures and processes and make them more responsive to the desires of the polity for national growth and socio-economic development. They were first instituted in the pre-independence era

by the Tudor Davis Commission of 1945 which reviewed wages and general conditions of service. It was followed in 1946 by the Harragin Salaries Commission necessitated by problems of manpower and discontent among the European members of the Civil Service regarding financial rewards. The manpower shortage arose as an aftermath of the Second World War when many British citizens were recalled to Britain for post-war reconstructions thus creating gaps in the oversea Colonial Civil Service. Europeans who were left behind then pressed for better remuneration (Ikoiwak and Nze, 1989). The Commission recommended structural changes in terms of grading, salaries and other conditions of service in the four West African Colonial Civil Services. Posts categorized as 'European' and 'African' were changed to 'Senior Service' and 'Junior Service' respectively. Apart from other bonuses like car allowances and first class travel (Nicolson, 1969), the Europeans were also entitled to 'expatriation pay' which was seen by the Nigerians as a bold affront and an attempt to perpetuate discrimination against Nigerians whose country produced the money they were being denied. It further fueled the fires of open resentment towards the colonial bureaucracy (Azikiwe, 1948) especially as no serious thought was given to the Nigerianization of the upper cadres of the civil service (Perham, 1937).

In 1948, the Foot Commission was constituted by Sir John Stuart Macpherson, the Governor of Nigeria at the time. It was appointed to evaluate the situation on the training and recruitment of Nigerians into the Senior Civil Service. Apart from this, it recommended that no non-Nigerian should be recruited unless no suitably qualified Nigerian was available (Ezera, 1960; Blitz, 1965).

The Philipson-Adebo Commission was set up in 1954 basically to review the policy of "Nigerianization" of the Civil Service and the machinery for its implementation. However, the Commission's recommendations were overtaken by the 1954 constitutional changes which

established regions and four civil services (Federal, Eastern, Western and Northern) and downplayed the basis of the report which was namely the central and unitary nature of the Nigerian public service (Blitz, 1965). The Commission and its reports were eclipsed by the appointment of the Gorsuch Commission of 1954-55 which was to report to the federal and regional governments, on the structures and remunerations of the new civil services. It was the first attempt at giving the federal and regional administrative bureaucracies' indigenous structures as against the former structure dominated by overseas recruitment and staffing (Commission Reports, 1954-55). The Commission was also to provide a structure that would give middle management posts to the civil services as against the 'senior' and 'junior' divisions provided for by the Foot Commission Report of 1948. To this end, it strongly recommended the introduction of an Executive Class and a corresponding Technical class within the civil service structure (Akingbade, 1972).

The Gorsuch structure failed to recommend a level or more in-between the Administrative and Superscale grades as was obtainable in the British Civil Service. It led to situations in which fresh graduates recruited into the Civil Service in the Administrative grade found themselves on their first promotion, in the superscale posts. As a result, some of the civil servants in the superscale cadre were half-baked, earning salaries that were not commensurate with their productivity in the service. Meanwhile, tensions were rising from the specialist ranks in which training took many years yet promotion prospects were slow (Ikoiwak and Nze, 1989). The Commission is credited with enhancing organization in the Nigerian Civil Service by emphasizing the importance of management training and clarity in the division of functions as between the Public Service Commissions and the Establishment Divisions (Commission Reports, 1959).

The Mbanefo Commission of 1959 was essentially a salaries and wages review body for the Federal, the Northern and Eastern regions and the Cameroons. The Morgan Commission also constituted in 1959 took care of salary and wages adjustments in the Western region (Ikoiwak and Nze, 1989). The terms of reference for the Commission did not include the structure and remuneration of the Public Service but its report included pointers to the presence of anomalies in the grading of certain posts in the Public Service. It maintained that established staff in identical classes should be treated the same way based on a unified salary scale throughout the country without differentiation between the areas, regions and federal levels as had been upheld by previous salary review commissions (Commission Reports, 1959).

Most of the pre-independence civil service reforms, with the exception of the Morgan Commission on the Public Service of the Western Region, were national in character and this trend was maintained in the post-independence era (Akingbade, 1972). Like the pre-independence reforms, the post-independence reforms did not leave out adjustments in salaries and wages. They began in 1963 with the Morgan Salaries and Wages Commission. The setting up of the Commission was preceded by a general demand for increase in wages and salaries as well as for grading though grading was not included in its terms of reference. As with the Mbanefo and Morgan Commissions of 1959, the Commission recommended the unification of conditions of service and remunerations for officials performing the same duties in their regions as their colleagues in other parts of the federation (Commission Reports, 1963). The recommendation was noted and accepted by the government though those pertaining to a minimum living wage and an increase in wages and salaries were turned down because of variations in employers' ability to pay.

The Simeon O. Adebo-led Wages and Salaries Commission of 1970 was necessitated by the public outcry against the rise in the cost of living occasioned by the 1964 awards to workers by the Grading Team (Commission Reports [First], 1970). The Commission's recommendations included the award of interim salary and wage increases to workers with the private sector encouraged to make similar adjustments to its workers in comparable circumstances (Commission Reports [First], 1970). In its second and final report, the Commission decried the failure of the government to implement some of the measures it recommended in the First Report to improve the food supply situation. This time around, the report included issues bordering on wages and salaries of workers in both sectors of the economy, the rationalization and harmonization with the private sector, enhancing the adequacy of the Civil Service, national productivity and stability, price and income policy, industrial relations in the country, and future machinery for reviews.

The Public Service Review Commission chaired by Chief J. O. Udoji was set up in September, 1972. The rationale behind it was the quest for means of ensuring the development and optimum utilization of manpower to increase the efficiency and effectiveness of the Public Services in meeting the demands of a development-oriented society (Commission Reports, 1974). There were eight task forces (Civil Service, Parastatals, Local Government Service, Teaching Service, Universities, Salaries and Gradings, Pensions, Manpower Planning and Manpower Development) appointed on specialized areas. Its Terms of Reference included examining the organization, structure and management of the Public Service, investigating and evaluating the methods of recruitment, conditions of employment and staff development programmes of the public service. They were to examine all legislation relating to pensions and superannuation schemes in the Public Service and private sector to facilitate mobility within the

Public Services and between the Services and the private sector. Also, they were to undertake the regrading of all posts in the Public Service to establish scales of salaries that correspond and apply to such grades and posts (Commission Reports, 1972-1974; Ikoiwak and Nze, 1989). The reforms were affected by variables like the attitude of some top level bureaucrats, the absence of high level political support, inadequate organizational arrangements for implementation, general apathy within the reform environment and the indifference of the polity. However, it is noted for being comprehensive (March et al, 1983) and placing the Public Service within its environmental and cultural settings due to factors within these settings that impinge on the efficiency and effectiveness of the civil service. Despite the recommendation of several management techniques and innovations in policy analysis, implementation centred on two main areas- salaries and training and development (Ikoiwak and Nze, 1989).

In 1985, the Federal Military Government under Muhammadu Buhari constituted a study group led by Dotun Phillips to assess the effectiveness of the Federal Civil Service leading to the reduction of personnel along with desirable organizational changes (Phillips, 1991; Olowu et al, 1991; Olaopa 2012). The report of the group was submitted in September, 1985 during the Ibrahim Babangida regime that came to power in August of the same year. The group's report was further reworked into a white paper by the Koshoni Committee, a presidential task force set up for the purpose. This informed the promulgation of the April 1988 implementation guidelines on the civil service reforms under Decree 43 of 1988.

The main elements of the reforms included that Ministers (no longer Permanent Secretaries) were to be the Chief Executives and Accounting Officers of their respective ministries; Permanent Secretaries, now Directors-General, enjoyed tenures similar to those of ministers whose time in office coincided with that of their appointing administration. The Civil

Service was 'professionalized' such that the deployment and utilization of staff was based on their profession or specialization with the condition that they spend their entire career in one ministry as a means of boosting their expertise. Ministries employed, promoted and disciplined their staff in accordance with the uniform guidelines provided by the Civil Service Commission. Also, the office of the Head of the Civil Service was abolished and its function shared between the Secretary to the Federal Government and the Civil Service Commission (Olaopa, 2012).

The reform, seen as comprehensive as the 1974 reform before it, was criticized for assuming that professionalism can derive primarily from the location of an officer within the service rather than from measures like the presence of a regulated scientific body of knowledge imparted over a fairly lengthy period of training. It was also criticized for the politicization of the position of the Permanent Secretary that led to an increase in the turnover rate of strong officers in whom a lot of training investments had been made. This eroded professionalism through skills depletion, without a commensurate policy on training and human capital investment to make up for it. Furthermore, the decentralization of personnel management to line ministries led to arbitrariness in the exercise of delegated authority and an influx of personnel that distorted the structure and skill mix (Olaopa, 2012).

The Ayida Review Committee of 1994 set up by the Abacha regime was to address the gaps in the 1988 reform that had hindered its capacity to bring about the required change, efficiency, professionalism and accountability within the administrative system. It was also to address the negativity arising from low morale problems and abolish the post of Head of Civil Service. The key recommendations of the Panel include the abrogation of Decree No. 43 of 1988 and reverting the Civil Service to one guided by relevant provisions of the constitution, the civil service rules, the financial regulation and the restoration of Permanent Secretaries as Accounting

Officers. Also, their positions and that of the Head of the Civil Service were restored as career positions rather than political appointments. The post of the Secretary to the Government remained a political appointment while the ministries were structured according to workload and responsibilities rather than uniformly.

The Ayida Reform did not take benefit of the new thinking on public sector management reforms that were a global phenomenon. It mainly succeeded in bringing back the new non-professionally-oriented generation of civil servants already infected by the deep systemic crisis of a collapsed education system and an undemocratic military tradition. This led to a gradual breakdown of institutions and the virtual collapse of the system's responsive capacity to the challenges of the speedy recovery and growth of the economy (Olaopa, 2012).

On the return to civilian rule in 1999, President Olusegun Obasanjo in his inaugural address highlighted the crises in public sector management and the deterioration in the quality of governance that had been induced and sustained by prolonged military rule. The crises encompassed inefficiency in the delivery of social services, insensitivity to general welfare, disregard for the codes of conduct for public officials and endemic corruption which had resulted in a weakening of public institutions, distrust of the government by the citizens, collapse of infrastructure and a sense of despair among the populace (Olaopa, 2012). It was against this backdrop that the Obasanjo administration undertook another reform of the civil service in 2004 (The Obasanjo Reforms, 2004). The focus of the reform was on staff training, an upward review of the minimum wage and the introduction of Pension Fund Administrators (PFAs) to handle the retirement plans of government workers. The goal of establishing the pension fund administration scheme was to ensure that pensioners no longer experience the administrative

hiccups that result in delays, denials or the forfeiture of their retirement packages as has been the case. The fringe benefits of employees were also monetized (The Obasanjo Reforms, 2004).

In a nutshell, it is safe to adduce that the Civil Service/Administrative reforms have not succeeded in achieving most of the objectives for which they were instituted perhaps because they have not considered factors like the non-administrative criteria present within the workers environment with the capacity to motivate them. The much that has been done to enhance efficiency has been usually remuneration-based revolving around increases in salaries, bonuses and earned allowances, etc. Otherwise, focus has been on the structure, grading and functions of the personnel in various cadres. Omale (1998) notes that apart from the 1972-74 Commission headed by J. O. Udoji, all the other commissions were directed at fragmented changes either in subject matter or governmental jurisdictions covered.

Riggs (1964) asserted that administrative reforms fail in developing countries because of the thoughtless application of the conventional approach to the administrative situations of developing countries. The conventional approach makes assumptions on administration and patterns of interdependence between administration and the society that hold good to a large extent as long as the developed countries are concerned. Unfortunately, the foreign experts and governments of developing countries are erroneous in expecting the assumptions to hold true for the developing countries whose politics and administrative processes are in dire need of reformation (Ahmad, 1970). He also noted that most administrative reforms introduced from time to time under the aegis of these foreign or foreign-oriented experts fail to achieve their objectives largely because these reforms in one sector sometimes lead to unanticipated consequences in other sectors of the society in the developing countries.

Ahmad (1970) pinned the trend to the inadequacy of foreign models on which most of the reforms are based, to comprehend the social system of the developing countries. Consequently, even when they are logical and effective in the developed countries, they are ineffective and disruptive and lead to anomalies and lags in the developing countries. At times, the reaction of participants from developing countries to training programmes based mostly on foreign templates and formal laws is that of confusion, annoyance and frustration. Many times these courses fail to describe accurately what they see in practice daily thereby making the training content appear empty and formulistic to trainees. Virtually all attempts at administrative development reforms focus on the public servants and on providing legalistic, administrative solutions to administrative pathologies to the neglect of the roles of the closely related non-administrative aspects. The non-administrative factors include the development and strengthening of political parties, the press, public education and other social, cultural and psychological perspectives (Ahmad, 1970) inherent in the socio-economic and political stability of the developing countries.

These analyses are reflective of the content, trend and series of administrative reforms that have been implemented to revamp the Nigeria civil service. On this basis the period between 2004 and 2014, adopted for the study provided a tangible time frame for the researcher to evaluate the performance of workers in the face of the new reforms which allowed for the implementation of higher pay and the introduction of the pension fund administrators as motivation for higher output. Further, it allowed for an assessment of the extent to which the motivation of the Plateau State civil service employees is either determined by the motivators postulated by the content and process motivation theorists or influenced by the factors within the ecology of Nigeria's public administration. It is noteworthy that in spite of the divergent views

that capture motivation as a function of different factors and situations, not much light has been shed on the influence of the socio-cultural environmental contingency factors (Riggs' non-administrative criteria) on employee motivation.

Plateau State is one of Nigeria's thirty-six states. It is divided into seventeen local government areas inhabited by about forty (40) linguistic groups spread across fifty-two (52) ethnic groups (Abari, 2011). The area is a tourist delight with beautiful topography and is one of Nigeria's solid mineral (tin, tantalite, etc.) producing areas. Geographically, it is located in the North-Central (Middle-Belt) region of the country (Blench, 2003). In the last two decades, Plateau state has been in the news as the theatre of one ethno-religious crisis or the other, with conflagrations fuelled by tussles over land, traditional stools and political positions. These were followed by the activities of insurgent groups like Boko Haram in the North-East and North-Central such as the consistent genocidal attacks in communities and suicide bomb attacks in churches, mosques, markets, banks and other public places (Zenn, 2011; Johnson, 2011; Umoh 2013). Most recently, the predominantly nocturnal onslaught by Fulani herdsmen against communities in the hinterlands of Plateau state have added to Nigeria's social, economic and political ills, constituting important features that have come to embody the country's identity on the global scene.

The topic of this study is conceived against this backdrop, influenced by all the outlined issues. It focuses on the Plateau State Civil Service as a microcosm of Nigeria's public administration. This is because the practice of federalism in Nigeria is largely centralized and so most of the major, far-reaching policy outputs implemented in the states are normally determined and designed at the centre (Osisu, 2015). On this basis, it is expected that the outcome of the research will be generally applicable to the processes being designed to boost the productivity

levels in the Nigerian civil service as a whole, especially given that what is decided at the centre finds its way to the periphery i.e. the states.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The failures of the Nigerian bureaucracy to achieve her full potential for spearheading socio-economic growth and national development despite the duplication of functions, the proliferation of government agencies that carry out related responsibilities and numerous administrative strategies and reforms implemented for the purpose, are indices that make this evaluation of the ecology of Nigeria's public administration imperative. It is intended to highlight inherent factors external to the immediate work environment of the average Nigerian public sector worker capable of affecting his productive capacity. The Western-oriented content and process organizational motivation theories suggest motivators like training, higher pay, increased rewards and incentives, prospects of career progression, enhanced group and interpersonal relations, punishments, etc., but the application of these tools has not yielded the desired outcomes. The theories focus on the individual in his immediate work environment and do not take cognizance of the factors which Riggs (1961) defined as non-administrative criteria existent within the public administrative ecologies of a developing country like Nigeria. These criteria are not administrative in character and include unofficial considerations that may be economic, social, political, cultural, and so on or may overlap. They are factors with the capacity to impose particularistic obligations on the public administrators and interfere with goal attainment by diverting officials from the use of their labour to accomplish organizational policies or goals (Riggs, 1961). This research therefore identifies a gap in the motivation theories. With a focus on the Plateau state civil service, one of the 37 civil services (36 states and 1 in the FCT) in the

Nigerian federation, it questions the extent to which the theories are apt in capturing the factors that actually motivate Nigeria's public sector workers in the light of the peculiarities of the ecology of her public administration.

1.3 OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

The main objective of the research was to evaluate the ecology of Nigeria's public administration in order to establish a possible relationship between its socio-cultural environment (with its inherent non-administrative criteria) and employee motivation in the Plateau State civil service which is a microcosm of the Nigeria civil service. To do this, it also assessed the potency of the postulations of the content and process motivation theories in engendering employee motivation and performance. Deriving from this main objective were the following specific objectives:

- i. To determine the suitability of the motivators suggested by the content and process motivation theories for engendering employee performance in the Plateau State Civil Service;
- ii. To establish a probable influence of non-administrative criteria within Nigeria's public administrative ecology, inadequately captured by the Western-oriented organizational motivation theories and the series of administrative reforms, on employee motivation;
- iii. To recommend reform strategies for enhancing workers' commitment and performance that derive from an evaluation of factors extraneous to the individual and the immediate workplace environment but with a capacity to influence output quality.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following research questions guided the study:

- i. Are the motivators postulated by the major organizational motivation theories well-suited for enhancing performance among the employees of the Plateau state civil service?
- ii. Is there a probable influence of the non-administrative criteria within Nigeria's public administrative ecology, inadequately captured by the Western-oriented organizational motivation theories and the series of administrative reforms, on employee motivation?
- iii. Will check-mating and incorporating these factors extraneous to the individual and the immediate-work-environment but inherent in the workers socio-cultural environments in the administrative reform strategies significantly influence their output quality?

1.5 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES/BROADER ISSUES TO BE INVESTIGATED

The main assumption of the research is that:

Non-administrative criteria unidentified by the Western-oriented content and process organizational motivation theories but present in Nigeria's public administrative ecology significantly affect employee work ethics, motivation and performance in the Plateau state civil service.

The position of the research is that gaps in the motivation theories arise because the non-administrative criteria exist externally and extraneous to the employees and their immediate

workplace environment. Based on this assumption, the following hypotheses were put forward for investigation:

- i. The content and process organizational motivation theories adequately explain workers motivation in the Plateau State Civil Service;
- ii. Non-administrative criteria in the socio-cultural environment of Nigeria's public administration and extraneous to the immediate work environment of the Plateau State civil servants significantly affect their work ethics and performance;
- iii. The ethno-religious crises, Boko Haram insurgency and the activities of marauding Fulani herdsmen in Plateau state in recent years have significantly affected output quality in the state civil service; and
- iv. The administrative reforms will be more potent and strategic in engendering bureaucratic efficiency and effectiveness and influencing output quality in the Plateau State Civil Service if they take cognizance of the non-administrative criteria present in the workers socio-cultural environment.

1.6 JUSTIFICATION FOR THE STUDY

The study is significant because it evaluates the possible influence wielded by the ecology of Nigeria's public administration on the productive capacity of the average Nigerian public sector worker. It was intended to highlight inherent factors in the outside-work-environment external to the immediate-work-environment that may contribute in one way or the other to undermining productivity in Nigeria's public administrative bureaucracy. This became imperative in the face of the failures of the Nigerian bureaucracy to achieve her full potential for spearheading socio-economic growth and national development despite numerous administrative policies and

reforms implemented for the purpose. The study is justified by the following reasons which constitute the importance of the outcome of the study:

- i. By evaluating the role of factors within the socio-cultural environment of the Plateau State Civil Service in either inhibiting or enhancing employee motivation and performance, the study brings to the fore, the potency of factors within the average worker's environment in influencing his psyche, relationships and productivity at any level;
- ii. For policy makers, it redirects the focus of and contributes to the content of administrative reforms and employee motivation strategies;
- iii. For the academia and the intelligentsia, it encourages the development of indigenous content and home-grown strategies through new vistas of research into the applicability of many Western-determined 'best practices' to developing countries like Nigeria since it assesses the potency of the postulations of the content and process motivation theories in employee motivation;
- iv. Based on the findings, it proffers recommendations on how best to improve employee output by checkmating bottlenecks that frustrate productivity in the Plateau State Civil Service;
- v. Finally, the study provides a basis for further research and constitutes reference material for research in related areas.

1.7 SCOPE OF STUDY

The study was restricted in scope to the assessment of the non-administrative criteria prevalent within the socio-cultural environment of Nigeria's public administration and the influence they

have on the motivation and performance of employees of the Plateau State Civil Service. It evaluated the content and process organizational motivation theories to determine the extent to which they capture the factors that encourage or discourage the output of the employees as per the achievement of stated objectives. The motivational tools they proffer were assessed to determine their applicability to workers motivation in the Plateau State Civil Service. The research is distinguishable from one based on motivation theories. Its focus is on the possibility that the workers low productivity levels or non-performance may actually result from gaps presented by the failure of the content and process motivation theories to capture certain factors extraneous to the immediate-work-environment but with the capacity to influence workers motivation and performance.

The study covers the period between 2004 and 2014. This period provided a tangible time frame for the researcher to evaluate the performance of workers in the face of the implementation of a new minimum wage regime that implied higher pay, and the introduction of the pension fund administrators as motivation for higher output. The aspect of training and other personnel development strategies as performance enhancers were also assessed to determine their strengths as motivators that encourage performance in terms of boosting staff quality and output and whether these engender staff confidence in the commitment of the civil service to their growth and development.

The time frame also spans the period of the second tenure and the two terms of two governors of Plateau state in Nigeria's fourth republic, namely Joshua Dariye (1999-2007) and Jonah David Jang (2007-2014) respectively. Furthermore, Dariye hails from the southern senatorial zone of Plateau state and it was during his tenure that one of the deadliest ethno-religious conflicts recorded in the history of Jos, Plateau state, occurred in 2001. The aftermath of

the crises and the ensuing palpable tensions in the face of the high volatility level and proneness to crises, led to the declaration of a state of emergency in the state by the federal government under President Obasanjo. Sequel to this, the state was placed under an administrator (Major General Chris Alli [Rtd]) for a while before he (Dariye) was reinstated as governor when calm returned to the state. Jonah Jang of Berom ethnic descent took over in 2007. Before long, he was accused of pursuing the Berom agenda, nepotism, etc. with a glaring disregard for ensuring the socio-economic and political inclusion of virtually all the other tribes in the state. This also led to tensions that engulfed the state in incessant political crises, further heightened by the Boko Haram insurgent attacks within the metropolis and the nocturnal attacks by Fulani herdsmen in the hinterland.

1.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The research was encumbered by certain factors which can be summarized as including a paucity of funds which delayed the data collection and analyses processes. Also, secondary data relating to socio-cultural motivation were insufficient while some information relating to the Plateau state civil service could not be divulged as they were regarded as classified. The study had to rely on the data collected from the primary sources in the course of the research. Furthermore, during the primary data collection process, the junior cadre staff on Grade Levels 1 – 5 could not be incorporated as a result of a general apathy largely arising from their inability to fully grasp the context of the research. This position persisted despite the acquisition of the services of an interpreter to explain the interview and questionnaire schedules to them in the generally spoken Hausa language.

1.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

The entire research was guided by the University of KwaZulu-Natal code of ethics which upholds the doctrines of honesty, integrity, safety, responsibility, equity and fairness for research participants. At every point of the research, efforts were made to ensure that the rights and comfort of the participants were never compromised.

1.10 OPERATIONALISATION OF CONCEPTS

Socio-Cultural Environment: In a social system, the environment generally comprises institutions, history, law, ethics, philosophy, religion, education, traditions, beliefs, values, symbols, myths, and so on which may be described as material or non-material culture (Sharma et al, 2011). These are capable of forming, shaping, or placing boundaries (Peters, 1984) on developments and sub-systems that enter into transactions with the environment, with the aim of influencing or being influenced by them (Riggs, 1979). Public Administration is far-reaching in scope and must always take into consideration, the culture within the environment it is expected to serve since culture is a way of life. The content of culture as explained by Sharma et al (2011) provides justification for the views of Peter (1984) and Riggs (1979) on its ability to shape, influence or define the structure and content of public administration. This premise contributes to the thrust of this research. It is geared towards developing a springboard for improving the target-specificity and orientation of employee motivation strategies, policies and programs implemented in the course of administration particularly in developing countries.

Non-Administrative Criteria: ‘Non-administrative’ implies that the phenomena in question are not administrative in character. They include the unofficial considerations that may be economic, social, political, cultural, and so on or that may overlap. They are those factors with the capacity

to impose particularistic obligations on the public administrators and interfere with goal attainment by diverting officials from the use of their labour to accomplish an organization's presumed policies or goals (Riggs, 1961). This definition is broad-based and suffices in capturing the factors inherent in the socio-cultural environment of public administration that were evaluated in this research. In essence, these non-administrative criteria as implied are those distractions with far reaching consequences especially in the context of administration that may influence employee motivation in the Plateau State Civil Service.

Immediate-Work-Environment: It is the public workplace or the changing environment in which public servants work. It takes on new shapes affected by diverse cultural and organizational views on leadership and authority as against the established more traditional views of organizing that have always characterized public bureaucracies (Denhardt and Denhardt, 2009). Deriving from this view, the immediate-work-environment in this instance denotes the instant vicinity including the offices of the Plateau State Civil Service within which the employees carry out their public administrative duties guided by the predetermined formal and legal procedures, policies and structures which dictate and bind their conduct.

Motivation: It refers to motives in an action. It is that which promotes action, initiates movement or guides behaviour. Motives encompass the needs, wants, drives or impulses within the individual that arouse, direct and maintain his behaviour and activity toward a goal or reward. Motivation signifies the willingness of a person to do a job or task and the direction, strength and persistence of the individual's behaviour at work. It is usually motivated by two types of factors: the intrinsic forces within the human being and the external stimuli which are perceived by the human beings as incentives, rewards or goals to be pursued (Polinaidu, 2004). This research focuses on the factors to which the employees respond that have the capacity to

elicit a corresponding commitment or apathy to the work or job content. As explained within the definition, they may be intrinsic or extrinsic. The research however was geared toward the assessment of the factors external to the work environment which also drive employees' behaviour and willingness to carry out tasks.

Civil Service: This is the branch of governmental service in which individuals are hired on the basis of professional merit as proven by competitive examinations. It is the body of employees in any government agency other than the military. It is the instrumentality through which the political office holders or elected representatives of the people exercise their powers and carry out their duty of law implementation (Obi and Obikeze, 2000). Adamolekun (1983) described the civil service as, 'the body of permanent officials appointed to assist the political executive in formulating and implementing governmental policies' and as referring to, 'the ministries and departments within which specific aspects of government are carried out'. Section 318 of the Nigerian Constitution defines the civil service of the Federation as, 'Service of the Federation in a civil capacity as staff of the Office of the President, the Vice-President, ministry or department of the Government of the Federation assigned with the responsibility for any business of the Government of the Federation'. Civil Service is basically, a term used to cover those directly employed by the state and federal governments. Adamolekun's (1983) view on the Civil Service as having specific responsibilities that cover the execution of developmental policies and programs is workable for the research. The Civil Service assists the executive by ensuring policy continuity, the fulfilment of the obligations of the government to its citizenry and the economic growth of the nation.

Civil Service/Administrative Reforms: These are efficiency measures introduced to enhance public management performance. They entail a change in operating policies and programmes to

enhance professionalism, improve administrative effectiveness, performance, qualification, job satisfaction and welfare of personnel and are a response to criticisms (real and anticipated) and or threats from the environment (Mosher, 1965; Okoli and Onah, 2002). To reform is to amend or make changes to a phenomenon to ensure that it performs according to expectations. Civil service/administrative reforms result from the assessment of inherent flaws, procedural gaps, output levels, performance inhibitors, etc. They are therefore, intentional efforts made and actions taken to realign and reposition the civil service. They ensure optimum performance especially with reference to national goals and objectives that emanate from the policy makers, the environment and the polity.

Performance: This entails the accomplishment of a given task measured against pre-set known standards of accuracy, completeness, cost and speed. In a contract, performance is deemed to be the fulfilment of an obligation in a manner that releases the performer from all liabilities under the contract. Performance entails evaluating the behaviour of employees in the work-spot including the qualitative and quantitative aspects of job performance (Carrell and Kuzmits, 1982). It refers to the degree of accomplishment of the tasks that make up an individual's job and is an indicator of how well the individual is fulfilling the job demands. Performance is always measured in terms of results (Rao and Rao, 1997). As described by Rao and Rao (1997), performance centres on results. These results whether quantifiable or unquantifiable relate the quality of input to the processes and procedures being evaluated. It also entails the achievement of the best possible maximum utility or output with minimally inputted efforts of man and material in the face of lean resource bases.

1.11 OUTLINE/ORGANIZATION OF STUDY:

The study is comprised of seven chapters which are organized as follows:

Chapter one provided the introduction, the background to the study, problem statement, research objectives, questions and hypotheses are discussed. The chapter also covered the scope, justification and organization of the study including the operationalisation of the concepts in relation to the study.

Chapter two covered the theoretical framework in which the two main theories that constitute the bane of the research were discussed. The postulations of Riggs' Fused-Prismatic-Diffracted model and the contingency theory have provided a basis for the examination of factors that are likely to exist within the environment of organizations with the capacity to affect their functions especially where the organizations are in ecologies undergoing social transformation processes.

Chapter three is the literature review. It provided an in-depth overview of various literature related to all the variables of the study and also serves as a source of secondary data for the research. The research draws from them to, as much as possible, give an insight into the extent of research that has been carried out on the subject matter. It exposes the gaps in the previous studies and further broadens the scope of research on the variables of the study by indicating how the identified gaps are filled by the present study.

Chapter four covered the methodology of the study. Here, the research design is clearly enunciated. The area and the population of the study are described and the sample of the study, clearly identified. The method of deriving a sample size and the sampling procedures are discussed in detail. The data collection instruments utilized for the survey are mainly the questionnaire and interview schedules. These were also elaborated upon and the justification for

their inclusion in the study, provided. Also, the formulae for analysing the data collected in order to determine possible correlations between the variables were highlighted in this chapter.

The data presentation and analyses are contained in **Chapter five**. The data presented in this chapter were collected via questionnaires administered to three hundred and ninety (390) respondents and interviews that were conducted with twenty-one respondents, some of whom indicated that they had also filled the questionnaire. These were analysed and presented to reduce the bulk of the data and make for easy handling and documentation of the research findings.

The findings of the research are discussed in **Chapter six** with the view to making sense of them in line with the research objectives and research questions presented in chapter one. In answering the research questions, the discussion enabled a clarification of the relationships, if any, between the two variables under study based on the tests of the hypotheses. By extrapolating on the possibility of an influence of the ecology of Nigeria's public administration on public sector employee motivation with particular focus on Plateau state, the objectives of the research were met and the research questions answered.

Chapter seven wrapped up the research by providing a holistic summary. It included the conclusions drawn and recommendations that chart a course for boosting the quality of Nigeria's public administrative ecology and public sector employee motivation that is based on the findings derived from data collected. It is in this chapter that the contribution of the present study to existing knowledge is made more explicit.

1.12 CHAPTER SUMMARY:

As alluded to in the chapter breakdown, the next chapter (chapter two) will discuss the theoretical framework on which the current study is grounded.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.0 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter was an entry point into the research, sensitizing the reader on the main focus and thrust of the research. It covered the background to the study where the major highlights that give verve to the reasons for and purpose of the research were discussed. Other major aspects of chapter one were also expatiated including the statement of the problem as per the inability of the Nigerian civil service to perform its designated functions despite the numerous administrative reforms. The main objective of the study was highlighted as the evaluation of the role played by the ecology of Nigeria's public administration in employee motivation. The research questions, hypotheses, the significance and scope of the study were also highlighted and briefly discussed. Finally, the basic concepts relevant to the research were defined in the context in which they relate to the study.

This chapter highlights the theories and models on which the substance of the research is constructed. At times, in social research, the terms, 'model' and 'theory' are used to denote a construct for explaining phenomena or as a pivot on which future findings may be based and generalizations made. Cohen et al (2007) posit that models are often characterized by the use of analogies to bring clarity to graphic and visual representations of a particular phenomenon and like theories, may be seen as an explanatory device or scheme with a broad conceptual framework. The theoretical framework is therefore an insight into the core of a research as it provides a basis for steering the other components like the research questions, hypotheses, etc. toward the determination of a possible correlation between the variables integral to the study. In a study such as this that combines both quantitative and qualitative research methods, theories

also serve as lenses or perspectives that guide a study towards the salient issues to be evaluated, the population to be examined, the role of the researcher and the procedures for the presentation of the findings (Creswell, 2003).

The theoretical bases of the study were discussed in the context of the independent and dependent variables of the research which are the ecology of Nigeria's public administration and employee motivation, and areas of concomitance or disparity in relation to the study were highlighted.

2.1 THEORETICAL UNDERPINNINGS OF THE STUDY

The study adopted a mixed method involving both qualitative and quantitative approaches. For Creswell (2003), theories in quantitative studies are used deductively and advanced at the beginning of the plan for a study, data collected to test them and then they are confirmed or rejected by the findings thereby determining the relevance of the theories as a framework for an entire study. In qualitative research, they are used either as lenses or perspectives to guide a study or to provide explanations for behaviour and attitude based on variables, constructs and hypotheses (Creswell, 2003). Sometimes also, a theory may be utilized in a study with the objective of testing or verifying it rather than for developing it (Sichalwe, 2010). All these characteristics underlying the considerations in determining the theoretical underpinnings of a study, apply to this research since it combines both quantitative and qualitative perspectives.

For this study, Riggs' Fused-Prismatic-Diffracted model and the contingency theory were chosen to provide guidance to and orient the course of the research. This is because their postulations to an appreciable extent are relevant in evaluating observed trends in the Nigerian public administrative ecology that may resonate in the low levels of productive output of the

Plateau State civil service workers. The research addressed among others, three questions reflecting the variables of the research thus: Are the motivators postulated by the major organizational motivation theories well-suited for enhancing performance among the employees of the Plateau state civil service?; Is there a probable influence of the non-administrative criteria within Nigeria's public administrative environment, inadequately captured by the Western-oriented organizational motivation theories and the series of administrative reforms, on employee motivation?; Will checkmating these factors extraneous to the individual and the immediate workplace environment but inherent in the workers socio-cultural environments significantly influence their output quality? Some critiques of the theories will also be discussed in demonstration of the depth of scholarship on the subject matter.

2.1.1 Riggs' Fused-Prismatic-Refracted/Diffracted Model

Before Riggs developed this model, he had constructed two models of society, '*Agraria*' and '*Industria*', both representing predominantly agricultural and industrial societies like Contemporary America and Imperial China respectively. Subsequently, he developed the third category, the '*Transitia*', representing the middle of the two extreme societies (Sharma et al, 2011). With the development of the Fused-Prismatic-Diffracted model in which he categorized society into three types, Riggs proscribed the '*Agraria-Transitia-Industria*' model.

Riggs (1961) described the fused society as characterized by archaic political structures and indistinct and non-formal power. The elite within the society are a '*clect*' (holders of all types of influence, wealth, prestige, righteousness, etc.) rather than a group of rulers. Policies are not consciously established and are not chosen or implemented based on clearly defined patterns. The political and administrative structures within this society do not perform clearly delineated

functions. Rather, they are chiefly ‘chambers’ that focus on the maintenance of order. To Riggs, the administrative acts of officials could be arbitrary in the sense that sometimes they go unchecked, unrestricted by laws and public opinion thereby resulting in non-effective decisions that have minimal direct impact on the population. The political system is neither democratic nor autocratic and it does not regiment the lives of the people because the rulers are not subject to popular control. He described it as highly particularistic and ‘ascriptive’ in the sense that the system of recruitment into the public service is reliant on the individual’s parentage, race, religion or other criteria of identity than on merit or the capacity to carry out the stipulated tasks.

The prismatic society for Riggs (1961) is a social system that stands midway between the fused and diffracted models and combines the traits of both societies. It is characterized by an administrative sub-system which is described by Riggs as “*Sala*” and interacts with certain key elements of the social structures existent within it. The prismatic society has three basic features which may vary depending on the prismatic societies in question. These are delineated below:

- i. **Heterogeneity:** Riggs (1961) opined that while the fused and refracted/diffracted societies and administrative systems are relatively homogenous, the prismatic society consists both of urban areas with a sophisticated intellectual class, western-style offices and gadgets of communication, etc. and of rural areas possessing traditional looks and outlooks with village heads or elders combining various political, administrative, religious and social roles. As a result, within the prismatic society, numerous complexities and difficulties in formulating and implementing policy abound which as described by Riggs (1961), are fallouts of the varying degrees of heterogeneity.
 - a. The first dimension is economic, evidenced in the Bazaar-Canteen Model where marketization takes place without any corresponding increase in capital formation or

rise in productivity. When surpluses accumulate, they are scattered in local markets or spent for non-productive purposes like celebrations and ceremonies that form part of the traditional round of life. Commercial activities are accorded a low status while the elite base its power on land, religion, family and government position but not entrepreneurship. The gap between the rich and poor widens as a result of increased unequal distribution of wealth that has important consequences for administration. This encourages the spread of corruption and creates difficulties in the framing of policies that are just and beneficial to both the rich and poor (Sharma et. al., 2011).

- b. A second dimension derives from academic formalism. It describes the elite or 'intelligentsia' and is encouraged by the introduction of alien patterns of government and administration in social orders to which these patterns were not attuned. The incapacity of the intelligentsia to see the world in other terms than those of the relatively refracted western industrial city or their own traditions reinforces formalism in every branch of the government service more so as the members of the bureaucracy are drawn from the intelligentsia (Sharma et. al., 2011). This dimension of prismatic heterogeneity also consists of a class of ambitious intellectuals who are eager to take advantage of the opportunities of prestige, wealth and power that the government service provides to gain admission into the elite groups. The failure to achieve this ambition implies that they sometimes remain at levels lower than expected thus creating a class of 'dissatisfied intelligentsia' from which groups form 'counter-elite' groups that seek to displace the elites. The presence of these counter-elite groups reflects 'poly-communalism' also called 'differentiated' population because they are mobilized but not assimilated. They have the capacity to transform diffuse

- revolutionary tensions into organized revolutionary movements and revolts thereby bringing about 'poly-normativism' which is the displacement of traditional values and the proliferation of incompatible values within the prismatic society (Riggs, 1961).
- c. Another dimension of the prismatic heterogeneity is the presence of groups which Riggs (1961) prefers to call '*clects*', a term cloned from the combination and characteristics of clans and sects. He describes them as those groups that make use of modern associational methods of organization while retaining traditional diffuse and particularistic goals. They place the national or communal interests of their members above the general interests of business. Pradeep and Etakula (2009) viewed the '*clects*' as the diverse ethnic, religious and racial groups in society that exist simultaneously and based on relatively hostile interactions with each other. They possess characteristics of the attainment orientation, selectivism and poly-functionalism that lead to the development of poly-communalism within prismatic societies and influence the character and behavior of the '*Sala*'. Political and administrative agencies can be better understood as '*clects*' rather than as primary or secondary groups. In the organizational sphere, the primary groups such as the family, etc. continue to influence and rise to importance over the secondary type associations (Riggs, 1961; Sharma et al, 2011).
- ii. **Formalism:** It explains the high degree of discrepancy or incongruence between the prescriptive and descriptive, formal and effective power, between the impression given by the constitution, law and regulations, organization charts and statistics, and the actual practices and facts of government and society (Riggs, 1961). Formalism appears in different forms and at different levels. It has constitutional, administrative and academic

forms and its prevalence encourages corruption. The constitutional may include laws that provide for political structures like elections, parliament, cabinet, etc. but the parliament is unable to control the government. This leads to a relative indifference of the population and the ruling group to the conduct of elections and leadership determination procedures since the processes that should underlie these events are either designed by or emasculated by stronger undercurrents. In most cases also, the behaviour of public officials may not correspond to legal statutes even where they literally insist on following some of the laws that prescribe conduct in the bureaucracy (Riggs, 1961).

At the administrative level, there exists intra-bureaucratic politics and the ritualization of procedures as the bureaucrats have no clear sense of the goals and policies to be accomplished. There is also an ineffective control of the bureaucracy as officials take their own decisions and recruitment into the public services is attainment-oriented falling between ascription and achievement. Though the attainment criteria may possess the characteristics of the achievement criteria, it can actually be considered a disguised form of the ascriptive criteria (Riggs, 1961). The ascriptive criterion defines that position which relies on a person's parentage, race, religion or other criteria of identity other than capacity while the achievement criterion is that which relies on an individual's capacity and ability to achieve the goals set (Riggs, 1961). The attainment criterion which lies between the 'ascriptive' and the achievement criteria explains that which is formalistic and measures indeterminate qualities usually through prescribed examinations sometimes on processes that are not defined. In this case, individuals attain positions for which they may be unqualified but are bestowed because of success in the examinations (Riggs, 1961). Under this attainment criterion also, most of the staff have acquired knowledge or possess degrees in studies which have no direct bearing to their future careers. The

boomerang effect of this can be felt in the quality of reforms and strategies churned out which have no technocratic or specialized contents because the ‘administrators saddled with the responsibilities of policy formulation are not seasoned.

iii. **Overlapping:** It is a characteristic of only the prismatic model. It implies the extent to which what is described as ‘administrative’ is actually determined by non-administrative criteria that are political, economic, social, religious, etc. factors. As such, what is defined as economic is very influenced by non-economic considerations; the political by non-political, etc. The ‘*Sala*’ describes the administrative office in the prismatic society. Within the ‘*Sala*’, administrative office rationality is ignored but in addition to strictly administrative criteria, the ‘*Sala*’ recognizes and reflects many non-administrative considerations. Some of these non-administrative factors that constitute and influence the ‘*Sala*’ include:

- a. Unofficial income (corruption) which constitutes an economic consideration that interferes with goal attainment by diverting officials from the use of their labour to accomplish the organization’s presumed policies.
- b. The persistence of primary organization, especially strong family ties, and the presence of ‘*clects*’. The incompatibility between an administrative and a conflicting family code creates a problem of nepotism. Similarly, district of origin, ‘old school tie’, province-mates, etc. impose particularistic obligations on the administrator. The selective recruitment and allocation of benefits in response to pressures from ‘*clects*’ also reveal the importance of non-administrative criteria.

- c. Political policies are neither clearly designed nor well-adjusted to the capabilities of the administrative system and laws are not clearly interpreted and adapted to practical realities (Sharma, et al. 2011).

The Refracted/Diffracted society consists of an administrative system referred to as an 'office' or 'bureau' (Polinaidu, 2004) and formal political structures wherein control is exercised in conformity with a laid down formula or pattern. Political decision making is the duty of politicians while administrative decision making lies within the purview of administrators. Also, the political, social, economic, religious, etc. structures are governed by their corresponding criteria unlike in the overlapping feature of the prismatic society (Riggs, 1961). There is a high degree of politicization and the population is mobilized for intensive participation in the decision making and execution processes. The system ranks high in terms of universalism and achievement orientation though even in the most developed and industrialized countries, such total autonomy of structures is not a reality (Sharma et. al., 2011).

In formulating this model, Riggs(1961) used a simulation of light and prisms. He described the traditional systems as 'fused', as is light before striking a prism, modern societies 'diffracted' as is a beam of light after passing through a prism, and transitional systems 'prismatic' for the state of light within a prism. He analyzed the transitional, 'prismatic' societies in the context of them having their internal logic and being in a state of 'equilibrium' even though certain practices within the societies appeared deviant when compared to the traditional (fused) or modern (diffracted) societies.

i. Criticisms against Riggs' Model

Pye (1965) agreed that by the above analysis, Riggs made a significant advancement in the boldness of theory building by showing that the transitional prismatic societies may not be altogether imperfect but rather possessed inherent characteristics through which its members protected their economic wealth, political power and social status. However, his criticism is that in spite of the rich and provocative harvest of ideas, it cannot be said that Riggs successfully expounded and exposed his model.

Peng (2008) also criticized the model for being too broad and abstract having little or no empirical evidence thus making it inefficient and cumbersome in the analyses of public administration. He assessed the model as ignoring the values and ultimate goal of public administration which is efficiency. He upheld that it is too assuming and derives from Riggs' focus on social, etc. factors instead of the structural-functional approach on which the model was initially designed thereby creating difficulties in the development of new forms of the model. He backs his argument with the views of Esman who stated that most research within the ecological approach are based on intuition and '*a priori*' assumptions and as such point out behavioural limitations rather than emphasize problem-solving. Further criticisms include the use of Western standards and culture (America) to design transitional processes for non-Western societies.

It is noteworthy that Riggs asserted that the prismatic model is suitable only in examining phenomena that occur during the social transformation process. Riggs also argued that merely listing one environmental factor does not constitute adopting an ecological approach rather what defines research as being ecological, is the identification of critical variables and the demonstration of administrative items and plausible patterns of correlation.

These criticisms may hold sway where a research adopts Riggs model in its entirety. This heightens the tendency of the model to appear vague, derails the research and makes it appear unempirical and based on assumptions thus eroding the goal of efficiency in its application. The views of Riggs subsist in providing an insight to the application of his Fused-Prismatic-Diffracted Model to research such as the instant one. In essence, the application should focus on relationships between core administrative items and specific aspects of his model to reduce flaws, solve administrative problems and enhance the application of empirical analyses to the ecological approach as proposed by Forward quoted in Peng (2008). Based on Riggs' argument and the propositions of Forward, this research work identified the socio-cultural environment of public administration and employee motivation as the key ecological and administrative variables respectively and focused on determining a correlation between them.

ii. The fused-prismatic-diffracted model and the ecology of Nigeria's public administration

The Prismatic and Fused societies of Fred Riggs' Fused-Prismatic-Refracted/Diffracted Model provide a framework for analysis of the subject matter of the research in relation to the developing world although emphasis is on the prismatic society. The Refracted/Diffracted society on the other hand aptly captures the characteristics of the developed societies. The Prismatic is the mid-point of the model and is characterized by a high degree of formalism, heterogeneity and overlapping. These formalistic, heterogeneous and especially the overlapping components reflect the characteristics of developing societies - Nigeria inclusive. The political, economic, social, cultural and environmental factors are incomparable with those of the western societies and show a strong presence and influence of outside-work-environmental factors with the capacity to determine administrative behaviour.

The developing societies are replete with cases of leaders who get positions because of their links to and membership of powerful groups in tandem with Riggs' *'clects'*. These groups have the political, social, economic and administrative wherewithal to erode meritocracy and every laid down procedure, rule or regulation. These rules, regulations and procedures derive from what is expected to constitute public administration functions and codes of conduct. They exist in principle and provide the form and structure which public administration should take. In practice, the conduct of government business is backed by lots of favouritism, corruption, etc. that sees positions filled by cronies of and individuals favoured by those in power. Sometimes more offices are seen to be created to accommodate the bogus *'constituencies'* that those in power need to satisfy to ensure and reward loyalty. For instance, in Nigeria, the presence of several offices of Special and Personal assistants is widely believed as orchestrated to satisfy *'clect'* members.

Riggs (1961) describes formalism in prismatic societies as arising from the introduction of alien patterns of government and administration in social orders to which these patterns are not attuned. For Laxmikanth (2005), it (formalism) refers to the gap between theory and practice that is, between the formally prescribed and effectively practiced and between norms and realities. This is especially true of the public administrations or bureaucracies of the developing countries (Nigeria included), particularly where the structure obtainable is a contraption handed down by the colonialists and not based on home-grown ideas. The formalism of laws and regulations permits administrators to allow non-administrative criteria influence their actions because of the exigencies of the society which constitutes their environment, the powers they control and the need to satisfy their group members.

Laxmikanth (2005) further agreed with Riggs' (1961) view on heterogeneity and explained it as the simultaneous presence, side by side, of quite different kinds of systems, practices and viewpoints that combine the elements of the 'chamber' of the fused society and the 'bureau' of a diffracted society. Polinaidu (2004) in his analysis described heterogeneity as connoting an ideal type of a third world country that is developing from 'traditionality' to modernity and has neither the undifferentiated institutions of the traditional society nor the fully differentiated institutions of the modern society. He further espoused the administrative system of this society as consisting of western-style administrative institutions with the administrative behavior guided by the 'ascriptive' motivations of a traditional society. The heterogeneity of the prismatic society introduces numerous complexities and difficulties that contribute to formalism and the overlap of the external social, cultural, political, religious, economic, etc. factors with little or no demarcating lines. Within the '*Sala*' administrative office, rationality as per a lock-step adherence to specified procedures and rules of conduct is ignored. Its existence as the administrative office in the prismatic society provides leverage for certain conduct and procedures which may be seen by the public administrations of the developed countries as unconventional and administrative no-nos, to thrive.

By adhering to laid down procedures and rules and committing to the merit principle that disallows favouritism and nepotism, the public administrators in developed societies consciously and cautiously keep their activities within delineated limits. Transparency and accountability are usually the watch word in the conduct of government or public business. Occupation of leadership positions, etc. is legitimate and according to laid down procedures that are to a great extent, transparent. On the other hand, in addition to strictly administrative criteria, the '*Sala*' recognizes, reflects and accommodates many non-administrative considerations. These include

corruption, the persistence of primary organizations like family ties, '*clects*', nepotism, and so on, capable of beclouding the judgments of the public administrators.

2.1.2 The Contingency theory:

This theory is a growth on the behavioural theories. Research on contingency factors first appeared in the 1950s in different, isolated fields of science initiated by empirical studies in the field of sociology, which found that many existing forms of organizational bureaucracy could not be described by Weber's bureaucracy theory. It improved on previous concepts by Taylor, Fayol and Weber which had previously prescribed recommendations that appeared effective under any circumstances (Dobak and Antal, 2010). In the 1950s, a new opinion became widely accepted in the management literature, suggesting that no general organization principles exist. This conceptual change was also indicated by numerous management-related sociological studies (Kieser, 1995a) and the appearance of environmental issues in strategic management literature.

In 1958, Joan Woodward evaluated the effects of technology on organizations bringing to the fore, the presence of factors which may be described under contingency. Further studies were also done in the 1950s by the Ohio State University and the University of Michigan and up to the 1970s to further broaden the scope of impacts on the organization beyond technology. Though the exact date of the concept's origination is unknown (Donaldson, 2001), the term, 'contingency theory' was first mentioned in literature by Lawrence and Lorsch in 1967 (Matyusz, 2014). Basically, it was developed to challenge the universal single pattern touted by the classical and human relations schools (Tayeb, 1987). Matyusz (2012) noted that initially, the theories addressed a single factor at a time. However, other multi-factor theories were developed that enabled the description of structural changes as the joint effect of two or more factors (e.g.

environment and size, technology and design, etc.), thereby creating an integrated concept (Baranyi, 2001; Dobák, 2006; Dobák and Antal, 2010).

Rowlinson (2004) noted that the contingency theory analyzes the relations between a seemingly endless, far from complete, list of variables. The theory has many variants that evaluated 'contingency' in organizations from the perspectives of leadership, job design and behaviour applications (Fiedler, 1967; Hackman, 1975; Luthans and Kreitner, 1975); technology, organizational design and performance (Woodward, 1965; Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967; Shetty and Carlisle, 1972; Perrow, 1973; Child, 1974); size, structure, strategy and environment (Chandler, 1962, Pugh, et. al, 1963); quantitative and decision-making techniques (Miller and Starr, 1970); organizational socialization (Vroom, 1964; Van Maanen, 1975; Schein, 1964, 1968; Porter, Lawler and Hackman, 1975; Feldman, 1976). Focus and inductive and deductive research into the interface of the organization and management with the environment emerged in the 1960s to 1970s (Burns and Stalker, 1961; Etzioni, 1961; Katz and Kahn, 1966; Thompson, 1967; Terryberry, 1968; Pugh, et al, 1969; Duncan, 1972; Negandhi and Reimann, 1972; McKelvey, 1975; Luthans, 1976; Luthans and Stewart, 1977). These boosted the quality of scholarship on contingency since they evaluated the impact of several contingency factors in their singular and collective capacities. Worthy of note is the position of Mintzberg (1979) and Drazin and Van de Ven (1985) who asserted that the relationships between contingency factors are better explained if groups of factors are examined instead of single factors.

In its most simplified form, the main contention of the contingency theory is that there is no 'one-best-way' as organizations are different and so appropriate structures and systems of management will depend on the contingencies of situations. Its premise that situations dictate managerial actions and that different situations call for different approaches implies that

organizations are different in form and function. It posits that no single way of solving problems is ideal for all situations because tasks and people in organizations differ and so the methods of managing them must differ. Managerial actions are therefore contingent on internal and external factors within or outside the system or sub-system. Its position closely relates to the situational approach but is more rigorous and exacting in identifying and developing functional relationships between the environmental, management and performance variables (Luthans and Stewart, 1977). Active interrelationships between managerial actions and situations also require that managerial actions and organizational design reflect and are appropriate to the given situations. A particular action is appropriate only in a particular circumstance since situations dictate actions, in essence, decisions made by decision makers are guided by the environmental uncertainties and the internal contingencies with which they are faced.

The propositions of this theory were further expanded by other scholars like William Richard Scott (1981) and Gareth Morgan (2007). Scott noted that organizations are better handled from the perspective of the environments with which they must relate while Morgan buttresses the point that organizational effort must be based on actions outside the system in order to properly integrate organizations with their environments. Generally, despite an increasing number of contingency models, a comprehensive and integrative theoretical framework for contingency management was still lacking (Luthans and Stewart, 1977). More recent research into the contingency theory as a management staple was done by scholars like Donaldson (2001) who highlighted that the most significant contemporary research fields of contingency theory are those which compare the final effectiveness to the expected performance relative to the contingency factors. In essence, the research should evaluate the degree to which the performance was realized as forecast by a theory based on contingency factors; assess the

effect of contingency factors on organizational elements; and emphasize the relevance of the inclusion of contingency theory into other disciplines (Matyusz, 2012).

Donaldson (2001) based his analysis of contingency factors on structural functionalism in organizations. He represents the sociological branch of contingency theory that is concerned with the structure of organizations and so he referred to the theory as the Structural Contingency Theory (SCT) of organizations (Rowlinson, 2004). His analogies were derived from research into contingency factors like structure, strategy and organizational dynamics and functions and their effects on 'fits' in organizations. Donaldson further designed the Structural Adaptation to Regain Fit (SARFIT) theory as a disequilibrium theory of organizations and an offshoot of the structural contingency theory which he posited as an equilibrium theory of organizations (Donaldson, 2006). The structural contingency theory holds that organizations attain 'fit' then are in equilibrium and remain static. SARFIT on the other hand depicts an organization as attaining fit temporarily until the surplus resources that arise from the fit-based higher performance produce a structural expansion that leads the organization into a 'misfit'.

Donaldson (2001) also noted that the result of 'fit' can be positive for one set of stakeholders but negative for others, so that 'fit' for one group may be a misfit for another. In the SARFIT view, 'fit' and 'misfit' are temporary states that alternate with each other in a cycle while fits determined by environmental contingencies are usually outside the control of the organization's managers (Donaldson, 2006). In response, managers may tend to shift the organization's structural design from mechanistic to organic, as the organization changes from stable to unstable in a bid to regain fit and performance (Donaldson, 2006).

The contingency theory can best be described in this research as, 'weather-beaten' because of attempts by many research efforts to strait-jacket it through definitions and scholarly

descriptions in order to situate it as a management and organizational theory. These have been met with more and more criticisms that have led to more and more research with aspects of the theory still open to further empirical investigations. Mintzberg (1979) highlighted methodological problems of the theory as arising from the simultaneous handling of more contingency factors, management's incorrect perception of contingency factors and a non-linear relationship between the contingency factors and the dependent variables.

The variables in contingency research normally revolve around the size of the organization, complexity of technology, the administrator's position and power within the organization, differences among subordinates, clarity and equity of reward systems, degree of environmental uncertainty, etc. The theory focuses on the relationship between an organization and its environment and the position that effective management varies with and depends on organizations, their functions and their environments. It is concerned with achieving harmony or 'fits' between organizations and their environments. It entails tailoring the design of the company to the sources of environmental uncertainties faced by the organization so that the organization is able to handle the uncertainties effectively and efficiently. This is more so as each organization is unique, facing diverse environmental contingencies that are capable of resulting in diverse environmental uncertainties (Burns and Stalker, 1961; Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967).

Mealiea and Lee (1979) supported the position of the contingency theory that an organization whose structure is congruent with the requirements of its external environment will be successful while incongruencies are likely to produce dysfunctional consequences for the organization. In proposing an integrative contingency model, they criticized the contingency theorists and researchers like Van de Ven, Lawrence and Lorsch, Perrow, Duncan, Thompson, etc. for only focusing on attaining congruence within either the micro or macro dimensions.

Nadler and Tushman (1980) described congruence as the degree to which the needs, demands, goals, objectives, and/or structure of one component are consistent with the needs, demands, goals, objectives and/or structure of another component. In relating 'congruence' to 'fit' in organizational theory, Fry and Smith (1987) posit that attempts to separate both terms result from semantic nitpicking as they are not separate endeavours but inexorably linked concepts. As such, congruence among contingency factors is the same as a 'fit' among the factors.

Mealiea and Lee (1979) also upheld that integrating both dimensions will achieve optimal congruence, stabilize the contingency theory and clearly illustrate its implications for managers and researchers. They defined the theorized micro dimensions (for attaining microcongruence) as pertaining to the unit level of the individual, small group and tasks while the theorized macro dimensions (for attaining macrocongruence) (Fry and Smith, 1987) are the environment, size, technology and the organizational structure. They further proposed that a comprehensive theory of organizations that adequately explains how and why certain behaviours are more effective in certain situations and not in others will eventually better the precision of theoretical predictions about behaviour.

Basically, the contingency theory rejects the universality of principles of management and administration and focuses on the external environment of the system. It presupposes that under different circumstances, different solutions may prove effective (Dobák and Antal, 2010) implying that different circumstances require different organizational structures (Baranyi, 2001). Chandler (1962) also posited that organizations facing different environments must adopt different strategies. The contingency theory posits that other variables influence the decisions and actions of management and that effectiveness is highest where the structure fits the contingencies. A match causes effectiveness and a mismatch, ineffectiveness (Donaldson, 1982). These are responsible

for the organization's ability to achieve either the best 'fit' which Drazin and Van de Ven (1985) define as involving the selection, interaction and system approaches or 'equifinality'. Greson and Drazin (1997) define 'equifinality' as implying a form of flexibility that enables a steady state to be reached from different initial conditions and in different ways (Matyusz, 2012) using equally viable alternatives in particular circumstances (Donaldson, 1982). The term 'fit' had also been used by Van de Ven and Drazin, (1985) and Venkatraman and Camillus, (1985) to refer to both congruence and contingency effects (Fry and Smith, 1987). In line with these arguments, achieving a fit in the Plateau state civil service may entail the adoption of a degree of flexibility that deviates from what has been the age-long practice and has only resulted in the same results overtime i.e. a kind of motion without movement.

Luthans and Stewart (1977) evaluated the contingency theory as related to the systems paradigm which emphasizes that the organization is internally comprised of interrelated subsystems and has an inherent interaction with its external environment. The system in this case, consists of a taxonomical hierarchy of relevant primary, secondary and tertiary levels of variables on which the organization's structure, goals, decisions and resources are contingent. The primary variables include the environmental, the resource and the management which they assert, are the elemental 'building' blocks of organizations. Churchman (1968) analyzed the environmental variables as being beyond the direct or positive control of the organization's resource managers but with the capacity to affect the organization. This makes them 'givens' or independent variables within the contingency theory framework. The environmental variables are split into two: the internal and the external. The internal represent those factors that are beyond the direct control of the managers but come under the control of the formal structure of the organization while the external are those beyond the total control of the organizational

system like federal legislations, etc. (Luthans and Stewart, 1977). These outside-work-environmental factors are those which constitute the focus of this research as per their potency in derailing the Plateau State civil service because of the influence it has on its employees.

Luthans and Stewart (1977) further described the environmental variables as broken into two, the specific and the general. The specific environmental variables affect the organization directly and significantly and are comprised of customers/clients, suppliers, labour, competitors, technology and socio-political factors. The general environmental variables on the other hand include the cultural, technological, social, demographic, legal, economic, political and ecological which affect the organization indirectly and provide the context within which the more directly relevant specific factors find expression (Duncan, 1972; Hall, 1972; Kast and Rosenzweig, 1974; Neghandi, 1975). The thrust of this research derives its starting point and focus from these general environmental factors as elucidated by Duncan, Hall and others. The ecology of Nigeria's public administration also consists of these factors which may in one way or the other affect the level of motivation and by extension, form the basis on which services are provided by the Plateau state civil service employees.

The resource variables are described as the tangible and intangible factors over which management has more direct control and operates on to attain its desired *status quo* within the organization (Churchman, 1968). Luthans and Stewart (1977) subsumed the resource variables under the human and non-human. The human are demographic (number, skills, knowledge, size, race and age) and behavioural (individual and social behaviour defined by needs, attitudes, values, perceptions, expectations, goals, group dynamics and conflict) while the non-human include raw materials, plant, equipment, capital and product or service. At times, as a result of

what they entail, they may vacillate between identities as resource and environmental variables depending on the contexts within which they are to be applied in the organization.

The management variables are the policies, practices and procedures for acting on the available resource variables to enable the proper definition and accomplishment of the organization's objectives. Under the contingency theory, the process (planning and organizing, etc. functions), quantitative (decision-making models and information and data management) and behavioural (individual [motivation and reward]; group/inter-group [interpersonal relations, leadership styles], etc.) concepts are also defined as management variables (Luthans and Stewart, 1977). The organization's management plays the role of coordinating the three primary system variables.

The secondary system variables result from the interaction of the subsets of the primary system variables. They include the situation, organization and performance criteria. The situation variables are a product of the interaction between the environmental and resource variables; the organizational result from the interaction between the managerial and the resource variables; and the performance criteria are a product of the environmental and managerial variables (Luthans and Stewart, 1977). The tertiary system variables result from the interaction of the secondary system variables which are a reflection of the constituent primary variables and represent the actual performance output of the organization based on the performance criteria variables. These performance variables for them, are the single most distinctive feature of the contingency model because they set it apart from the other theoretical constructs upheld by scholars like Burns and Stalker (1961), Reif and Luthans (1972), Kast and Rosenzweig (1974), Negandhi (1975), etc. which did not emphasize the link between theory and practice (Luthans and Stewart, 1977).

Longenecker and Pringle (1978) criticized the effort by Luthan and Stewart (1977) to develop a general contingency theory stating that their selection of variables is chaotic and not based on well defined, clearly specified criteria as advised by Blumer (1956). On this premise, the performance variables they posit cannot be 'the single most distinctive feature of the contingency model, setting this model apart from theoretical constructs that do not emphasize this important link between theory and practice' (Luthan and Stewart, 1977; Longenecker and Pringle, 1978). Longenecker and Pringle (1978) also held that a general theory should be one that is more specific 'depending on this and this in particular situations' and representing more, rather than basing on hazy generalities like 'it all depends'. In response to their critique, Luthans and Stewart (1978) noted that their views were myopic and showed a misconception of the context of their propositions for a general contingency theory. This position is also buttressed by Donaldson (1982) to wit that the value of contingency research is lost if the proposition is that 'anything goes'. Luthans and Stewart (1977) were further criticized by Mealiea and Lee (1979) for failing to develop a taxonomy that includes specific examples of the stated functional relationships between their performance, situational and environmental variables and for failing to articulate the behavioural requirements for the individuals within the existing systems in the development of their General Contingency Theory Matrix.

Negandhi and Reimann (1972) noted that cross-cultural studies on contingency theory by Harbison and Myers (1959), Meade (1967), Meade and Whittaker (1967), etc. proved that the socio-cultural variables exert considerable influence on the organizational structure of industries in developing countries and so the effectiveness of these enterprises is threatened when they are operated as decentralized structures. However, in testing the contingency theory in the context of a developing country, their focus was on India. They stressed that the difficulty in

operationalizing the socio-cultural environmental variables and contextualizing their impact on organizations was the reason they assessed the impact of decentralization on organizational effectiveness of firms faced with different market conditions as environmental factors. As such, the gaps in contingency research into the impact of socio-cultural factors still exist. They also noted that research into environmental contingency factors by Burns and Stalker (1961) and Woodward (1970) had only taken certain aspects of the external environments of the organizations such as the rates of change in their scientific techniques and the markets of the industries into consideration.

The findings of further research into management practices and procedures by Burns and Stalker (1961) led them to categorize organizations as 'mechanistic' and 'organic'. The mechanistic were highly centralized while the organic were decentralized, kowtowing to the prescriptions of the Human Relations School (Roethlisberger and Dickson, 1939). They concluded that the mechanistic forms were better suited for the highly stable environmental conditions while the flexible, decentralized organic forms were more successful in unstable changing environmental conditions. The findings were in tandem with those of Lawrence and Lorsch (1967).

Research into the 'culture-free thesis' to determine whether cultural variables constitute contingency factors that affect organizations were conducted by Hickson, et al, (1979), Maurice, et al, (1980), Kuc, et al, (1980), etc. in Western and Eastern societies and by Badran and Hinings, (1981), Ayoubi, (1981), Shenoy, (1981), Conaty, et al, (1983), etc. in at least one developing country (Tayeb, 1987). Most of them with exceptions like Maurice, et al (1980), confirmed the culture-free thesis thus upholding the position of Hickson, et al (1974) that 'irrespective of culture whether Asian, European or North American, a large organization with many employees

improves efficiency not only by specializing its activities but also by increasing controlling and coordinating' (Tayeb, 1987). These findings were refuted by other researchers who challenged the culture-free thesis on the basis of methodological gaps. Maurice (1976) for instance, faulted them for focusing more on dimensions like centralization, formalization and specialization precluding the national and cultural variables which lie behind them.

In testing the applicability of the contingency theory and the culture-free thesis in a cross-national setting, Tayeb (1987) based his studies on fourteen organizations in England and in India. Previous research, his inclusive, had revealed that the Indians and English were on parallels in terms of spatiality, privacy and independence. Indian culture depicted a concern for physical and emotional proximity and dependence with a lack of concern for privacy while the English were concerned with privacy, independence and keeping a level of physical and emotional distance (Parekh, 1974; Terry, 1979; Tayeb, 1984). Tayeb (1987) found that the underlying cultural traits of both societies to a large extent, affected the structures of the organizations in terms of hierarchical organization, control and delegation, levels of centralization and decentralization, and their decision-making and communication patterns. These were evidenced by differentials in the scores which were consistent with the respective cultures of the societies of the two sets of organizations. His research gave some insight into the possibility of socio-cultural contingency factors affecting organizations. Further assessments of the contingency theory were done by scholars like Meyer et al (1978) who asserted that the theory is widely accepted and so is no longer controversial.

i. Criticisms of the Contingency Theory

Donaldson's (2001) perspectives on the structural contingency theory were faulted by Rowlinson (2004) for attempting to force organizations to fit their structures to their contingencies whether they have knowledge of the contingency theory or not. Rowlinson also asserted that Donaldson's stance on the Structural Contingency theory as 'solid', unopened to falsification and a guide for caution against any ideological interventions in organizations could also be a basis for argument as per the irrelevance of the theory.

In another vein, Negandhi and Reimann (1972) though noting that cross-cultural studies on contingency theory had proved that socio-cultural variables exert considerable influence on the organizational structure and effectiveness, stressed the difficulty in operationalizing the socio-cultural environmental variables and contextualizing their impact on organizations. This led to the limitation of their assessment to the impact of decentralization and different market conditions as environmental factors, on the organizational effectiveness of firms in developing countries.

Schoonhoven (1981) in disagreeing with the views of Meyer et al (1978) posited that the contingency theory is not a theory at all because its overall strategy is clear but its substance is not. She described it as rather an orienting strategy or 'metatheory' that suggests ways in which a phenomenon ought to be conceptualized or approaches to it, explained. She backed up her argument by pointing out the position held by Namboodiri, et al (1975) that the basis of contingency theory is the assertion that there is a relationship between two variables (dimensions of technology and structure, for example) which predicts a third variable (organizational effectiveness) and proves that an interaction exists between the first two variables. For her, this is not sufficient to qualify it as a theory.

However, the basis of contingency theory as upheld by Namboodiri et al (1975) though discounted by Schoonhoven (1981) can be likened to the instant research which assumes that the relationship between the ecology of Nigeria's public administration and employee motivation has the capacity to predict the quality of a third variable, productivity. The position of Namboodiri et al (1975) is further strengthened first, by the fact that organizations do not exist in vacuums and secondly, by the fact that the essence of any organization is profitability either in terms of efficiency, effectiveness or continuity.

Miller et al (1982) and Paine and Anderson (1977), in explaining the relationships between variables held that future strategy researchers should accord a more prominent role for organizational and performance variables as contingency influences on strategy formulation. Hambrick and Mason (1984) even argued for a general 'upper echelons theory' beyond the contingency theory that emphasizes the influence of the values and perceptions of top managers on organizational strategy and effectiveness (Ginsberg and Venkatraman, 1985). By this argument, they inadvertently gave place to the potency of an individual's mental configuration on his capacity and output. Donaldson (2001) in admitting the vagueness of organizational performance and effectiveness criteria (Rowlinson, 2004) in the determination of contingency, had also noted previously that there remain many unresolved theoretical and empirical issues in contingency analysis which can be handled not by the abandonment of the approach but by the further examination of the logic behind the varying arguments (Donaldson, 1982).

ii. The contingency theory, the ecology of public administration and employee motivation

An overview of the core postulations of the Contingency Theory provides a backing to the views of the comparative public administrators like Guy Peters (1984), Robert Dahl (1947) and Ferrel Heady (1966) on the universal applicability of the administrative and management principles.

Peters (1984) on his part, viewed comparative public administration as a specialized branch of administration that covers a wider area of inquiry in an attempt to understand the public nature of administration and the social, cultural and political settings of organizations. He backed up his position with the fact that the discipline borrows from more general managerial approaches that take the contextual and situational factors into cognizance.

The contingency theory also has this characteristic and primarily posits that the decisions of administrators and managers are contingent on situations and the internal and external environments of organizations but also does not reckon with these non-administrative criteria. These basic propositions prove agreeable to the thrusts of comparative studies in public administration as they provide explanations for considerable variations in organizational structure and performance (Sharma et. al., 2011). It matches the characteristics of the environment of the organization and the mode of production within the organization to the most appropriate structures and upholds that organizations performing different functions and operating in different environments should be designed differently (Peters, 1984).

The focus of the theory on the influence of the external environment of the administrative system and its rejection of the 'one best way' and the universality of the science and principles of administration and management give it verve as a basis for evaluating the applicability of frequently adopted best practices to organizational situations. It upholds further, that organizations will be different in form and function because of the dependence of management on the contingencies of situations in action taking, decision making and implementation. As a result, management methods used in one circumstance may seldom work the same way in others thus backing the position of this study that all workers may not be motivated in the same way but by different things in a variety of situations.

The analogy of the contingency theory provided by Luthans and Stewart (1977) in a bid to propose ‘a general contingency theory’ based on a ‘conceptually-pragmatic research-based framework’ is one of those which closely relates to the context within which the theory is applied to the instant research. Though not entirely applicable to the trend of the instant research, certain positions taken by them are relevant. In expounding the contingency theory, they noted that Duncan, 1972; Hall, 1972; Kast and Rosenzweig, 1974; and Neghandi, 1975 elucidate the cultural, technological, social, demographic, legal, economic, political and ecological environmental variables as those which indirectly affect the organization and are the contexts within which the more relevant specific factors find expression. Though they did not go further to expatiate on what these variables really entail, general definitions of the concepts suffice. These further interact with the human behavioural resource variables that Luthans and Stewart (1977) posit as defined by needs, attitudes, values, perceptions, expectations, goals, group dynamics and conflict that in one way or the other, constitute what influences the organization’s performance.

Riggs (1961) in explaining the overlapping characteristic of his prismatic model, described the presence of non-administrative criteria in the administrative ecology of mainly developing countries as a situation whereby the administrative factors are defined by factors that are non-administrative in character e.g. the political being influenced by the non-political, the economic by the non-economic, etc. He was a vanguard of those who insisted that the principles of American public administration cannot be directly applied to transitional societies and that new models and concepts must be designed both to explain what goes on in such societies and to facilitate substantive programs of development (Pye, 1965). In relating Riggs’ view to Duncan (1972), Hall (1972), Kast and Rosenzweig (1972), Neghandi (1975) and Luthans and Stewart’s

(1977) versions of the environmental variables, we see the possibility of a cocktail of underlying non-administrative criteria influencing the environmental factors that they have highlighted and playing a role in determining employee motivation and organizational effectiveness especially in the public sector of the developing countries.

Indik (1968) posited that individual and organizational characteristics interact to produce observable effects. Shepard and Hougland (1978) qualified these characteristics as a mixture of the 'complex man' and 'complex organization' approaches. They further upheld that most research on the complex man approach have focused on the effects of job design on workers satisfaction without any latitude that over time, organizational members too can change in response to traits learned from organizational socialization. Schein (1965) viewed individuals as complex and different from one another and this characteristic was reflective even in their work places. He stated that the reaction of an individual to situations within the organization is filtered based on his prior perceptions acquired through the attitudes, beliefs, norms and values into which he had been socialized in the non-work settings external to the organization. As such, it is the worker's interpretation of the work situation and not the work itself that influences the work related attitudes and behavior (Goldthorpe, 1966).

Shepard and Hougland (1978) posited based on this observation that organizational programs must therefore be broad-based enough to take into consideration, the fact that individual workers do not share the same perceptions and thought patterns. They also asserted that research in this area has only yielded inconsistent results due to the inability of the researchers to properly define the 'background' factors capable of altering the worker's reaction to organizational situations (Shepard and Hougland, 1978).

In assessing the role of the community as a factor in the determination of the workers individual differences, the findings were that the norms of the workers in the rural areas markedly differed from those of the workers in the urban areas (Turner and Lawrence, 1965; Hulin and Blood, 1967; 1968). Workers resident within both areas had about the same level of negative relationship between job specialization and job satisfaction (Susman, 1973; Form, 1971; Shepard, 1970). Hulin (1971) contended that rural-urban places of residence of employees were important only to the extent that employee job-related attitudes, values, or needs were affected though the relationship between these variables is still open for further research. Kalleberg (1977) in evaluating the perceptions of workers in relation to rewards and the value placed on the job found that the workers got more job satisfaction from the rewards than from the value placed on the work (Shepard and Hougland, 1978).

Shepard and Hougland (1978) posited that the contingency theory does not ignore the possibility of change in organizations but most research into human behavior particularly in organizational settings, upheld that it is static. As such, organizational strategies are normally formulated on the basis of the observed human behaviour that arises from individual differences present in the organization at a particular time. They however pointed out a flaw noting that, in the assessment of human behaviour resulting from individual differences, room must be made for change as a function of the different characteristics that the individuals may acquire from organizational experiences. To this end, they supported the views of Kornhauser (1965), that the characteristics, orientations and motivation of individuals may be influenced by series of environmental contingency factors e.g. organizational structure, job design, feelings of competence, quest for specialization, participation, life goals, self-actualization, fulfilment (not job-based) etc. However, despite the extent of research on the environmental contingency

factors, these findings on individual orientations were not gleaned from an assessment of the socio-cultural components of the environmental variable. Rather they were derived from the generally accepted environmental contingency factors.

Also, their 'complex organization' perspective that individual response to a given structural arrangement will vary according to the appropriateness of that arrangement (Shepard and Hougland, 1978) was supported by a research finding which indicated that responses to organizational structure and processes (including job design) vary by or are contingent on individual characteristics (Nemiroff and Ford, 1977). Their findings showed that individuals have different characteristics and orientations acquired before joining the organizations and so tend to respond favourably to aspects of the job or organization that have a degree of 'fit' or compatibility with them. They concluded with the observation that contingency perspectives have provided valuable additions to organizational theory by considering a number of individual, organizational and environmental variables though these have not been thoroughly integrated. Their suggestions were that such integration be enhanced by considering the possibility of change in the individual's orientation over time and the effects of organizational and environmental contexts on the moderating effects of individual differences (Shepard and Hougland, 1978). This view is in the mould of the argument by Katz (1964) that to avoid incompatibility and achieve 'fit', an organization should integrate an attractive model of its ideals with the personal values of its members in its adult socialization process (Shepard and Hougland, 1978). On this wicket, it might be appropriate to suggest that the thorough integration of the individual, organizational and environmental variables should take the influence of relative, underlying non-administrative criteria into consideration.

2.2 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter focused on the theoretical framework which guided the study. It examined Riggs Fused-Prismatic-Diffracted model highlighting its characteristics as they relate to the developed and developing countries. Factors categorized by Riggs as ‘non-administrative criteria’ present in the public administrative ecologies of prismatic societies like Nigeria, but not properly contextualized by previous studies on the socio-cultural environmental contingency factors, were also examined. The contingency theory as the supporting theory was discussed and efforts made to assess as many variants of the theory as were related to the study. Most of the contingency theories considered the environment, the organizational size and the strategy of the organization as contingency factors that an organizational structure must be adapted to (Matyusz, 2012). Others focused on organizational characteristics such as management, human resources and strategic decision making (Donaldson, 2001).

Namboodiri, et al (1975) noted that the basis of contingency theory is the relationship between two variables that predicts a third variable. Accordingly, the postulations of the theories were discussed to highlight core aspects that suggest the possibility of a nexus between the variables of the research and the consequences for performance. That is, whether the ecology of Nigeria’s public administration rubs off on employee motivation in the Plateau State civil service thus impinging on performance. As such, this research fits into the contemporary research fields since its focus is on the influence of a combination of management, strategic decision making and the environment on human capital development in organizations as suggested by scholars like Donaldson, Dobak, Antal, Matyusz, Mintzberg, Lutham and Stewart, etc.

The research also broadened the scope of the environment that affects organizations. These were previously described by other contingency theorists as entailing factors relating to

change in scientific techniques and markets (Burns and Stalker, 1961), price competition and alternatives available to customers (Negandhi and Reimann, 1972), and so on, to include the neglect of the potency of the cultural, technological, political, social, demographic, legal, economic and ecological, etc. factors (Riggs, 1961; Luthans and Stewart, 1977) that can undermine productivity in organizations. In doing this, the research pushed the ‘environment’ studied by contingency theorists over time beyond the environmental contexts of instability, resourcefulness, demand volatility, competitiveness, complexity, etc. into the domain of the socio-cultural environmental and traditional values of the society in which an organization and its employees are domiciled. The next chapter which covers the literature review contains a more elaborate exposition of the relationship between the postulations of the theories and the extent to which they have been proved or disproved by the characteristics of the ecology of Nigeria’s public administration.

CHAPTER THREE

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

3.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter encompasses an in-depth overview of literature that pertains to the subject matter of the research. The literature review is guided by the key questions that the research is intended to answer and provides relevant information in addition to the survey and interviews (Matyusz, 2012). The literature review is a critical aspect of research which if performed well, presents the existing knowledge and supports the collected, existing survey data; provides a frame that underpins the data presentation and analyses; identifies gaps in the existing knowledge, and based on these gaps, proposes adequate research plans and questions (Wake, 2010).

The chapter opens with an introduction and then follows with a discussion of the ecology of public administration deriving from the views of major scholars in the field of comparative public administration. It then goes on to the evaluation of the ecologies of the developed and developing nations globally, a presentation of an overview of the evolution of Nigeria's public administration and a discussion of her public administrative ecology. A section on motivation that covers an in-depth discussion of the concept with reference to the content and process organizational motivation theories which constitute one of the focal points of the research is included in the chapter. The chapter concludes with a summary.

3.1 THE ECOLOGY OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Prior to the Second World War (1939-1945), there was a dearth of literature on comparative public administration. Most literature bordered on mainstream public administration like national administration, forms of decentralization, civil service structures, financial administration, administrative control and public finance. Focus was on the works of Woodrow Wilson, William

Willoughby, L. D. White, Frederick Taylor, and subsequently, on the human relations movement. Their main concern was to build a science of administration based on the evaluation of certain basic principles of administration which, by their own standards, were deemed to be 'universal'. Within the period, little heed was paid to stimulating rigorous cross-cultural evaluations of public administration. Some of the reasons for this laxity included the isolation of comparative study in public administration to the United States, lack of available funds for oversea social science research, etc. (Sharma et. al., 2011). After the Second World War, administrative theory faced major criticisms from scholars demanding more 'scientific' explanations for administrative literature and rigorous cross-cultural analysis in public administration (Ramesh, 1979).

Interest in the ecology or environment of public administration grew out of advancements in the discipline of Comparative Public Administration and the activities of the Comparative Administrative Group (CAG) which was formed in 1963 and funded by the Ford Foundation. The CAG described comparative public administration as, 'the theory of public administration applied to diverse cultures and national settings and the study of factual data by which it can be examined and tested' (Heady and Stokes, 1976). The ultimate purpose of the Comparative Public Administration Movement was to hasten the emergence of a universally valid body of knowledge concerning administrative behavior. To do this, it supported, sponsored and encouraged research, seminars, works and conferences in comparative administration in Africa, Asia, Latin America and Europe (Sharma et. al., 2011).

By their activities, the horizons of public administration were widened and the door of the discipline opened to all kinds of social scientists. As a result, the ecological approach, a post-World War II development, is given much importance in the study of comparative public

administration today. Closely relating to comparative politics, its existence is supported by the contributions of different disciplines and the zeal of scholars within the field to chart out new directions encompassing both the ecological and the empirical (Polinaidu, 2004). Consequently, the scope of the field has become more systematic because it studies different administrative systems in their ecological settings and thereby stimulates interest in the problems of development administration (Ramesh, 1979) especially in developing nations of the third world.

Ahmad (1970) in his extrapolation of the concept of 'Ecology of Administration' in its simplest form, referred to it as the assumption that the administration of a particular country in a certain period of time is largely a reflection of the pattern of interplay between cultural, psychological and economic forces. Riggs (1976) explained the word, 'comparative' as entailing three things in the study of administration. First, it comes across as meaning, 'foreign' to many in that it goes beyond the boundaries of a single phenomenon. Second, it means, 'a methodology' to the Comparative Administration Movement basically for understanding administration in different settings. The third more extended meaning that Riggs propounds is that it is the generalized or global framework for thinking about problems since their solutions will require increasing communication between scholars and practitioners in all countries.

Comparative public administration explains differences in the behavior of bureaucrats and bureaucracies. Its study suggests and provides strategies for and practical solutions to concrete situations and problems in development administration by providing improvements on knowledge of administrative institutions and practices in countries, that can be adopted and adapted to several nations and their bureaucracies.

Appleby (1970) asserted that the comparisons and contrasts of administrative set ups in different contexts help the development of commonality in public administration. Dimock and

Dimock (1969) posited that by focusing on common elements in different kinds of administration that suggest the universality of the discipline, comparative studies in public administration highlight the variety that exists among institutions and whole cultures. The studies also reveal the mechanisms through which administration takes on the personalities and colourations of given societies and attempt to explain the social, political and cultural factors involved in the success or dismal failure of administrative institutions, devices and features across countries (Polinaidu, 2004). In essence, the comparative study of public administration apart from enabling uniformity and the achievement of basic principles that can enhance the field, also gives insights to peculiarities that characterize the diverse societies within which public administration is expected to function.

Despite the influence of global dynamics and national interdependency for economic development in backing up the gravitation towards the comparative study of public administration, the discipline has certain shortcomings inhibiting the development of its universal theories which include:

- The inability of the discipline to attain levels of viable practical application (Golembiewski, 1977);
- The failure to provide guidance to practitioners in solving problems and aiding developmental activities;
- The lack of clarity of the grand Comparative Public Administration theories that make it unable to adequately develop as a social science. This gap left administrative practitioners with a dearth of information with which to practicalize its postulations particularly since the theories lacked methodology and had not been subjected to empirical analysis (Golembiewski, 1977). Fried quoted in Polinaidu (2004) noted that

these flaws result from factors relating to the nature of the subject matter and the nature of the knowledge industry concerned with that subject matter.

Historically, the term, 'ecology' was coined in 1866 by the German biologist, Ernst Haeckel. In biology, ecology deals with the relationship between living organisms (plants and animals) and their environment. Gaus (1947) in his 'Reflections on Public Administration' first proposed the ecological approach to public administration. He pinpointed seven environmental factors (people, place, physical technology, social technology, wishes and ideas, catastrophe and personality) as key to explaining administrative behaviour and the way in which an administrative system functions. In the 1950s, interest in the study of the relevance and influence of ecology to public administration heightened. This arose out of the US technical assistance programmes and the desire to study the administrative patterns of the new, emergent independent nations in the Post World War II era. Focus was on the diverse effects of the social settings on their public administrations (Sharma et. al., 2011).

By 1961, Riggs in his book, '*The Ecology of Public Administration*' also published in 1961, explored the interaction between public administration and the environment in which it develops, from a comparative perspective (Ramesh and Augusto, 1984) thereby giving verve to deeper interests and concerted research into the cross-cultural settings of public administrations. This was as a result of his observations, experiences and analyses of situations within the public administrative ecologies of China, Thailand and the United States. Polinaidu (2004) further provided a clear insight for describing and understanding the application of the concept of ecology to public administration. He views it as 'Administrative Ecology' and explains it as concerned with the interactions, interdependencies and interconnections between the

administrative system and the existent socio-economic, cultural and political factors within the social system where the public administration is embedded.

In the work of Ezeani (2006), the ecology of public administration is studied under subheadings spanning the legal, ethical, technological, social, economic, political and cultural, etc. The legal environment influences public administration by regulating the activities of the employees and organizations through acts, financial regulations and codes of conduct (Ezeani, 2006). They set the tangible and intangible limits within which public administrators operate, guide the relationship between their roles and responsibilities to the society and design the quality and content of their feedback mechanisms. Ethics and social responsibility are closely linked. Ezeani (2006) further argued that the ethical environment encompasses how organizations respond to employees, shareholders, host communities and the quality and codes of conduct expected from both the management and other employees within the organization. They entail the social and ethical challenges and issues that go beyond profit and loss statements and condition behavior and decisions within organizations (Bedeian, 1986).

Bedeian's analysis placed more emphasis on the quality of behaviour and decision making that defines and stabilizes organizational relations and how these must supersede concern for profit. Every organization owes a responsibility to its immediate membership and to the society it is expected to serve. All services must be rendered within the highest possible level of morality, norms and justice. Matters bordering on ethics in public administration are handled by ombudsmen to ensure that the service providers and those to whom the services are provided are on a level playing field without one seeming to gain an upper hand over the other.

Technological revolutions took place in the second half of the 20th and beginning of the 21st centuries. They were based on two core technologies - the computer technology and the

communication technology - generally referred to as Information and Communication Technology (ICT). Technology to Ezeani (2006) influences the design, production, distribution and sale of goods and services. Certain organizational structures require and vary according to leadership, staffing and degree of need for technological know-how therefore influencing management policies and practices. Within organizations, the application of information technology to the communication process is referred to as Management Information System (MIS). It is commonly referred to as the integrated networks of information that support management decision making. Croft (1996) in highlighting the role of technology in modern administration posited that, 'technology has played a part in altering job design, taking over routine activities and increasing the demand for specialist staff. It reduces the need for multiple levels of government and aids communication, even on an international basis'.

Koontz et al (1983) referred to technology as being made up of, 'the sum total of knowledge we have of ways to do things. It includes inventions and the vast store of organized knowledge about everything...' Information technology has interfaced with bureaucratic processes and greatly influenced the practice of public administration to the extent that most government departments, agencies and parastatals today, insist on computer literacy as a prerequisite for employment. With the introduction of time and cost saving devices in the conduct of government business, public administration has moved on to a pedestal that should ensure the achievement of efficiency, effectiveness and equity for all concerned.

Public administration is conditioned by the economic policies of the government which can determine the economic system (socialism, capitalism, mixed economy, etc.) to be adopted, adapted to and practiced. This position is backed by Riggs (1961) who, in analyzing American public administration, observed that the public administration of any nation is patterned by its

economy and the economic needs of its market society. The economy in the present age cannot survive without the administrative system and the system is itself determined in many respects by the requirements and the stability of the economy. The administrative bureau is seen as a sort of market in which the participants seek to maximize the attainment of specific goals (Sharma et. al, 2011). The economic environment also implies the extent of economic development and situations within which the public administration is expected to function. A low level of economic development is usually accompanied by a low administrative capability. This in turn reinforces a low level of goal achievement especially in the economic life of the developing nations necessitating administrative reforms relevant for rapid economic development and modernization (Ramesh, 1979).

In developing countries, the state acts as the dominant change agent. Its capacity to carry out economic development programmes is a major determinant of outputs. In a bid to enhance its capability to achieve development goals, its administrative system usually tends toward the adoption of new sets of values (Sharma et. al., 2011). Ezeani (2006) viewed the economic environment of public administration of many developing economies as characterized by indebtedness to international financial institutions like the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank, poor per capita incomes, high poverty and inflation rates, poor wages and salaries and correspondingly low purchasing power of citizens in the face of price hikes. These culminate into very poor living standards that compromise life expectancy and the quality of their Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and Gross National Product (GNP). Furthermore the standing of a nation within the international system is determined by its economic strength and viability. Confronted with these realities, the public administrations of the developing nations must determinedly wriggle through the maze to ensure that the expectations of the provision of

goods and services to its citizens are met. The economies of developed countries on the other hand, are rarely inundated with these negative indices and in cases where they arise they put in motion, the relevant structures for cushioning the effects on the polity. As a result, there is an ever-widening incomparable gap in the levels of development of both sets of nations.

Politically, the environments of developing countries are not wholly segregated from the social milieu as bureaucratic behavior and functions are affected by extrinsic factors. Beck (1963) saw deviations from the behavioural and functional characteristics of the classical model of bureaucracy as attributable to the social values of a particular society and to the configuration of the polity in which the system of administration is embedded. The political cultures of these political systems are defined by a commonly held core of patterned beliefs and normative dispositions. These are directed at the structures and functions of the political systems which influence and define the behaviour of actors within the political system. Largely, the relationships between these indices are not static but dynamic and sequential in an on-going continuum (Vajpayee, 1983). These bring about formalism in the sense that the politicians are not solely policy makers and the administrators are non-neutral policy executors. This is in spite of the existence of formal laws that provide for clear distinctions between the administrative and political organs (Ramesh and Augusto, 1984) but are usually not upheld. In most cases, administrative procedures in these societies are more theoretical than practical. This perspective combines an understanding of formal administrative practices with an understanding of the political realities of administration in the public sectors (Peters, 1984) of the affected nations.

Political structures to control the public bureaucracy vary from country to country. In the United States, non-bureaucratic control has been institutionalized in the rule of law, separation of powers, fragmentation of the bureaucracy territorially (federal system) and functionally (separate

specialized agencies), political parties and the existence of centres of autonomous power organized around the market, church, schools, associations, class structures, etc. (Ramesh and Augusto, 1984). Pye (1963) described the political culture of such developed societies as upholding the doctrines of hierarchy and quality. The administrative structures have a hierarchical structuring of personnel and authority in a clearly formal organization in which the bureaucracy is brought under the control of the non-bureaucratic political machinery in order that a high level of administrative output is achieved (Ramesh and Augusto, 1984).

The political environments of developing countries are further characterized by levels of dysfunction in their economies and bureaucracies that are consequences of the unclear distinctions between the political and the administrative. Some of the governments are not fully democratic, and are uncommitted to good governance, sustainable development and the preservation of the society for posterity. Political instability and lack of policy continuity are prevalent and arise from frequent changes in government and a dearth of patriotism, national loyalty and commitment. Furthermore, loyalties to family, language, religion, caste or ethnic group diminish the commitment of the individual to the national political system and heighten the potentialities for political unrest as social dissensions escalate and political decision making becomes difficult (Peters, 1984).

Koontz et al (1983) analyzed the social environment as made up of the attitudes, desires, expectations, degrees of intelligence and education, beliefs and customs of people in a given group or society. There are also issues of social stratification whereby the society is divided into classes with each class having its own characteristics, values and expectations. The presence of these class structures define the society's mores, attitude towards change or reforms, religion, language, kinship groups like family or tribe, factors like means of transport and communication,

(Ramesh and Augusto, 1984), terms of social mobility, etc. which inadvertently affect public administration. For Sharma et al (2011), the human factor in public administration is the product of his society, more so because he imbibes the social values, ethos and traditions before he joins the public service. The point of view and attitude he acquires and develops within the social milieu considerably shape his decisions in the public service. Ezeani (2006) posited that change in behavior is an important factor in the social environment that conditions public administration in both developed and developing countries. This change is influenced by mitigating values. Puri (1985) noted that, ‘the administrator’s responsiveness can hardly be considered in isolation from his social background, values and attitudes which have tremendous influence on his decision-making, and the kind of people in society with whom he identifies himself’. Puri’s view is buttressed by Ramesh and Augusto (1984) who agreed that the influence of the social environment on public administration depends on the relative strength of special values developed by the administrative structure vis-à-vis the values of surrounding society.

Public administration can only be removed from or made to thrive over and above the influence of societal values if the administrative cultures, structures, values and procedures are better upheld and encouraged by the institution of the relevant modalities and enabling environments. This is obtainable in the developed societies where the political and administrative processes are clearly delineated. For developing nations there is either a thin line or no line at all dividing the employee and the values of the surrounding society from which he hails and to which he must be loyal while at the same time remaining loyal to the public administrative duties for which he is responsible.

In their discourse, Sharma et al (2011) evaluated public administration as culture-bound or shaped by its setting or environment. Thus it develops its own peculiar characteristics in

different cultural areas or environments depending on the variables or circumstances it is presented with. As Singh (1983) noted, it bears the unmistakable impact of the cultural milieu of the given time. The structures and functions of the public administration in different countries reveal that though there is manifest similarity in formal organizations, their informal and behavioural patterns possess considerable diversities each being shaped by its societal culture. Formal rules and rational ethos are studied in the wider context of the social and cultural milieu of which the bureaucracy is a part. Culture is subject to change and there is a constant interaction of culture and administration that redefines the role of government and public administration (Sharma et al., 2011). Gaus (1947) however contended that the interaction between culture and public administration is not unidirectional in which only culture and environment affect the administration, but bilateral.

These scholars' analyses show strong correlations that imply reciprocations as per the influence of the public administration on the culture and environment, and vice versa. As the environment evolves, the culture evolves and by extension, the public administration. These interactions, counter interactions and catalysis may further require the adaptation of man and material for the public administration to absorb the new trends, internalize them and in turn provide the requisite goods and services, within the parameters set by the intervening variables of culture and environment.

Riggs (1980) explained that 'by the ecology of administration, we may refer to ways in which the environment conditions the politico-administrative process...The environment of anything sets parameters for whatever it environs, and parameters must be viewed as both constraints that limit what can be done and, concurrently, as resources that may be used by decision makers'. Every phenomenon has interrelationships with other phenomena within the

environments that they are situated as they cannot exist or operate in isolation. In his view, Riggs (1980) described a more in-depth, potent relationship between phenomena and their environments than is captured by Ezeani (2006) in his discourse on public administrative ecology. His analysis focused on the role played by the environment in determining what can or cannot be done within a given system. It highlights the ways in which the environment shapes and directs the content of and roles played by inputs, throughputs, outputs and feedbacks as resources that define, influence or constrain the politico-bureaucratic processes in society.

Polinaidu (2004) quoted Riggs as further emphasizing that to better understand the real nature, operations and behavior of a particular administrative system, the various environmental factors influencing it must be identified and understood. The framework for Riggs (1964) study of the impact of the ecology on public administration especially in developing societies, derived from his evaluation of five aspects of American life – the economic [e.g. fiscal systems], the social [e.g. family, religious sects, social classes, etc.], the symbolic [e.g. myth, code, consensus], the communicative [e.g. literacy and newspaper circulation] and the political [e.g. change in the political regime, party composition of government, and the personality of political leaders] (Polinaidu, 2004). This view concurs with Gaus (1947) who emphasized the need to employ the concept of ecology in studying the necessary interdependence of the public bureaucracy and its environment though his analysis was exclusively confined to the American scene, limited to a broad identification of variations in administration in time and space (Ahmad, 1970). In systematic terms, the bureaucracy as a social institution continually interfaces with, is affected by and is constantly feeding back upon, the economic, political and socio-cultural sub-systems, in a society. Ramesh and Augusto (1984) described it as functioning both as a modifier on these systems as well as a system which is modified by their activities.

Public administrations are sub-systems of countries that interact with and are usually influenced and shaped by the environments in which they operate and are expected to serve. These environments differ at times in terms of form, levels of sophistication, civilization and content depending on whether they exist in developed or developing countries. The differences result from their historical, social and cultural backgrounds. These tend to dictate the philosophy, ethics, beliefs, values, symbols, myths, institutions, traditions, etc. that comprise the material and non-material culture and environment of the social systems, the bureaucracy inclusive. The concern about the influence of the environment on administration and politico-administrative processes has given rise to rigorous cross-cultural analyses and the ecological approach to the study of public administration.

Critics of the science of public administration contend that the public administrations of countries are influenced by their environments. As such, it is wrong to assume that a successful principle or practice of public administration drawn from one nation can be adopted with the expectation that it will work with equal success in another. Dahl (1947) with regard to the effects of the environment on administrative structure and behavior points out that public administration cannot escape the effects of the national psychology and the social, political and cultural environment in which it develops and as such, cultural factors are capable of making public administration on one part of the globe quite different from public administration on another. Dahl (1947) further stressed the need for cross-cultural studies noting that, '...as long as the study of public administration is not comparative, claims for a science of public administration sound rather hollow'. This is moreso because of the differences in societies and in the social structures that exist within them.

By classifying these social structures into three types (fused, prismatic and diffracted), Fred W. Riggs, based on the structural-functional approach, designed his model for analyzing the environment of public administration. Using the concept of ecology, Riggs (1957) first constructed two ideal models – ‘*agraria*’ and ‘*industria*’ as examples of imperial China and the contemporary United States and then ‘*transitia*’ for the transitional society standing between the ‘*agraria*’ and the ‘*industria*’. Subsequently, he evaluated the administrative systems in the United States, the Philippines and Thailand and subsumed the observed characteristics under the ‘diffracted’, ‘fused’ and ‘prismatic’ societies respectively representing the modern developed society, traditional society and the developing transitional society (Polinaidu, 2004). The ‘*agraria*’ and ‘*industria*’ models were discarded (Ramesh, 1979) due to their limitations arising from the fact that the overall focus was more on the environment of the administrative system than on its relationship with the administrative system itself. Riggs then developed the ‘fused-prismatic-diffracted’ model, employing the more manageable variables and key concepts of formalism, heterogeneity and overlapping (Polinaidu, 2004). His analyses took into account, the diversities and peculiar characteristics of public administration in each category. These peculiar characteristics are determined by and are the determinants of the content and quality of the national psychology of any society.

3.1.1 The Public Administrative Ecology of the More Developed Nations

The administrative sub-systems of some countries in Western Europe, North America, Scandinavia, Asia, and many others, are those that fall into the category of the more developed countries. They are usually characterized by political systems that are relatively stable and mature with fully developed bureaucracies that are large-scale, complex and instrumental

(Sharkansky, 1978) with a clear understanding of their functions as policy implementers. They are also highly professional with a corresponding high level of task specialization. This in Riggs' (1963) view made them highly differentiated political systems consisting of political structures in which control is exercised in conformity with laid down patterns. Countries like Canada, Britain and Australia are notable examples of societies in which the public administration is divorced from partisan considerations (Etzioni-Halevy, 1983; Dwivedi and Jain, 1985).

Sharkansky (1978) provided insights into the nature of environments of public administration found in the developed and developing societies. She presented them as composites comprised of certain generalizable characteristics. For the developed countries, these characteristics include that they formulate the rules and define the targets which the administrative structures implement. Political and administrative decision making roles are clearly defined, are made according to secular standards of rationality and are the concerns of politicians and administrators respectively to the exclusion of the traditional elites. Modern technology is applied to virtually all bureaucratic and public administrative functions to be performed. Role assignments and change of leadership are legitimate, according to prescribed and orderly procedures and the personal achievements of the individuals than according to family status or social class thus encouraging a universal system of achievement orientation that leaves little or no room for favouritism, nepotism, etc.

Government activity that extends over a wide range of public and personal affairs encourages an appreciable level of political socialization evidenced by popular interest and involvement in public affairs and effective mobilization for participation in decision making and executing processes. Transparency and accountability are virtues that are upheld in these societies. Their governmental units are functional, systematic and structurally developed such

that they have the capacity to adjust to social or economic change and acquire new capabilities to meet with new demands. Also, the occupants of political or governmental leadership positions are widely viewed as legitimate holders of the positions and leadership changes occur according to prescribed and orderly procedures. Roles are assigned according to the personal achievements of individuals rather than according to family status or social class (Sharkansky, 1978).

Polinaidu (2004) saw the developed societies, especially of the West, as characterized by egalitarianism and democratic cultures that encourage the development of degrees of equality among the administrative decision-makers. Within these societies, the public administration is influenced by the advancements and developments in science and technology in the handling of complex problems that may demand complex solutions in the management of human affairs. Also, most of the highly developed and widespread infrastructure are owned and managed by private organizations. As such, the pragmatic, production-oriented public administrators play a limited role of regulating the private sector to promote accelerated development and ensure effective and efficient social service delivery (Polinaidu, 2004). The administrative roles are also highly specialized and differentiated such that spheres of competence are well defined and hierarchical relationships are clearly understood. Though the bureaucracy does not operate as an autonomous unit but rather responds to external controls from legitimate political authorities, it may tend towards self-direction in achieving its objectives if the need arises. However, the public administrators will normally not run afoul of the laws because of the realities of the consequences of such actions (Polinaidu, 2004).

Public administration in developed countries is largely guided by duly spelt out administrative procedures and codes of conduct which prescribe their ethics and responsibilities. The policy makers are politicians with a clear understanding of what is expected of them and the

roles they are expected to play in contributing their own quota to the development of their societies. The distinction of roles between the administrative and political class presents a situation of near-impossibility of the occurrence of the overlap that exists in Riggs Prismatic society. Most modern, contemporary and advanced societies are heterogeneous in nature reflecting the dynamics of society brought on by the influence of globalization, political and socio-economic developmental activities.

However, unlike in the developing societies, each activity and responsibility occupies clear boundaries that fall within the purviews of both the administrative and the political classes so that the one does not exact any undue influence on the workings of the other. Also within these advanced societies, traditional institutions rarely exist unlike in the developing societies. Where they do, like in the United States, Canada, Australia, etc., where there are Native American and Aboriginal groups, they are given their own responsibilities, have their representatives and understand the boundaries within which they must function and relate to the higher level formal governments. They rarely or do not exert any influence on the workings of the political and administrative structures that are saddled with the day to day running and maintenance of the affairs of government.

3.1.2 The Public Administrative Ecology of the Less Developed Nations

For the developing societies, Sharkansky (1978) posited that the bureaucracy plays a dominant role though there is a heavy reliance on the public sector for leadership as all sectors are not equally developed. This arises from a shortage of manpower, lack of continuity and incongruence of policies and in some cases, civil unrest. Developmental goals are not broad-

based but are skewed in favour of ideology revolving around increase in agricultural and industrial production, raising living standards, the status of women and national consolidation.

There are also gaps between the modernizing and the traditional elites. The former are urban, western-oriented, new generation young elites committed to economic, social and political change while the latter are rural, oriented to local customs, indigenous, religious and opposed to change. The modernizing elite patterns thrive best at the centre and in the higher levels of society, while the traditional patterns persist vigorously at the periphery, in the rural hinterlands and at the lower levels of society. These gaps, for Riggs (1963), produced a mixture of both with new forms characteristic of neither the Western nor the traditional institutional systems. In Nigeria for example, this is evident in the membership of the traditional elite being also constituted of individuals from the modernizing elite class such that modernity is interwoven with traditions and customs and by extension, with the political and administrative processes (Hota, 1984).

Bureaucracies are designed such that they are ideally politically neutral and impartial, having own identities and interests, and removed from the domain of partisanship. A bureaucracy must therefore, be a social class in a category of its own with the maintenance of its identity and solidarity as its important goal (Ali and Sharma, 1983). These ideals have been challenged by the growth of democratic political systems and a corresponding rise in the trend of public administrators affiliating themselves individually or collectively, with political parties or groups in pursuit of gain. These affiliations reflect in the way they conduct government business and influences public policy and programme implementation (Sharma et. al., 2011). The fallout of this is that the public administrators having developed their own social and political links (Ali and Sharma, 1983), become an 'integrated bureaucratic elite' which on the bases of information,

technical expertise, position, and policy ideas, increases its control over policy making and seeks to determine who gets what, when, where and why (Peters, 1984).

In India for instance, the regulations prohibit the involvement of public servants in party politics, etc., yet as Puri (1985) noted, the extent of bureaucratic involvement in policy making is exceptionally high, influenced by politics and party activities (Sharma et. al., 2011). Kaushik, (1984) quoted in Sharma et al (2011) noted that the bureaucracy in India has had an age-long experience of being used by the ruling parties for party ends resulting in an unprecedented level of administrative politicization that permeates all levels from the Union Cabinet to the Gram Panchayat. This politicization was also reflective in the willingness of Indian public servants to oblige influential politicians and close associates favours regardless of the law, rules and regulations while maintaining the Weberian impersonal attitude and style of functioning when relating to the common man (RangaRao, n. d.). Kingsley (1963) in highlighting the Nigerian example stressed the extent to which these affiliations affect even minute details like the preferences given in recruitments into the civil services such that they are affected by considerations described in India as ‘sons-of-the-soil’ policies.

In Nigeria, these influences still exist and sometimes, constitute the latent pivotal forces on which the bureaucracy is run. Politico-economic, ethno-linguistic and socio-cultural cleavages define the landscape on which major developmental decisions are made with regard to governance in Nigeria. In fact, they underlie the further division of the country into six geo-political zones by the Obasanjo civilian administration of 1999-2007. The formulation of the major political parties also reflected the three dominant ethnic groups – Ibo, Hausa and Yoruba - at the inception of Nigeria’s Fourth Republic even though they had membership drawn from the various states of the federation. This scenario was also reminiscent of Nigeria’s First Republic in

which the ruling political parties were divided along ethnic lines reflecting the Hausa (Northern Peoples Congress- NPC), Ibo (National Coalition of Nigerian Citizens- NCNC) and Yoruba (Action Group - AG) despite claiming to be concerned with the good of all (St. Jorre,1972). In the Fourth republic, the Peoples Democratic Party (PDP), the Alliance for Democracy (AD) and the All Progressives Grand Alliance (APGA) also came across as representing the Hausa (North), the Yoruba (South-West) and the Ibo (South-East) respectively. However, several other groups regarded as the minority groups like the Ijaw, the Ibibio, etc. chose to go with the PDP which at the time wielded enormous power and influence to avoid being eclipsed or swallowed by the murky waters of Nigeria's politics. The trend in Nigerian politics is such that the party and politicians in power are the be-all and end-all. At the snap of their fingers, their wishes get done because virtually everyone, the bureaucracy inclusive, is at their beck and call and they have the audacity to hire and fire at will. Overtime, the usual cracks began to appear in the walls of the party arising from power tussles and spats among disgruntled politicians leading to carpet-crossing, new alliances being formed and the names of the political parties being changed to reflect their new identities and ideologies.

La Palombara (1963) in studying developing societies highlighted the involvement of the bureaucracy in factions and party politics with the political elite always finding allies in the bureaucracy. This relationship resonates in the balance of power within the bureaucracy when there are shifts in political power and reflects the role of the bureaucracy in determining these shifts. Inadvertently therefore, only a thin line or no line at all demarcates the public administrators from the politicians, policy makers and party politics particularly within the developing societies. Riggs (1980) described the bureaucratic elite in developing societies as playing contradictory roles in the formulation and implementation of public policies. He assessed

them as promoting the formulation of the public policies only to block their implementation simply because their expediency interests clash with their programmatic goals thereby leading to a ‘catch-22’ or double-bind situation. In essence, they carry out their administrative functions of policy formulation but the performance of their political functions is to the extent that they are not taking the corrective actions against themselves or challenging their abuse of power.

Unlike the environments of the developed countries which are politically and economically specialized and stable, technologically and knowledgeably advanced, having apolitical bureaucratic and administrative structures, those of the developing countries appear to be ‘muddling through’ (Sharma, et al., 2011). They derive their form and design from those of the developed nations as against local content with which citizens can easily identify. Knowledge-transfer to developing countries is based on ‘best’ practices designed by the developed nations that may not necessarily be successful practices when applied. This ignorance leads to over-duplication of functions and an inability to effectively manage the knowledge which results in a waste of resources.

Eisenstadt (1963) assessed the administrative and bureaucratic structures of most developing countries as either non-colonial or colonial in nature and summarized them as largely characterized by imitative rather than indigenous patterns of administration. As a result, what they are in form is derived from what is obtainable in the developed countries but the practical realities are a great departure from the ‘norm’. At inception, they were highly centralized with small amounts of internal differentiation and functions limited to basic administrative services like revenue and law and order. They functioned within the established framework of modern legal and administrative practices, were highly apolitical and served the purposes of the politically irresponsible colonial masters. At the attainment of independence, new civil services

were developed in terms of personnel, goals, departments and activities. They epitomized nationalist movements which bore new goals of economic development, social and educational advancement, more articulate political orientation and a sense of political responsibility than did the former colonial civil service.

Riggs (1980) adopted Maslow's Needs theory in questioning the universality of principles and practices in administration. He evaluated Maslow's analysis as implying that what an individual needs most may not be what every other person needs most. In applying it to administrative development, he asserted that no particular need is universally uppermost in the minds of decision makers and as such, what is urgently needed in one society is not necessarily the same as what other societies need. He further analyzed the environments of societies as undergoing constant processes of change which inadvertently affect their hierarchy of needs and the choices they make through their politico-administrative apparatuses. Riggs (1980) further upheld that in keeping with the Maslowian perspective, it will not be out of place to stress that a practice deemed necessary and workable in a society at a given time may actually be unnecessary and unworkable in another society. Based on these considerations, he posited that the traditional principles of public administration have limited relevance to the problems of most developing countries. This is more so as they were particularly designed to meet the needs of the Western industrialized countries, notably the USA, within the ecological parameters of their own environments. On this note, it becomes imperative that the quality and contexts of our policies, reforms and strategies be reviewed to reflect indigenous content and be home grown to a large extent so that they are able to adequately tackle the problems from the right perspectives.

Further, the bureaucracies of developing societies at times have more responsibilities for development than the required human, technological and material resources to carry them out

resulting in lots of discontinued policies and projects, and so on. Their ecological parameters encompass environments in which there is insufficient leeway for innovation, things are done repetitively and routinely and a lack of spontaneous responsiveness to emergent situations pervades the systems. Tendencies are towards projects that do not adequately reflect the desires of the citizens but are rather concerted efforts to replicate the ideas determined, implemented in and suggested by the more developed societies. Sectors like manufacturing are comatose in most of these countries which are reduced to being exporters of raw materials and importers of finished products. Ironically, the public administrative ecologies of the developing 'imitating' nations are lacking in the human, material and institutional capacity to actually replicate or implement the ideas. Besides this, other maladies tug at the core of the public administrations of developing societies further frustrating the attempts towards making meaningful advancements.

The over-reliance on the bureaucracy for the achievement of developmental goals and programme objectives results in high incidences of frustrated goals arising from a deficiency in the technological know-how and skilled manpower necessary for the conduct and oversight of these processes. They have operational autonomy but lack political responsiveness. They are very hierarchical and are dominated by elite groups with ideological dispositions to development, etc. that are politically, culturally and socially determined and in most instances, unrepresentative of the citizenry. The bureaucracy in these climes does not really focus on the achievement of programme objectives and are sometimes forced to operate within political landscapes tainted with instability and violent conflicts caused by poverty, economic frustrations and feelings of discrimination among members of diverse ethnic, tribal, linguistic and religious groups. Their functions are also inhibited by high levels of corruption, nepotism, etc., that result in almost intractable administrative ineptitude.

Pye (1965) concluded his review by stating that the implication of Riggs' analysis is that it proves that people do what they commonly do in transitional societies because that is where the payoffs lie for them and not because of any lingering 'hold of tradition'. Thus, 'development' toward 'modernization' cannot be expected as long as people, who can do something about it, will be hurt more than helped by such 'development'. This position rings true when juxtaposed with the realities on ground in the struggling developing countries. Ahmad (1970) stressed that the developed countries uphold the separation of politics and administration with emphasis on bureaucrat 'focused' reform, training, checks on maladministration, etc. but such measures can only prove effective in developing countries if their politics is reformed. Many times, the human and material resources necessary for their development exist but are impeded by unfavourable political and socio-economic policies and the activities of cabals which stand to gain from the worsening socio-economic situation in these societies.

Nigeria under the last administration led by Dr. Goodluck Ebele Jonathan is a case in point. Most notable of the stranglehold of cabals on the developmental policies of government is the recently uncovered overwhelming corruption involving a USD2.1 billion arms deal in the much-publicized 'Dasukigate'. These funds meant to be utilized to purchase arms for prospecting the war on terror and to counter the insurgency led by the dreaded Boko Haram group in Nigeria's North-East region unfortunately became largesse for personal aggrandizement in the hands of a select few (Agande, 2016; PremiumTimes, 2016). Also, many of Nigeria's oil wells are the private property of individuals. As a result, the income generated from these wells goes to the purses of these individuals while a considerable percentage of Nigerians living below poverty line in an economy that has taken a downturn with glaring threats of recession (Amaize, 2016).

3.2 NIGERIA'S PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

3.2.1 The Ecology of Nigeria's Public Administration

Mukoro (2005) in his assessment of Nigeria's public administration highlighted and backed the points raised by Obasanjo in his inaugural message in 1999. While mirroring the propositions of Sharkansky (1978), he also analyzed the structure, processes and output of Nigeria's public administration from the standpoint of the pressures and influences with which it is inundated. In his article, '*The impact of the environment on Nigeria's public administration*', he raised three study questions, with the third, 'How much has the myriad environmental problems in the Nigerian nation really impinged on the performance of government vis-a-vis the value with which the citizens regard the government' closely relating to the focus of this research. His analysis though based on the systems theory, also focused on the environment as a major attribute of the poor performance of Nigeria's public administration as well as the effects on society. He noted that the systems theory emphasized the whole rather than parts thereby creating 'a need to recognize and fully understand the interdependence which exists between an organization and its environment'.

Mukoro (2005) listed the critical factors as encompassing the size and structure of the nation's population, the ethnic heterogeneity of the society, the multiplicity of religious values and beliefs, work ethics and attitudes, cultures and history. He noted that these shape and are shaped by the socio-cultural, political, pressure and interest groups, trade unions, economic, national and international environments all of which are subsumed under broader political, economic and socio-cultural environmental factors. In lamenting the non-viability of planning and policy making processes that has resulted in the failure of several national development programmes, Mukoro pointed out that the nation's economic woes arise from the attitude of

Nigeria to the discovery of oil and the neglect of agriculture, the rural areas and the development process. This he stated, quoting Mabogunje (1960), resonated in the over-urbanization that turns the urban areas to parasites that drain the rural areas.

Mukoro (2005) in his assessment of the effect of the socio-cultural factors on Nigeria's public administration, began with an entry point that highlighted the argument of Riggs (1964) that 'most developing countries exist in environments where the traditional and modern ways of doing things co-exist'. Elaigwu (2011) also noted that traditional rulership has intricate networks in the public services, governments and even the private sector that result from the wild craving for traditional legitimacy among elites in urban societies in Nigeria. The request for, the purchase of and the reward of politicians, public servants and others as they attain heights in their careers with these traditional titles has led to a modernization of the traditional institutions and a traditionalization of the modern sector. This has expanded the frontiers of influence of the 'traditional rulers' within the modern sector such that they wield power across both the traditional and bureaucratic elite circles (Hota, 1984; Elaigwu, 2011). The concept of old, illiterate traditional rulers upholding ancient traditional practices has gradually faded away and the institution has been replaced by a crop of seasoned, enlightened and accomplished public servants interested in traditional rulership positions. Some of those within this constantly expanding category include Oba Akenzua of Benin, HRH Professor Edozien of Asaba, the Shehu of Borno, the former Central Bank of Nigeria governor Alhaji Lamido Sanusi, the Sultan of Sokoto Alhaji Sa'ad Abubakar, the Och'Idoma HRH Ikoi Obekpa, the Tor Tiv Sir Alfred Torkula and in Jos, the Gbong Gwom Jos HRM Jacob Gyang Buba, a native of the Berom ethnic group. In fact, there are some members (not listed here) of this elite group of traditional rulers who have even gone on to acquire the rank of MNI (Member, National Institute) from the

National Institute of Policy and Strategic Studies (NIPSS). Forms of penetration of the traditional institutions into modernity also highlighted by Elaigwu (2011) are the appointment of traditional rulers as Chancellors of universities, Chairmen of Boards of Parastatals and as mediators and agents of peace in crises situations and spats between politicians. Overtime, their credibility, utility, adaptive capabilities and durability in society have evolved in response to the exigencies of modernity, time (Elaigwu, 2011), political education and mobilization and the challenges of political, socio-economic and ethno-religious inter- and intra-communal conflicts.

Mukoro (2005) also noted that the problems of communication, political mobilization, ethical and ethnic confusion, etc. also exacerbate the confusion brought about by religious fanaticism and tribal and clan allegiance. These are then worsened by the actions and activities of the ruling elite which combine to make the policy process a herculean task. He went further to assert that within the Nigerian politics and administration typology, the political class has formed a cabal. They are very few in number and continue to rotate themselves in government thereby ingraining an unspoken rule that the rise to fame, wealth, power, etc. of virtually all senior government officials and public officers is through the agency of the state (Mukoro, 2005).

Egwu (2015) highlighted the description by Joseph (1978) and Falola and Ihonvbere (1985) of state offices as prebends which are appropriated by office holders to generate material benefits for themselves, their constituents and their kin. He noted that the term, 'prebendalism' was devised by Joseph (1978) specifically to describe Nigerian politics under the Second Republic, the characteristics of which has remained the dominant system. It implies the distribution of public positions to elite in order for them to gain wealth from the operation of the office (Joseph, 1978). Amuwo (1996) further expounded these analyses by describing appointment to public offices in Nigeria as God sent and a life time opportunity to once and for all, break the bondage

of poverty with little or no thought for whether or not the appointee performs. Indeed, this erodes the virtue of performance since the criteria for evaluating performance no longer has anything to do with how well or how badly the job is done. Performance is evaluated on the basis of material self-actualization of the appointee, accentuated comfort of his family and how well the appointee relates to his friends (Amuwo, 1996). Sadly, as noted by Hota (1984), many of these individuals who attain the heights in such circumstances are rewarded with traditional titles and wield power across both the traditional and bureaucratic elite circles. Ahmad (1970) asserted that contrary to the industrialized societies where the bureaucrats are tools for the advancement of the society, in the developing countries, they are the masters. This leads to the institution of a ruling class that largely fails to keep the sovereign obligation that they owe to the people in that it lacks Utopia, has no vision and dreams no great dreams (Mukoro, 2005).

These indices inherent within Nigeria's public administration ecology, when juxtaposed with the characteristics of Riggs Fused-Prismatic-Diffracted Model, bring the components particularly of the Prismatic society, to life. Heterogeneity is reflected in the fact that within Nigerian societies, there is a mix of the urban, semi-urban and the rural areas and their activities are sometimes merely demarcated by streets. At the higher levels, there are traditional heads who oversee land and other administrative matters within these areas alongside the designated government ministries. These culminate in an overlap of roles, responsibilities and functions and sometimes conflicts emanate because of the coexistence of archaic and formal political structures and the numerous paradoxes that follow (Riggs, 1961). The paradoxes largely constitute the 'non-administrative criteria' which Riggs identified and Amuwo (1996) evaluated as having the capacity to influence and determine administrative behaviour. The cabals are reflective of the 'clects' that Riggs (1961) defined as groups which make use of modern associational methods of

organization but retain diffuse and particularistic goals of a traditional type. They are made up of individuals bound together by relationships that go beyond just the administrative. This way, they hobnob with the traditional and other elite and familial groups in relationships that erode the doctrines of formalism. Laid down codes of conduct are either bent or sidelined in a bid to achieve their individual or collective goals and sometimes, even the goals of the government. With their government positions, they are able to curry or grant favours indicative of the extent of their influence, such that their powers are retained and equilibrium is maintained in society.

Riggs' (1961) in explaining heterogeneity, also noted that overtime there are agitations among the competing ethnic, religious, political, intellectual, elite or social interest groups within prismatic societies like Nigeria. These are in response to and result from an ambition to either break the prolonged hold of the cabal over the means of attaining prestige, power and wealth or to attain membership of the cabal or elite class. Where these fail, dissatisfaction heightens and tensions mount. Counter-elite groups seeking to displace the elite cabal in power are formed that are able to transform diffuse revolutionary tensions into organized revolutionary movements and revolts.

As mentioned earlier, Nigeria is indisputably Africa's most populous country with an estimated population of over 172 million people (Mngomezulu, 2013). The diversity of the country is evidenced in its current composition of various ethno-linguistic groups which are estimated at five hundred (500) (Gaadi, 2014) spread across seven hundred and seventy four (774) local government areas. The polarization of the country between the North, South-West and South as well as the Muslim and Christian orientation (PBS Newshour, 2007; Pew Forum, 2011) makes nation-building a mammoth task for the country's political leadership. This reality

led to the adoption, at the time, of a federal system of government by the British to ease the encumbrances associated with the administration of the colony and later, the country.

Over the years, several groups, dissatisfied with the succeeding governments especially during Nigeria's Fourth Republic, began to agitate for causes that were deemed to be of interest to the regions they claimed to represent. These groups desiring to displace the elite class, are resplendent of Riggs' 'counter-elite' and 'dissatisfied intelligentsia' formed in response to real and perceived grievances perpetrated by those in and with some form of socio-economic and political power in Nigeria. There were intermittent and sometimes violent disturbances in the Niger Delta area, the hub of Nigeria's economic activity occasioned by extensive oil reserves on which the nation has depended since the natural resource was discovered and explored. Katsouris and Sayne (2013) posited that oil theft has been the major cause of violent conflict in the Niger Delta. These were championed by notable groups like the Movement for the Emancipation of the Niger Delta (MEND) whose leader, Henry Okah, is currently jailed in the Kuje Prisons, Abuja, for treasonable offences. It is the most recent of all the agitating groups in the Niger-Delta. Its concern as with all the others has been with the exploitation of the region and the resultant underdevelopment and environmental degradation arising from the oil exploration activities of the transnational corporations and the neglect of the oil-producing communities, by the Federal Government of Nigeria (Hanson, 2007; The Economist, 2008; Umoh, 2013). The Movement for the Survival of the Ogoni People (MOSOP) whose leader, Ken Saro-Wiwa, was killed by the Abacha-led military regime for anti-government activities in 1995 also had the same objectives but was basically a nonviolent group (Ogoni Bill of Rights, 1991). There were also other nameless and faceless militant groups in the region led by individuals like AsariDokubo, Tompolo, and so on.

The proliferation of these groups is widely viewed as the response of the aggrieved community youths to state negligence of her basic responsibilities to the people of the oil producing communities, poor supervision of crude oil sales at the export terminals, inadequate security and monitoring of oil facilities, weak legal framework and international illegal oil traders (Wilson, 2014) thereby prompting the people of the Niger-Delta region to find a panacea for their endemic problems (Mngomezulu, 2013). The other regions in the country also had groups like Oodua Peoples Congress (OPC) in the Yoruba-dominated South-West which agitated for the actualization of the annulled June, 12, 1993 mandate of the now deceased, Chief M. K. O. Abiola and for the fair treatment of the downtrodden, while the secessionist Movement for the Actualization of the Sovereign State of Biafra (MASSOB) in the Igbo-dominated South-East canvassed for the secession of the region to form the State of Biafra. This same reason had led to a bitter three-year civil war between 1967 and 1970 (Gaadi, 2014) that resulted from the efforts of the Nigerian government to stop the move.

Lately, the activities of insurgent groups employing guerilla tactics like Boko Haram in the North-East have added to Nigeria's social, economic and political ills. The group was founded in 2002 and has been the limelighter of Islamic militancy with operations mainly in Northern Nigeria (Johnson, 2011). Clashes that resulted in the killing of their leader, Mohammed Yusuf, in 2009 marked a significant turning point which cemented the Boko Haram group's resort to violence. Yusuf was said to have been assaulted, brutalized and dehumanized before he was killed extra judicially. Consequently, many members of the sect were determined to avenge the unfair circumstances surrounding his death (Ivanov, 2014).

In a way, the Boko Haram insurgency exemplifies the tragedy that a singular act of impunity can cause a nation. The lesson to be learnt is clear: impunity should never be

encouraged. Security agencies should endeavour to observe the basic tenets of the rule of law and respect for fundamental human rights in the treatment of suspects in their custody. The observation of Professor Akin Oyeboade (2012) on this point is apt and instructive:

...where and when every member of society is assured of his day in court, there would be no room or justification for terrorist acts. However, denial of justice and resort to terrorist acts by the government itself could well provide much-needed ammunition to forces that do not wish it well and who may now insist on a policy of “fighting fire with fire.

The Boko Haram group, before they started attacking the armouries of the Nigerian Army for even more sophisticated weapons, operated with superior weaponry bringing to mind, the fears expressed by Mngomezulu (2013) that the proliferation of heavy arms in the Niger-Delta, if left unchecked could filter into other parts of the country and jeopardize national safety. The group has been accused of taking advantage of the deeply ingrained sectarianism to incite a civil war in Nigeria (Zenn, 2011). Their activities have led to the wanton loss of lives and property with citizens who are resident in the North-East, North-West and North-Central (where Plateau State is located) regions constantly living in morbid fear, apprehensive of where the next target of attacks will be.

Asides the presence of the potent, terrorist Boko Haram group, pockets of conflagrations with political, ethnic and religious undertones also dot Nigeria’s landscape fueled by dissatisfaction, distrust and perceived discriminations in the areas of political and economic resource allocation. In Plateau state, there have also been incidences of nocturnal attacks by armed bands of Fulani herdsmen in the hinterlands that have led to a colossal loss of lives and property. The Fulani herdsmen on the other hand, rated the fourth deadliest terrorist group in the

world (Global Terrorism Index, 2015), are reported to have taken more lives in Nigeria, than the Boko Haram - an estimated 60,000 lives lost since 2001 as against 17,000 lost to the Boko Haram insurgency since 2009 (Obaji, 2016). The herdsmen have since 2001, engaged in deadly clashes with pastoralists, and indigenous farmers especially within the Middle-Belt cum North Central region of the country. The violent clashes continue as massacres conducted by the Fulani herdsmen have in turn generated revenge killings especially by their Christian opponents who assess the attacks largely from a religious rather than an economic perspective. The incessant attacks spanned about fifteen years (2001-2016) leaving fear, death and destruction in their wake to the extent that till date, some of the affected communities are still uninhabited because natives had abandoned them for safety (Obaji, 2016).

These differentials and incompatibility of values underlie the dissatisfaction which Riggs (1961) explained as affecting the intelligentsia who are neither able to break into the elite groups nor displace the traditional values. The consequence is that they constitute themselves into organized counter-elite groups and revolutionary movements using revolts as a means of expressing their grievances, challenging the existing status quo and possibly displacing the elites (Riggs, 1961). The Hausa-Fulani and Boko Haram groups at whatever levels of operation easily fit into this description of counter-elite groups that developed as a result of perceived grievances against and to discomfit the ruling elite, and destabilize the polity.

The government has failed in its duty to protect lives and property of the majority of its citizens, create opportunities for employment and self-advancement, or bring justice and compensation for those wronged. This loophole has pushed the citizens into trying by any means possible to gain revenge, as well as to achieve and provide for themselves, what the government has failed to (Rawling, 2013). These are contained in calls made by individuals including the

first son of the late Biafran warlord, Debe Odimegwu Chukwuemeka Ojukwu, the Agbekoya group and the Ekiti state governor, Ayo Fayose, on members of communities in the South-Eastern and South-Western areas affected by these Fulani attacks to adopt measures of self-help in the face of government failures to effectively protect them (Obineche, 2016). These are the fallouts of blatant corrupt administrative and financial practices in high places, propagated and authenticated by the relationships between the political and bureaucratic elite groups and encouraged by the traditional elites whom the natives accuse of insensitivity to their plight (Umoh, 2016).

This analogy clearly reflects and represents the ethno-religious, cultural and political diversities and perhaps, the interests of the polity spread across the six (6) geo-political zones of the country. These characteristics of the contemporary Nigerian state did not spring up in the recent years of her history. They go back to the era of the first republic when as noted by Kingsley (1963) political and cultural considerations attended the preferences being given in the recruitment of the locals from northern Nigeria into the civil services while a significant number of southerners, particularly Ibos were dismissed from the northern services thus fanning the embers of division and disharmony. At the time also, Nigeria's political development and bureaucratic evolution were tainted by the identification of political parties with particular tribes and regions and religious differences between the Muslim North and predominantly Christian South resulting in striking contrasts in the social organizations and the ways of life between the North and the South. Today, these factors characterize the Nigerian state and her identity nationally and internationally.

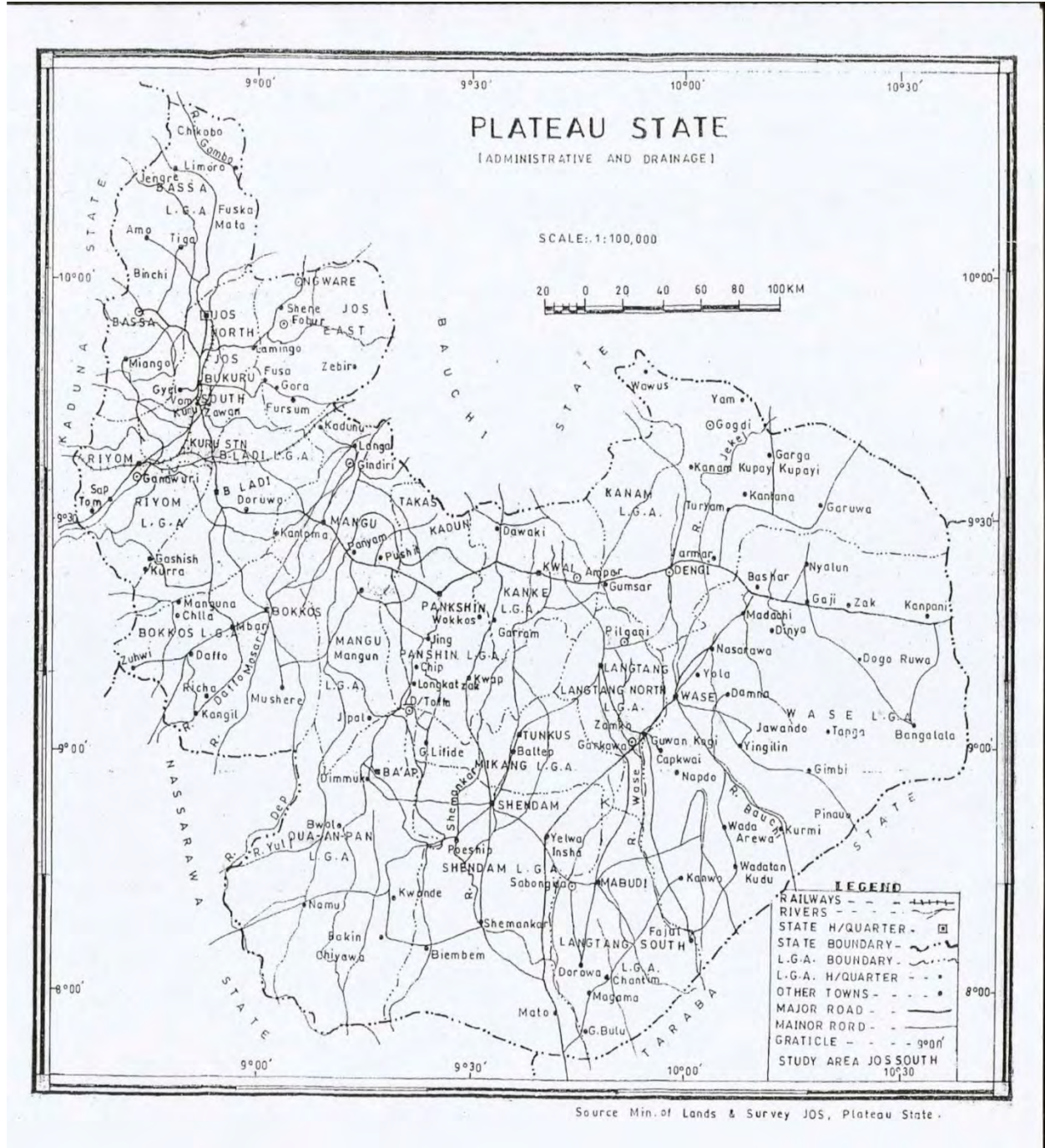
Within the states, there are also agitations by minority ethnic groups decrying their marginalization and neglect by the respective state governments. At times, these result in

conflagrations and levels of political instability that sometimes threaten the government at the centre. Several political analysts have assessed the activities and proliferation of these groups and pockets of crisis at individual state levels as a response to the hunger, endemic corruption, bad governance and many failures of leadership to which the polity has been exposed by the successive governments that Nigeria has been ruled by. These indices are recurrent decimals within the ecology of Nigeria's public administration. That is not to say the prospects of the ecology are entirely grim, overly pessimistic and wrought with only negativity but sadly, they are the day to day realities which the average Nigerian, including the public sector worker must endeavour to surmount.

3.2.2 The Ecology of the Plateau State Civil Service

Plateau State is one of Nigeria's thirty-six (36) states. It occupies an area of about 30,913 square kilometres which makes it the twelfth largest state in the country, geographically (Physical setting, 2003). It is divided into seventeen local government areas spread across three senatorial zones (Plateau north, Plateau south and Plateau central) and inhabited by about fifty-two ethnolinguistic groups (Abari, 2011). Some of the ethnic groups are spread over more than one local government area thereby narrowing the total number of ethnic groups to thirty-six.

Figure 3.1: The Map of Plateau State:



Source: Plateau State Ministry of Lands and Survey, 2016.

The names of the local governments and the senatorial districts under which they fall are emboldened while the corresponding ethnic groups/tribes found within their vicinities are listed thus:

Barkin Ladi (North): Berom, Ganang, Ron, Kulere.

Bassa (North): Irigwe, Rukuba, Amo, Buji, Chawai.

Bokkos (Central): Ron, Kulere, Mushere.

Jos East (North): Afizere.

Jos North (North): Berom, Anaguta, Afizere.

Jos South (North): Berom.

Kanam (Central): Bogghom, Jar, Ngas, Taroh.

Kanke (Central): Ngas.

Lantang North (South): Taroh.

Langtang South (South): Taroh.

Mangu (Central): Mwaghavul, Pyem, Rumada, Afizere, Berom, Mupun.

Mikang (South): Tehli, Youm, Koenem, Piapung.

Pankshin (Central): Ngas, Mupun, Chip, Kadung.

Qua'an-pan (South): Doemak, Kwagalak, Mernyang, Goemai, Jagatnoeng.

Riyom (North): Berom, Ateng.

Shendam (South): Goemai.

Wase (South): Boghom, Jukun, Basharawa, Taroh, Burum, Fulani (Abari, 2011).

The extent of ethno-diversity inherent in Plateau state is such that allows the characteristics described as prevalent in Nigeria's public administration to thrive. The first governor of the state in Nigeria's fourth republic which commenced in 1999 hailed from Bokkos LGA in the Plateau central senatorial zone and served for two four-year terms from 1999 to 2007 after which a governor from the northern senatorial zone took office also for two terms running from 2007 to 2015. Toward the end of his tenure, there were speculations, schemes and agitations from the southern and northern zones on whose turn it was to legitimately take over. The southern zone claimed legitimacy insisting that they were next in line to complete the cycle, a move surprisingly backed by the Coalition for Concerned Plateau Northern Youths in the interest of equity, fairness, justice and inclusiveness. On the other hand, the northern zone backed by the Plateau North Political Front, championed the cause for a new cycle to begin (in reverse) from the northern zone on the grounds that they had completed the cycle which had begun in the truncated third republic with a governor from the southern zone (Alao and Sadiq, 2014). In fact, the frenzy led to apprehensions that focused all eyes on the governor, Jonah David Jang, at the twilight of his tenure, with regard to his chosen candidate and successor.

Incidences as these bordering on god-fatherism, cronyism, nepotism, favouritism, partisanship and other forms of corruption have thrived in the state from 1999 when Nigeria embraced democracy up until the period under review and to date. Politics in Nigeria, though appearing to go by the rules is in reality, bereft of decorum and patriotism. This trend, a connotation of Riggs' formalism (Riggs, 1961) that highlights the differences between procedure and practice, plays out at the centre, directly or indirectly influencing politics at the periphery. It bears heavily on the capacity of the public administration at all levels to function optimally. Loyalties are displaced, leading to the frustration or strangulation of purpose-specific policy

formulation and implementation processes either as a result of incompetence or shoddiness arising from lack of effective supervision. The domino effect is the sacrifice of the social, economic and political good of the people to the whims and caprices of a 'chosen few' who operate as the cabal described by Riggs (1961) as the 'intelligentsia'.

Plateau state, a tourist delight with beautiful topography encompassing highlands, lowlands, and rocks, has plains and vast lands spread out for kilometers in some areas. As such, it is described as, 'the home of peace and tourism'. It is also one of Nigeria's solid mineral producing areas as tin, tantalite, etc. are mined in the state. These mining activities and the colonial era which brought them about are blamed for contributing greatly both to the dispossession of the Berom, Anaguta and Afizere (BAA) natives and destruction of extensive lands that would have been cultivated for agricultural purposes in the state (Adetula, 2005; Higazi, 2011). Farming activities in the state revolve around potatoes and exotic vegetables that include the red, green and Chinese cabbages, broccoli, cauliflower, egg plants, radish, lettuce, parsley, celery, cucumbers, etc. though the land cannot be described as overly fertile. Geographically, the state is located in the North-Central region of the country, an area generally referred to as the Middle-Belt (Blench, 2003).

This terminology, 'Middle Belt', was first used by the British to identify the politically distinct area at the southern tip of the northern region as separate from the north-west and north-east geopolitical zones. The Middle Belt region consists roughly of states like Adamawa, Benue, Kogi, Kwara, Nasarawa, Niger, Plateau, Taraba and the Federal Capital Territory, Abuja. Being predominantly Christian, these minority groups use religion as a socio-cultural identity (Crisis Group Report, 2012) and a tool for resisting their marginalization, oppression and treatment as second-class citizens by the Hausa-Fulani Muslims. This subjugation was made possible by the

economic and socio-political policies implemented by the British indirect rule system (Crisis Group Interviews, 2012). Unlike the other states in the Middle Belt, where the Islamic leadership of the Hausa-Fulani exercised total control over virtually all aspects of the societies, the Berom in the Jos division had a district head and controlled the local courts and a police force. Eventually, following protests by the Berom Progressive Union (BPU), Rwang Pam, a head-teacher of a government school was appointed Chief of the Beroms, Chief of Jos (Gbong Gwom Jos) and subsequently the paramount chief of Jos Native Authority. His headship of the Native Authority invariably gave him superiority over the district chiefs in Jos Division and political authority over the non-Berom villages (Logams, 2004).

The Plateau state capital, Jos, first emerged as a metropolis in 1910 during colonial rule and became a political division in 1927. With the creation of the Benue-Plateau state by the military regime of General Gowon in 1967, Jos, attained the status of a capital city which it retained with the creation of Plateau state as it stands today, in 1976 (Crisis Group Report, 2012). The state is divided into seventeen local government areas and is a vast mixture of about fifty-two indigenous ethnic communities (Abari, 2011), one hundred linguistic groupings and about forty spoken languages. It is dubbed a mini-Nigeria because of the fact that other non-indigenous ethnic groups like the Hausa-Fulani, the Igbo, Yoruba and Urhobo, and a teeming host of other ethnic groups, today constitute some of the settler groups that call the state, home (Crisis Group Report, 2012). This is largely due to the fact that the city has been a cosmopolitan reflection of peaceful coexistence that evinced a culture of tolerance of multi-ethnicity, multiple languages and friendly relations between Christians, Muslims and other religious persuasions (Higazi, 2011).

Overtime however, these impressions began to recede into a gloss over heightening tensions and pockets of disputes between the Hausa-Fulani who are the only settler group laying

proprietary claim to Jos (Crisis Group Report, 2012) and the Berom, Afizere and Anaguta (BAA) ethnic groups, revealing signs of imminent conflicts over the ‘ownership’ of Jos. This indigene question has assumed a worrisome dimension of importance in Nigeria’s multiethnic, multicultural society. It has constituted the root cause of most conflicts across the country including in the Middle Belt region (Isa-Odidi, 2004) where Plateau state is located. It divides Nigerians, threatens the notion of Nigerian citizenship and undermines the very essence of the democratic system of government that Nigeria is aspiring to uphold (Kwaja, 2011). This is more so as it is central to the enjoyment of certain privileges and entitlements especially arising from the zero-sum game imposed by the fierce competition for already scarce resources in the country. Many times, the ‘settlers’ are at the losing end as they are seen as ‘stateless citizens’ (HRW, 2006), a status that disqualifies them from certificates of indigeneity (Ploch, 2012) and the attendant favours enjoyed by the indigenes. Their exclusion from recruitment or admission into federal institutions, universities, access to healthcare, roads, jobs, etc. and most importantly in this case, exclusion from tangible political participation (Danfulani, 2006; Ploch, 2012) derails social cohesion (Adetula, et al, 2010) as a consequence in the long run.

Incidentally, Jos, the Plateau state capital, had in 1991, been divided into three local government areas: Jos North, Jos South and Jos East, to accommodate the dominant groups in the state (Blench et al, 2003). Thereafter, the tensions actually began to brew over a period of about three years (from 1991) as a result of clamours by the Hausa-Fulani group for the traditional stool of Jos North local government area to be occupied by an emir in response to the fact that their ethnic group constituted the majority in the area. The Berom, Anaguta and Afizere (BAA) ethnic groups adamantly maintained that an emirate in that area was an impossibility because they were the true indigenous owners of the land while the Hausa-Fulani were ‘settlers’

whom they had accommodated from centuries before (Logams, 2004) and who had no right to the land, not to talk of the privilege of occupying the revered traditional stool.

Various versions of historical evidence exist that attempt to explain the intricacies underlying indigene-ship and the ownership of the land. Some see the Hausa-Fulani as having equal rights to political power in the state because of the placement of all of these areas (from the middle belt to the core North) under the emirate system by the British colonial indirect rule system. By this, the British had inadvertently legitimized the subjugation of indigenous minority groups by the Hausa-Fulani North, a feat which the jihads to Islamize the entire Middle Belt region could not achieve (HRW, 2006; Egwu, 2009; Ostien, 2009; Alubo, 2011). Another version holds that the area now called Plateau state is believed to have been occupied first by the BAA who had fled from the jihadist movements. Years later, the Hausa-Fulani who were disgruntled by the extremist antics of the jihadis, also escaped and settled among the BAA who readily allocated them land for their activities since they were willing to live peaceably together (Logams, 2004). It is this land that the Hausa-Fulani now lay claim to as being rightfully theirs, rejecting their identities as settlers and insisting on their rights to political power especially in Jos North local government area where they are actually the majority perhaps because of their capacity to up their population through unbridled procreation.

This serenity and tranquility enjoyed by the residents of Jos were eroded by deadly conflicts that first occurred in 1994. The conflicts had actually been stoked by underlying disagreements over farmlands, chieftaincy affairs and political leadership tussles which came to a head with the appointment of a Hausa-Fulani Muslim as chairman of the Jos North local government area. This appointment was seen as an affront to the BAA who protested against the orchestration of political hegemony through the imposition of a 'settler' on the indigenes by the military

administrator and the then Head of state both of whom were incidentally Muslims of Hausa-Fulani extract. The protests led to the halting of the swearing-in of the chairman. The bad blood generated by these events which were perceived by the Hausa-Fulani ethnic group as discriminatory despite their majority status in the affected area, finally culminated in the bloody conflicts of 1994 (Crisis Group Reports, 2012).

Sequel to this and precisely in the past decade and a half, the area has been the theatre of several political crises arising from tussles over key political and traditional positions. There have been other bloody conflicts and conflagrations with tribal, sectarian, ethno-religious and socio-political undertones as well as Boko Haram attacks in which several lives and property were lost across the state in 2001, 2004, 2008 and 2010 (Crisis Group Report, 2012). The trend of the violence was such that the unrests began in Jos, particularly in Jos North local government area which comprises the city centre with Hausa-Fulani dominance, before spreading to the other local government areas within the state. Kwaja (2011) gave a succinct summary of the conflicts occurring between 1994 and 2010, and their causes in his tabular presentation:

TABLE 3.1: LARGE-SCALE COMMUNAL CLASHES IN AND AROUND JOS

Year	Proximate Trigger	Extent of Violence
1994	Appointments of local government leaders prompt protests and counterdemonstrations.	Four killed. Several city markets, an Islamic school, and places of worship destroyed.
2001	Appointment of local administrator of welfare allowances leads to weeks of demonstrations. Tensions rise, resulting in violence.	An estimated 1,000 to 3,000 killed. Violence expands across Plateau State. Attacks by youth groups in Muslim and Christian neighborhoods, on mosques and churches, and at the University of Jos. Sporadic attacks continue through 2002–2003, killing hundreds and destroying 72

		villages.
2004	National elections held but postponed in Plateau State. Local officials are appointed, resulting in disputes.	More than 1,000 killed in attacks against Muslim and Christian villages from February to May, and 250,000 are displaced. Federal government removes state governor and appoints temporary replacement.
2008	Local government elections—the first in Jos since 2002—are scheduled then delayed three times. Disputes emerge over party nominees and results.	Nearly 800 killed in gang attacks and riots from November to December.
2010	A dispute over reconstruction of a home destroyed by clashes in 2008 leads to violence in January and reprisals in March and throughout the year.	January: Up to 500 residents killed over 4 days in January. Many villages and homes destroyed. March: Up to 500 killed in an overnight attack. December: Nearly 80 killed following twin car bombs. Hundreds more die in frequent intermittent attacks.

Source: Kwaja (2011).

It was the opinion of the BAA that these conflicts were motivated and engineered by the Hausa-Fulani community to access power and resources and enforce political Islam (Crisis Group Interview, 2011). The year 2010 is particularly noteworthy because it opened a new angle to the conflicts in Jos with the introduction of attacks by Fulani herdsmen on sleeping communities in the hinterland of the state (with almost 500 killed in one night alone) in March and bombings on Christmas Eve, that year. These worsened the already dire situation of distrust and disunity in the state. Although the Boko Haram group claimed responsibility for the bomb attacks (Crisis Group interviews, 2011 and 2012), the majority of the natives assessed them as another dimension in the furtherance of the Hausa-Fulani Islamization agenda.

The Boko Haram group arose first as a youth group, the Yusufiya sect, in 2002 under the leadership of Mohammed Yusuf. It later became a tool for the furtherance of the political goals of the governor of Borno state at the time, Ali Modu Sheriff. After their fallout with Sheriff their benefactor over the summary execution of their leader in 2009 (Onwumaeze, 2011), they metamorphosed into a more formidable and deadly group known either as Al-Sunnah Wal Jamma or Jama'atu Ahlus-Sunnah Lil da'awati wal Jihad. They eventually adopted the name 'Boko Haram' literally translated to mean 'western civilization/education is evil' (Ayuba, 2010). The views held by the public and political analysts at the time was that they were revolting against being short-changed by their former benefactor, Sheriff, who had used the modern apparatuses including the political power at his disposal to renege on his initial agreements with them after his triumphs at the polls. Most of their attacks at the onset were in Maiduguri, the Borno state capital and were targeted at institutions of the state like the police, the army and other public institutions including the offices of the Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC) responsible for the handling of democratic processes (www.nairaland.com). Their insurgent prowess was also believed to have been further enhanced by the adoption of shari'a rule in some of the northern states beginning with Zamfara state in Nigeria on the 27th of January, 2000; a move which President Olusegun Obasanjo, on national TV, declared will die a natural death (Nigerian Television Authority [NTA], 2000).

This shari'a move was seen as calculated to render the country ungovernable for the then President, Olusegun Obasanjo, who was of South Western extract. He had been expected to kowtow to the whims and caprices of the northern kingmakers who installed him in office in response to the calls for rotational presidency and a break in the cycle of northern leadership (Akande, 2005; Askira, 2012). To their consternation, he did not play to the gallery of the

northern camp and even had a very unsavoury relationship with his Vice President, Alhaji Atiku Abubakar, who was a key representative of the northern region in the government.

The Boko Haram group came to be known as an Islamic fundamentalist group on a mission to Islamize previously unconquered areas including some targets in the Middle Belt, through jihads (Crisis Group Reports, 2012). This perspective became the most probable because Plateau state experienced a series of intermittent bombings of churches, mosques, markets and football viewing centres and other public places alongside a recurrent pattern of killings carried out in nocturnal attacks launched by suspected Fulani herdsmen against communities and whole villages that continued up to 2015. These took place clandestinely and mostly under the cover of night. In 2012, the attacks made headlines when they claimed the lives of a serving senator in the upper house of Nigeria's National Assembly, Gyang Dantong and the majority leader in the Plateau state House of Assembly, James Gyang Fulani. They represented constituencies which included the Riyom and Barkin Ladi local government areas that had been serially attacked by the Fulani herdsmen. Both of them had come in from the federal capital, Abuja, on the 8th of July, 2012, to attend the mass burial of victims of the latest attacks just a night before when the attackers resurfaced at the burial and opened fire, thereby leading to their deaths in the ensuing pandemonium. Their deaths led to protests and more reprisal attacks by the indigenes who felt short-changed by the apparent docility or lack of capacity of the authorities to checkmate the move of the Hausa-Fulanis which was practically decimating their population. Most of these attacks by the Hausa-Fulani and the reprisals by the BAA ethnic groups were basically fuelled by the actions, inactions or activities of non-state actors namely the Berom Youth Movement, Afizere Youth Movement, Anaguta Youth Movement and the Jasawa Development Association respectively (Crisis Group Report, 2012). Each purport to uphold the interests of the groups,

inadvertently driving ideologies that do little or nothing to douse the palpable tensions with the propensity to erupt in violent conflagrations at the drop of a hat.

These indices constitute the focus of this research. It is influenced by all the outlined issues, among others, deemed to constitute non-administrative criteria with capacity to influence employee motivation in the Plateau State Civil Service, a microcosm of Nigeria's public administration established in 1976. The study further evaluated the subsisting state of affairs within which it is expected to function optimally as the engine-room for handling developmental projects in Plateau state that are determined and designed by Nigeria's federal government for all her constituent states.

3.3. MOTIVATION

The concern with the improvement of workers performance and the enhancement of productivity levels within organizations whether public or private, has centered on motivation. The desire to establish a nexus between behavior at work, work quality and productivity led to postulations from scholars and motivation theorists who have attempted to explain the trends of work ethics within organizations. Influences on work ethics as posited in the theories include the individual's desire for growth, advancement, etc. that center on the orientation, attitudes and beliefs of the workers in relation to the workplace and the work itself. However, whether motivation stems more from the socio-cultural environment of the workers than from constantly applied motivators also constitutes the bane of this research.

'Work', 'employment' and 'job' are some of the words used to describe a situation whereby individuals exchange a skilled, semi-skilled or unskilled service for a predetermined reward. On many occasions, the terms are used interchangeably in the literature that borders on

human capital management and employee and organizational relations. In this study, the terms will also be used interchangeably depending on the contexts in which they are to be applied to the research. They basically imply a contractual relationship entered into willingly and in which one party is either superior (the employer) or subordinate (the employee) to the other. The desires of humans greatly determine the type, extent and quality of work they are willing to undertake or engage in. Motivation is coined from the Latin word 'movere' which means 'to move'. It is an internal drive that activates behavior and gives it direction. Mullins (2008) described it as a driving force that triggers action. It is a response directed towards the reduction of a need and attempts to explain the 'why' of human behavior especially in organizational settings (Romando, 2010). It is also derived from the French word 'motif' which means moving and refers to motives in an action. Motives are defined as needs, wants, drives, or impulses within individuals that arouse and maintain their activities and direct their behavior towards goals or rewards. Motivation is basically the power 'to will' and 'to do' toward the attainment of organizational goals and objectives.

Motivation is one of the most frequently studied and written-about topics in the organizational sciences, and is considered one of the most important areas of study in the field of organizational behavior. Early explanations of motivation focused on instincts. Psychologists writing in the late 19th and early 20th centuries suggested that human beings were basically programmed to behave in certain ways, depending upon the behavioral cues to which they were exposed (Simmering, 2007). They began to examine other possible explanations for differences in individual motivation (Steers et al, 1996). Sigmund Freud, for example, argued that the most powerful determinants of individual behavior were those of which the individual was not consciously aware (Simmering, 2007).

Jeremy Bentham and Robert Owens are some of the early scholars whose views on how best to motivate workers date as far back as the period immediately after the industrial revolution (Shah and Shah, 2010). Jeremy's view was on the carrot and the stick. This metaphor relates to the use of rewards and penalties to induce desired behaviour and comes from the old story that to make a donkey move, one must put a carrot in front of him or dab him with a stick from behind. Despite all the research on the theories of motivation, reward and punishment are still considered strong motivators and for centuries, they have too often been thought of as the only forces that can motivate people. Owen's view on the other hand, was that people were similar to machines. He upheld that a machine which is properly looked after, cared for and maintained well, performs efficiently, reliably and lastingly. Similarly people are likely to be more efficient if they are properly taken care of (Shah and Shah, 2010).

The leading theories of motivation seldom make reference to the carrot and the stick. At the same time, in all theories of motivation, there are inducements of one kind or the other. Often it is money in the form of pay or bonuses. Even though money is not the only motivating force, it has been and will continue to be an important one. Ironically, very often everyone gets a carrot, regardless of performance through practices as salary increase and promotion by seniority, automatic 'merit' increases, and executive bonuses not based on individual manager performance. The 'stick', in the form of fear – fear of loss of job, loss of income, reduction of bonus, demotion, or some other penalty – is also a strong motivator though not the best kind. It often gives rise to defensive or retaliatory behaviour, such as unionism, poor-quality work, dishonesty, executive indifference and the failure of a manager to take any risks in decision making. The potency of penalties in eliciting desired behaviour however, cannot be overlooked.

Studies in motivation began earnestly in the 1930s to 1960s, an era known as the Mechanistic period during which focus was on the search for the motors of behavior which was then associated with mechanical concepts such as instincts, drive, arousal, needs and energization. The concern of the motivational psychologists was with what moved a resting organism to a state of activity and so most of the studies were conducted with animals as the objects of the research. The dominant motivation theory at the time was the Drive theory propounded by Clark Hull and Kenneth Spence (Graham and Weiner, 1996). Their approach to motivation had a Darwinian flavor based on the concept of deprivation where the deprived organism lived in an environment of limited resources. Motivation was based on the ability of the organism to improve its level of comfort and attain equilibrium (homeostasis) by reducing the extent of deprivation or making it completely non-existent. However during this period, human behavior was assessed as too complex to study directly because it was not susceptible to experimental manipulation and so the experimental subjects were animals like monkeys, etc. (Graham and Weiner, 1996).

Between 1960 and 1970, studies on homeostasis, arousal and energy which dominated the Drive theory were given less attention though still influential in explaining motivation. There was a shift away from mechanism to cognition and human behavior with focus on exploratory behavior, balance (dissonance), affiliation, frustration and aggression. By this time, reward was associated with a variety of cognitions (Graham and Weiner, 1996) and human thought patterns developed from perceptions on situations. By the 1970s up to the 1990s, contemporary research in motivation took centre stage. The focus was on achievement strivings, individual needs for achievement, efficacy, control and environmental influences on motivation in the contexts of competition and cooperation (Graham and Weiner, 1996).

Studies on motivation have gained grounds based on theories developed from the analyses of the non-human to the human in an effort to explain and justify behavior. These studies have been carried out mainly in the field of psychology and the zeal to proffer reasons for human actions and thought patterns, has led psychologists to the educational, clinical, organizational, and other aspects of human existence. Other fields of study in the behavioural and social sciences such as political science, public administration, economics, sociology, etc. have also mainstreamed aspects of motivation studies into their research. This is because of the roles they are expected to play in harnessing the dynamic human and material resources in administration towards committing to the achievement of the ever-changing socio-economic development goals of countries.

Frederick Taylor is credited with the first notable attempt at understanding the worker within the organization in his book, 'Principles of Scientific Management' published in 1911. Scientific management was concerned with the application of scientific methods to managerial practices and production processes in industrial organizations. It aimed at studying the relationship between the physical nature of work and the physiological nature of workmen. It stressed specialization, predictability, technical competence and rationality as key to improving the organizational efficiency and economy. His theory of scientific management was based on the assumptions that organizational functioning can be improved with the application of scientific methods. He posited further that a good worker is one who does not initiate action but accepts the orders of the management and that every worker is an 'economic man' motivated by monetary factors (Laxmikanth, 2005). Taylor also posited that men will not do an extraordinary day's work for an ordinary day's pay (Polinaidu, 2004). For him, high wages suffice to elicit

employee cooperation and motivate him to do more work while the application of sanctions is effective against employees who fail to do as they are told by management.

In his study of industrial organizations, Taylor (1911) identified a 'soldiering' phenomenon that implies the tendency of workers to deliberately restrict output. He defined natural soldiering as stemming from personal factors such that the worker habitually takes things easy and does not over-exert. Systematic soldiering is practiced by workmen to keep the supervisor's expectation of work performance at lower levels. He noted that checkmating soldiering can only be done through the application of scientific techniques including functional foremanship where the worker has at least eight specialized supervisors as against a system of single foremanship. The adoption of the Time and Motion studies guides the selection of the appropriate work methods through an observation of the motions required for accomplishing given tasks. This in turn aids the choice of the best set of motions and the determination of the standard time for the completion of the tasks. The differential piece rate plan was developed to enable the apportionment of appropriate wages and bonuses based on set standards rather than by a profit sharing plan. This way, workers unable to meet the standards are removed. Finally, the institution of the exception principle allows the setting of major tasks and targets by management with rewards for achieving them and penalties for not meeting them (Laxmikanth, 2005).

Taylor's treatise on workers in organizational settings was intended to provide the 'one best way' of carrying out tasks and determining the standard output. Scientific managers like Henri Fayol and Max Weber emphasized the economic rather than and at the expense of the psychological and social aspects of workers needs in organizations. They believed that a worker acts rationally to maximize his economic gains (Ngu, 1994). Today, such extreme conceptualizations of the economic man have been discredited especially by the Human

Relations School. There is no doubt that most employees find motivation in financial rewards but the important question is the level of effectiveness it inspires and the appeal it has to different individuals.

Employee motivation has almost always been synonymous with organizations and organizational productivity. Polinaidu (2004) posited that motivation signifies the willingness, direction, strength and persistence of an individual's behavior at work and as such, high motivation leads to job satisfaction of workers. For him, insufficiently motivated employees can mar the operations of the best organizations built on sound lines while highly motivated people can make an organization built on unsound lines function successfully and meet its set goals. Motivation to work is greatly influenced by forces within the human being and the external stimuli which are perceived by the human being as incentives, rewards or goals to be pursued. It relates to the problem of how to get the best out of the human element at work. It is the outcome of the interaction between a person's motives (employee attitude) and factors in the work situation (environment of work) confronting him.

Leonard et al (1999) defined motivation as the force that energizes, directs and sustains behaviour. From a general perspective, behaviour is energized when individuals experience a negative affect of the state and are desirous of changing their attitude. This leads to a cognitive redirection of their behaviour and a choice from among alternative actions through a process of deriving or weighing the logical consequences of alternative actions and comparing these alternatives against a set of criteria unencumbered by passion. This process acts as some form of positive reinforcement or affect of the state (Scholl, 2002) which results in the sustenance of the newly imbibed behaviour which is consequently maintained because of its accruing gains. The culmination of these is what Goleman (1995) referred to as 'Emotional Intelligence' whereby

most individuals are likely to experience a 'trigger' that attracts them towards a particular behaviour pattern. This is followed by the 'emotional response' which is their reaction depending on what the trigger is, how it is perceived and then the 'behaviour' which is the outcome of their perceptions.

Mullins (1996) viewed motivation as extrinsic or intrinsic involving goals and ambitions, recognition and achievement. Extrinsic motivation relates to tangible rewards such as salary and fringe benefits, security, promotion, contract of service, etc. while the intrinsic motivation relates to psychological rewards such as the opportunity to use one's ability, a sense of achievement, receiving appreciation, positive recognition, etc. Rao and Rao (1997) saw motivation as positive or negative. The positive seeks to create an optimistic atmosphere within the enterprise and entails showing individuals the rewards and how they can be achieved. The rewards may be financial or non-financial. Financial rewards or incentives afford workers better standards of living while the non-financial incentives satisfy the ego of the worker. Negative motivation entails instilling the fear of consequences in the workers to get the desired work done. On the contrary, the fear creates frustration, hostility and an unfavourable attitude towards the job thereby hindering efficiency and productivity.

Several motivation theories have evolved due to the dynamics of society occasioned by modernization and industrialization, research and the nature of man. They have attempted to evaluate and proffer reasons for man's desire for achievement as well as explain the driving forces behind man's quest for success. Some researchers focused on internal drives as an explanation for motivated behavior. Studies analyzed the effect of learning and how individuals base current behavior on the consequences of past behavior while others examined the influence of individuals' cognitive processes, such as the beliefs they have about future events. Though the

postulations of the theories held true, they did not consider the motivational influence of the outside-work-environment factors (Riggs' non-administrative criteria) present in the ecologies of the public administration of developing countries like Nigeria. Over time, these major theoretical streams of research in motivation used to explain employee motivation and behavior in organizational settings were classified into two major schools: the content theories of motivation and the process theories of motivation (Steers et. al., 1996).

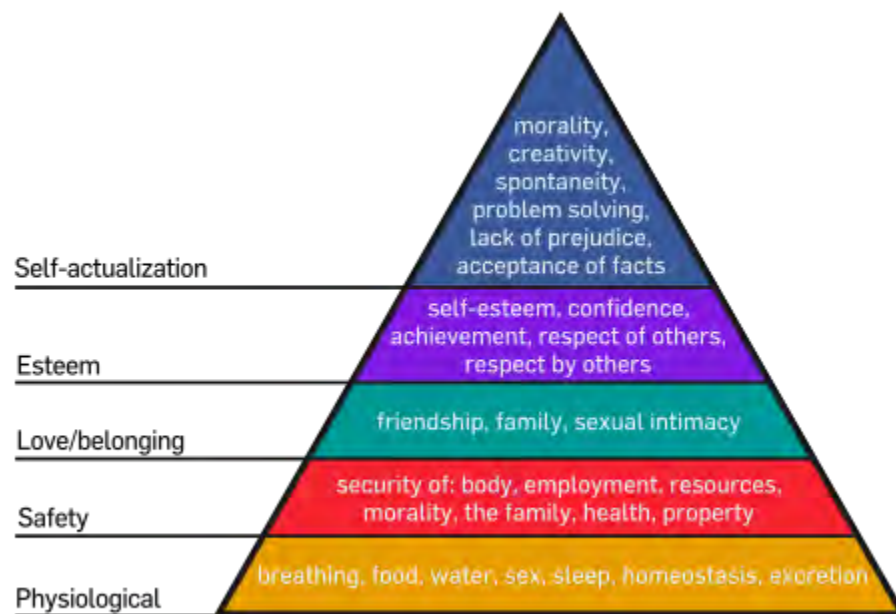
The **Content** or **Need** theories are based in large part on early theories of motivation that traced the paths of action backward to their perceived origin in internal drives (Simmering, 2007). They define motivation in terms of need satisfaction and are based on the factors internal to the individual that energize and direct behavior. By extension, they are those stimuli that encourage the workers' commitment in the workplace, the expectations to be met on the parts of the workers and the organizations, the packages and characteristics (in terms of the work content, policies and incentives) offered by the organizations and the extent to which they are capable of eliciting tangible inputs from the workers. Though their propositions are very helpful in handling employee motivation, not all have been verified by research (Stotz and Bolger, 2014). The content theories are highly prescriptive in nature and assume that all individuals possess the same set of psychological and physiological needs. The content theories of motivation include:

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Maslow's Need Hierarchy is the first systematic conceptual model of human motivation. He was a psychologist and used psycho-analysis to explain that human needs influence human behaviour. The theory posits that individual needs exist in a hierarchy (represented by a pyramid) beginning from the physiological needs. According to Maslow, humans strive to satisfy their physiological needs first. After which they are motivated by the next higher order needs of

security, etc. The needs are satisfied in a sequential order in that as the urgency of a satisfied need decreases, the next level of unsatisfied needs emerges to replace it (Laxmikanth, 2005).

Figure 3.2 – Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs:



Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Abraham_Maslow

- *Physiological needs:* these entail the basic needs for food, water, and other factors necessary for survival. These manifest as psychological and physical tensions resulting in overt behaviour directed at reducing the tensions e.g. being hungry and getting something to eat. This reduces the tension and then the need ceases to motivate causing the individual to shift focus to the next level of needs.
- *Security needs:* these entail desires for safety in one's physical environment, stability, and freedom from emotional distress. At this point, the individual has a desire for security, law and order in all aspects of his life. Nimaga (2008), without emphasis on motivation

within the workplace, views the effects of frequent wars and insecurity as informing the migration of individuals to other countries for safety. This view is comparable to that of Maslow on safety as a prerequisite for optimum output if an individual is to achieve stability enough to function positively and in the workplace. He expects to live a life that is free of fear and anxiety and is assured of job security so that he puts in a maximum effort to attain optimal productivity levels that ensure and assure him of employment stability.

- *Belongingness needs*: these entail desires for friendship, love, and acceptance within a given community of individuals. Interpersonal relations are essential both at home, work and within the society in which the individual lives. These enable him excel at work since he can be loved, accepted and interact with his colleagues and be in harmony with others within his environment.
- *Esteem needs*: these are associated with obtaining the respect of one's self and others. The individual has a desire for self-respect, self-esteem and to be held in esteem by others. His concerns are with status, fame and importance.
- *Self-actualization needs*: these correspond to the achievement of one's own potential, the exercising and testing of one's creative capacities, continuous self-development and, in general, becoming the best person one can possibly be (Silva, 2009).

Maslow explained the needs as satisfied in stages. According to the implications of the hierarchy (Simmering, 2007), unsatisfied needs constitute motivators thus, lower-level needs such as the physiological and security needs must be met before upper-level needs such as job responsibilities, status and challenging work assignments that constitute belongingness, esteem, and self-actualization needs can be motivational.

Despite the ease of application of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs theory to a work setting, this theory has received little research support and therefore is not very useful in practice. Another gap is that these needs as evaluated in the theory cannot be completely detached from one another and arrogated levels of their own as the nature of man makes it possible for the levels to be interrelated and mutually dependent. Mullins (1996) viewed individual differences as affecting the application of the theory since they may amount to people placing different values on the same need. The theory has been further criticized by scholars like Lawler, Porter, Nash, Birdwell, Wabha, etc. quoted in Laxmikanth (2005), for being too vague, impracticable and inadequate for ensuring productivity as it did not make any suggestions for dealing with the problems of motivation. Though its universal applicability lies in the fact that it can be applied to or describes the needs of all kinds and cadres of employees (Laxmikanth, 2005), these criticisms have dominated most literature on Maslow's Needs theory. The general consensus is that it is an interesting contribution to the study of organizational and human behavior but cannot wholly suffice since human needs are not straitjacketed into following particular patterns of occurrence.

Alderfer's ERG Theory

The ERG theory flows from Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Alderfer suggested that needs be classified into three categories rather than five:

- The Existence needs are similar to Maslow's physiological and safety need categories,
- The Relatedness needs involve interpersonal relationships and are comparable to aspects of Maslow's belongingness and esteem needs, while
- The Growth needs are those related to the attainment of one's potential and are associated with Maslow's esteem and self-actualization needs (Polinaidu, 2004).

The theory differs from the hierarchy of needs in that it does not suggest that lower-level needs must be completely satisfied before upper-level needs become motivational. ERG theory also suggests that if an individual is continually unable to meet upper-level needs, the person regresses and lower-level needs become the major determinants of their motivation. Alderfer also proposed that as result of the frustration-regression processes arising from an individual's inability to satisfy a set of needs, other needs irrespective of level, may be activated at the same time (Mullins, 1996; Simmering, 2007). Sharma et al (2011) assessed the ERG theory as being more direct, realistic, flexible and easy to understand. However, they view its flaws as arising from the needs not being clearly demarcated and the use of the word, 'relatedness' as confusing and insufficient in describing interpersonal relationships.

Herzberg's Motivator-Hygiene Theory

The motivator-hygiene theory was developed by Frederick Herzberg. It is closely related to Maslow's hierarchy of needs but centres more specifically on how individuals are motivated in the workplace. Based on his research, Herzberg argued that meeting the lower-level needs (hygiene factors) does not motivate individuals to exert effort, but prevents them from being dissatisfied. Only if higher-level needs (motivators) were met would individuals be motivated (Simmering, 2007). The Hygiene factors are money and compensation, personal life, working condition, working relationships, status, job security, company policy and administration and quality of supervision while the Motivation factors are the work itself, added responsibility and opportunity for advancement, management recognition for good work and opportunity for personal growth (Silva, 2009).

Meeting employees lower-level needs by improving pay, benefits, safety, and other job-contextual factors will prevent employees from becoming actively dissatisfied but will not

motivate them to exert additional effort toward better performance. To motivate workers, according to the theory, focus must be on changing the intrinsic nature and content of jobs themselves by "enriching" them to increase employees' autonomy and their opportunities to take on additional responsibility, gain recognition, and develop their skills and careers. Obi and Obikeze (2000) evaluated Herzberg's theory as summarizing Maslow's Needs hierarchy under two broad need clusters such that one cluster covers the avoidance of unpleasantness and the other, personal growth.

Criticisms of Herzberg's model include that it relates to advanced countries and his study population was largely based on managers in engineering and accounting. They were most unlikely to be concerned with the lower level physiological, security and social needs represented by his Hygiene-factors and so were likely to be motivated mainly by the higher order needs. As a result of these criticisms and further research studies to which Herzberg's propositions have been subjected, the theory has failed to receive much support (Jones et.al., 1998).

McClelland's Learned Needs Theory

McClelland's theory suggests that individuals learn needs from their culture. The primary needs in this theory are:

- The need for affiliation (nAff) – A desire to establish warm, friendly, personal and social relationships with others individually and collectively in calm, pleasant environments that are conducive for interpersonal interactions;
- The need for power (nPow) – A desire to control one's environment and influence others.

McClelland was able to determine based on research, that the greater the power

motivation, the greater the propensity for managerial success. However, individuals with high power motivations will normally have a low affiliation need or motivation (Sharma et al, 2011). Dwivedi (2001) described the power motivation as existing in negative, unsocialized and positive, socialized forms. These forms are significant in explaining the likely leadership roles or styles (exploitative-autocratic, laissez-faire or participative-democratic) which the individuals in question may seek or adopt; and

- The need for achievement (nAch) – It is a desire to take responsibility, set challenging goals and obtain performance feedback (McClelland, 1961). This leads to the development of a strong positive relationship between the high need for achievement and high levels of job performance and executive success (Terry and Franklin, 2003).

The main point of the learned needs theory is that when one of these needs is strong in a person, it has the potential to motivate behaviour that leads to its satisfaction. Jobs can thus be structured to encourage the satisfaction of as many of the needs as possible.

The **Process** theories of motivation on the other hand stress the differences in people's needs and focus on the cognitive processes that create these differences. They are a more active approach that provides better guidance to managers on motivational techniques (Sharma et. al., 2011). Silva (2009) described them as mainly concerned with the self-directed cognitive processes - the internal states and mental processes of the workers (what they feel and how they think) - and how these negatively or positively determine their behaviour patterns and output in the workplace. The postulations of the reinforcement and goal-setting theories have been supported by research while the expectancy and equity theories have not been accorded as much intense scholarship though their propositions constitute the bases of most employee

compensation plans (Stotz and Bolger, 2014). On the whole, the process theories focus on conscious human decision processes and beliefs they have about future events in explaining motivation and behaviour. They are concerned with determining how individual behavior is energized, directed, and maintained. The major process theories of motivation include:

Vroom's Expectancy Theory

It suggests that individuals choose work behaviours that they believe lead to outcomes they value. In deciding how much effort should go into work, individuals are likely to consider:

- Their expectancy: the degree to which they believe that putting forth effort will lead to a given level of performance.
- Their instrumentality: the degree to which they believe that a given level of performance will result in certain commensurate outcomes or rewards which may be tangible (e.g. pay increase or promotion) or intangible (e.g. a feeling of satisfaction and fulfillment) (Scholl, 2002).
- Their valence: the extent to which the expected outcomes are attractive or unattractive (Mohr, 1982) depending on the preferences of the individual (Scholl, 2002).

For an individual to be highly motivated, all three of the components of the expectancy model must be high. Where one of them is zero (e.g., instrumentality and valence are high, but expectancy is completely absent), the person will not be adequately motivated for the task. Increased effort will improve performance and that performance will lead to valued rewards. In the late 1960s, Porter and Lawler developed an extension of the Vroom Expectancy model, which is known as the Porter-Lawler Expectancy model. Although the basic premise of the Porter-Lawler model is the same as that of Vroom's model, the Porter-Lawler model is more

complex in a number of ways. It suggests that increased effort does not automatically lead to improved performance because individuals may not possess the necessary abilities needed to achieve high levels of performance, or because they may have an inadequate or vague perception of how to perform necessary tasks. This then leads to the exertion of considerable effort without a corresponding increase in performance (Polinaidu, 2004).

J. S. Adams' Equity Theory

This theory suggests that:

- Individuals engage in social comparison by comparing their efforts and rewards with those of relevant others;
- The perception of individuals about the fairness of their rewards relative to others influences their level of motivation;
- Equity exists when individuals perceive that the ratio of efforts to rewards is the same for them as it is for others to whom they compare themselves;
- Inequity exists when individuals perceive that the ratio of efforts to rewards is different (usually negatively so) for them than it is for others to whom they compare themselves.

Individuals are motivated to reduce perceived inequity. Where an employee feels under-rewarded, he may change his level of effort, and is likely to work less hard. He may also try to change his rewards by asking for a raise. Other options open to the employee are changing the behaviour of the reference person, perhaps by encouraging that person to put in more effort or changing the reference person and comparing himself to a different person to assess equity (Mohr, 1982).

There are two types of inequity, namely under-reward and over-reward. Under-reward occurs when a person believes that she puts in more efforts than another, yet receives the same reward, or puts in the same effort as another for a lesser reward. Conversely, with over-reward, a person will feel that his efforts to rewards ratio is higher than another person's, such that he is getting more for putting in the same effort, or getting the same reward even with less effort. While research suggests that under-reward motivates individuals to resolve the inequity, research also indicates that the same is not true for over-reward. Individuals who are over-rewarded often engage in cognitive dissonance, convincing themselves that their efforts and rewards are equal to another's. The theory emphasizes the importance of a reward system that is perceived as fair by employees.

Locke and Latham's Goal-Setting Theory

The goal-setting theory developed by Edwin Locke and Gary Latham posits that goals are the most important factors affecting the motivation and behaviour of employees. It emphasizes the importance of specific, moderately difficult (Obi and Obikeze, 2000) and challenging goals in achieving motivated behaviour. Specific goals often involve quantitative targets for improvement in a desired behaviour. Research indicates that specific performance goals are much more effective than those in which a person is told to "do your best". Challenging goals are difficult but not impossible to attain. Empirical research supports the proposition that goals that are both specific and challenging are more motivational than vague goals or goals that are relatively easy to achieve. Several factors may moderate the relationship between specific and challenging goals and high levels of motivation. These factors are:

- Goal commitment which simply means that the more dedicated the individual is to achieving the goal, the more they will be motivated to exert effort. Some research

suggests that having employees participate in goal setting will increase their level of goal commitment;

- Self-efficacy which is the individual's belief that he or she can successfully complete a particular task. A high degree of self-efficacy increases the likelihood of responding more positively to specific and challenging goals than a low degree of self-efficacy (Mullins, 1996).

However, where the task or goal is seen as too difficult to attain, effort towards its achievement tends to decrease. The theory is considered by many researchers to be too restrictive and incomplete to be useful for general application. Its value is in causing reward system designers to include the participants' perception of fairness in the reward system design process (Stotz and Bolger, 2014).

B. F. Skinner's Reinforcement Theory

Prior to the development of this theory, Thorndike (1911) had developed the 'Law of Effect' based on his experiments with cats in the study of animal behaviour in particular circumstances. The law stated that responses which produce a satisfying effect in a particular situation become more likely to occur again in that situation, and responses which produce a discomforting effect become less likely to occur again in that situation (Peters, 1991). The terms, 'satisfying' and 'dissatisfying' were replaced by 'reinforcing' and 'punishing' with the advent of Behaviourist B.F. Skinner's principle of 'operant conditioning' which is the basis of his Reinforcement theory. The principle and by extension, the theory, uphold a learning process by which the effect or consequence of a response influences the future rate of production of that response (Mazur, 2013). The theory basically posits that:

- Motivated behaviour occurs as a result of reinforcers, which are outcomes resulting from the behaviour that makes it more likely the behaviour will occur again;
- It is not necessary to study needs or cognitive processes to understand motivation, but that it is only necessary to examine the consequences of behaviour;
- Behaviour that is reinforced is likely to continue, but behaviour that is not rewarded or is punished is not likely to be repeated therefore managers can improve employees' performance by a process of behaviour modification in which they reinforce desired behaviours and punish undesired behaviours (McLeod, 2007).

The theory focuses on Organizational Behaviour Modification (OBM). Behaviour modification has its basis in the 'A (Antecedent) - B (Behaviour) - C (Consequence)' analysis and is believed to engender improved employee output when applied as a result of its adoption of an empirical approach to motivation (Stotz and Bolger, 2014). This stance derives from the fact that the nature of man is such that he is influenced by goings-on around him. By observing the consequences of behaviour of others around him, he is able to adopt or adjust his behaviour to elicit the desired or requisite consequence.

Critics of behaviour modification claim that behaviour does not change, and reinforcers do not work, rather, they amount to bribery. However, this assumption can only hold true if the program includes an illicit use of rewards to corrupt the conduct of the individual. Reinforcement, on the other hand, focuses on behaviours that benefit both the person and the organization. Another criticism of this behavioural approach when applied to incentive programs is the concern that individuals can become too dependent on extrinsic reinforcers, so that when a reinforcer is removed, the behaviour stops. Studies, however, do not support this, and in any

case, the typical objective of behaviour modification is to gradually remove or change the reinforcer on a planned schedule, while maintaining the behaviour (Stotz and Bolger, 2014).

The foci of the content and process motivation theories are largely on motivation as determined by the achievement needs, job content of the individual and his perceptions about his work. They revolve around the individual and his workplace, leaving little or no room for factors in his informal environment, external to his workplace environment but with the capacity to motivate him. The individual's motivation for output in the workplace is depicted as flowing from his cognition, the organizational goals and environment, and the relationship between the individual and the positive or negative influence of his work in terms of the opportunities it offers.

Ideally, theories contained in research reports of this nature are dealt with in the chapter on the theoretical framework. In this research, the motivation theories are not evaluated as constituents of the theoretical framework but rather, as an expository that provides a better insight into the phenomena and contexts of performance examined by the concept 'motivation'. More so, most discourses on motivation are incomplete without an overview of some of the major theories that form the basis for the definition and discussion of the concept. Furthermore, the analyses of the theories also enabled a highlight of the gaps within the motivation theories. These gaps, juxtaposed with the postulations of Riggs' Fused-Prismatic-Diffracted model and the contingency theory are the core of this research into the influence of Nigeria's public administrative ecology on employee motivation.

3.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Going by these scholastic analyses presented above, there are marked differences between the public administrative environments and procedures of the developed and developing societies. Those of the developed societies have clearly defined forms and processes and are usually undaunted by factors extraneous to the individual and workplace environment unlike those of the developing societies. The individualistic nature of the society disallows any leeway for the political, socio-cultural, etc. subsystems to interfere with the administrative system or influence the ethical considerations and behaviour of the public administrator unlike in the developing societies where the communal and other group relations can significantly shape the public administrative content.

The comparison between the environments of public administration of the developed and developing nations provides clarifications as to why certain principles, practices and procedures that are workable in one public administrative environment may not be applicable in another. The public administrative environments of the developed countries exhibit a high degree of task specialisation in which their political and administrative processes are separated and clearly defined. Unlike in those of the developing countries, there is professionalism in the conduct of government business akin to having square pegs in square holes. This is a function of ensuring that specialists and not generalists are given clearly defined roles and responsibilities with corresponding authority for which they must be accountable. Functions requiring less degrees of specialisation may be allowed to fall within the purview of the generalists.

Effective mobilisation and political socialisation for participation in decision-making and implementation evidences well sensitised civil societies that are conscious of the responsibilities of and their expectations from the government and vice versa. In these societies, it is

commonplace for their views to be taken into consideration before the governments take major policy steps unlike in developing countries where the citizenry has the whims and caprices of their governments and ruling classes to contend with. Governments in these developing societies are normally politically unresponsive and socially unrepresentative of their citizens. They carry out policy formulation and implementation many times, without recourse to their societies but rather for the interest of particular groups or individuals. Public officials are rarely called to question and so would hardly account for actions taken while in office.

The application of modern technology implies that they have the requisite human and material capacity to constantly evolve, adopt and adapt their systems to meet new and demanding challenges. This does not ring true of developing countries. Many of them have public administrations which are forced to grapple with issues as low as archaic, obsolete machines and poor sanitary conditions around the office complexes, etc. At times, modern technology is introduced to bring the public sectors to minimally acceptable global standards but sometimes, there is a corresponding lack of know-how for their use and maintenance. So the government is seen as simply adopting and applying the 'best practices' to their societies that lack the relevant structures to contain them.

Several reforms, motivational tools and methods have been employed and applied by succeeding governments on Nigeria's public bureaucratic system. Sadly, these have been unable to bring it to the standards that enable it fulfil its roles of engendering economic growth and national development. As a result, it has neither performed up to par nor been able to deliver on the expectations of the citizens that it is expected to serve. Being a federal system, these lacunas have reflected in the civil services of the states, Plateau state inclusive, which derive their legitimacy, forms and functions from what is obtainable at and determined by the centre.

The presence of the 'clefs', lack of strict adherence to formal rules and procedures, overlap of roles and activities resulting from the presence of non-administrative criteria as described in Riggs' Prismatic societies and the attendant ripple effects of their existence are undeniable in the environment of Nigeria's public administration. The Contingency theory further lends credence to the thrust of the research because of its position that decision making and administrative behaviour are not unidirectional but situational. Invariably, public administrators and their decisions are influenced by the environment and as such, the tendency for workers to be motivated differently and by different things in a variety of situations becomes more ardent. The postulations of the contingency theory may, alongside those of Riggs' model, guide the provision of target-oriented and target-specific motivation for employees and thereby, encourage performance. The need for this arises in the face of the social forces and factors with which they may contend in the course of carrying out their day-to-day activities. These indices which form the core of this research have been defined by Riggs' (1961) as non-administrative criteria and exist outside the employees immediate work environment.

In spite of the divergent views that capture motivation as a function of different factors and situations, Jucius (1979) in his own analysis, evaluated motivation as entailing the weighing of situations to determine the needs of the workers and possible motivators. He went further to explain that motivation can be best achieved through designing a set of motivators, selecting and applying the motivators as required and as target-specifically as possible and finally determining the effectiveness of each motivator based on the quality of feedback. The approach of Jucius (1979) to motivation is more encompassing than most views on motivation. It does not necessarily take for granted that specific motivators including those listed within the content and process motivation theories will suffice in motivating workers. Neither does he see the

motivators as a one-stop solution to enhancing the efforts of employees. Rather, he suggests the evaluation of situations, employee needs and possible motivators before a set of motivators can be designed. He further upheld the importance of quality feedback in enabling the determination of the level of effectiveness of the motivators.

Jucius' perspective also provides a foothold for this research into the potency of the non-administrative criteria in influencing employee motivation in the Plateau State civil service. The research is further developed based on the research design and methodology contained in the next chapter. The methodology encompasses the population and area of the study, the sampling procedures and the formula applied in deriving a sample size that is appreciably representative of the entire staff population of the Plateau State civil service. The chapter also includes the procedures for data collection and analyses, ethical considerations of the research and a post-research section which evaluates the research methodology.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the methodology that was adopted for this research. It describes the research design which in this case is quasi-experimental since the research reflects both quantitative and qualitative components of research in the social sciences. It gives an insight into the area and population of study including the formula and sampling techniques adopted for deriving the sample size. The data collection methods and instruments were designed based on the characteristics inherent in the key variables of the research (Nigeria's public administrative ecology and employee motivation) as gleaned from the literature reviewed for the purpose in the preceding chapter. It also includes a specific guideline on the procedures and processes which the actual field research and pattern of data analyses will take. Furthermore, it describes the tests of validity and reliability that are relevant to the determination of the authenticity and generalizability of the research findings. The ethical issues taken into consideration with regard to the research were highlighted and a section that evaluates the research methodology was included to give a general overview of the actual research process including the high points and challenges encountered in the course of the research. The chapter concludes with a summary.

4.1 RESEARCH PARADIGMS

Most social science researchers employ processes that require a combination of methods as a result of the influence of human and societal dynamics. Paradigms are a discipline's methods for structuring reality (Maseh, 2015). Paradigms for human enquiry are mainly characterized in terms of the way they respond to basic philosophical questions that are ontological,

epistemological and methodological. Basically, they encompass a set of philosophical assumptions that guide the approach to inquiry (Polit and Beck, 2008). Creswell (2003) described paradigms as including the positivist (scientific), the socially constructed (interpretivist), the participatory (reform/action-oriented) and the pragmatic which posits that knowledge is a function of actions, situations and consequences and not antecedent conditions. Pragmatism is concerned with 'what works' and solving problems rather than the methods and procedures adopted. Saunders et al (2012) posited that the pragmatic paradigm reflects the different ways of interpreting the world and the fact that in research, perspectives are usually multidirectional rather than unidirectional as there may be multiple realities in the evaluation of phenomena. In the same vein, this research though employing both the quantitative and qualitative approaches leans towards the pragmatic paradigm. This is so because it attempts to assess the applicability of the content and process motivation theories to societies undergoing social transformation processes, like Nigeria, whose characteristics are not likely to be the same as the antecedent conditions upon which the theories were initially constructed. Based on the position of the pragmatist paradigm, the postulation of the contingency theory presupposing that there is 'no-one-best-way' of administration is upheld.

The research also combined both the positivist and interpretivist perspectives in an attempt to establish a nexus between the ecology of Nigeria's public administration and employee motivation in the Plateau State Civil Service. From a general perspective, positivism emphasizes rationalism and nomothetics. Nomothetics uses a probabilistic approach of causality; i.e., under optimal circumstances, when certain factors are present, a certain type of phenomena will occur with significant probability. The criteria of causal relationships for nomothetic explanations as proposed by Lazarsfeld quoted in Matyusz, (2012) include that the cause must

precede the consequence. As such, between two variables there should be an empirical relationship; and the observed empirical relationship between the two variables should not be explained by the influence of a third variable. This research in exhibiting nomothetic characteristics focuses on the relationship between two main variables- the ecology of Nigeria's public administration and employee motivation in the Plateau State Civil Service which is one of the thirty-six (36) state civil services in the Nigerian federation.

Positivism is value free and focuses on the existence of external and universal laws that attempt to explain facts about, causes and effects of, and make predictions about phenomena. Basically, it adopts the research methods of the natural and physical sciences and assumes a nomological regularity in quantifying experiences and reproducing findings through the repetition of research (Sarantakos, 1993). The positivist perspective allows the determination of this causal effect through the collation of data for experimental analysis and hypotheses testing whereby the researcher is detached from the influence of the variables and objects (respondents) of the research to as much as possible, eliminate bias.

The positivist perspective is largely adopted since it possesses techniques for handling research at this level that entails a large number of respondents. It is unlike the interpretivist perspective which allows for a smaller, more manageable size of respondents since many times, the researcher is involved in the research process as a participant observer. However, the positivist methods are usually unsuitable for social research which has people with their attendant wishes, perceptions, attitudes and interests, as subjects. This critical characteristic is that which to the interpretivists, makes objectivity impossible despite the positivists' postulations of standardization of laws guiding research and distance from the research objects. This arises from the inevitability of the penetration of the perceptions, meanings and values of the researcher

into the research processes (Brieschke, 1992; Sarantakos, 1993). In the instant research, the positivist methods are relevant to the extent that they are utilized in the computation and analysis of the data derived from the administration of questionnaires to the three hundred and ninety (390) respondents drawn from the Plateau State Civil Service.

Interpretivism on the other hand, is subjective and inductive. It entails interpreting and understanding reasons for and the meanings of social actions in order to explain social life and the world in general. As such, it is not value-free and does not rely on existing laws but on observations. It focuses on the ways in which phenomena become real as a result of an increase in consciousness that arises from everyday communication, experiences and knowledge (Sarantakos, 1993). To this end, its principles enabled a determination of a cause and effect relationship that highlights the ways in which the characteristics of Nigeria's public administrative ecology affect the motivation of its employees. Since as stated above, the interpretivist perspective allows for the handling of data derived from smaller more manageable sizes of respondents, it was handy in the descriptive analyses of the data derived from interviews with twenty-one (21) respondents.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

Based on these descriptions, the study is both quantitative and qualitative. It is quantitative since it adopts instruments and methods of data collection and analysis relevant to quantitative research that entail the generation of numerical data or data which can be transformed into useable statistics based on generalized results derived from designated sample populations (Wyse, 2011). It is also qualitative since it entails reviewing literature related to the subject matter and variables of the research in order to garner relevant descriptive data. The combination

of both methods enabled the proper situation of the research in the light of its components and the variables under study. It was further used to checkmate the lapses arising from adopting only one method. As such, the quantitative method which deals with ‘abstracts’, complements the qualitative method which deals with phenomena from the realist perspective, and vice versa.

Osuala (2005) posited that since the ultimate goal of scientific research is the deduction of generalizations that provide the basis for making predictions, the research design should provide all the safeguard prerequisites to confirming or rejecting the hypotheses. Nwana (1981) described a research design as encompassing the totality of decisions to be taken with regard to the collection of data before the data are collected. Ngu (2009) viewed these decisions as affected by the type, nature or objectives of the research. Based on these factors, it is more or less a framework for the conduct of a study that refers to the methods, techniques, procedures or steps to be taken for data collection and analyses. For Asika (1991), it entailed structuring an investigation such that the variables and their relationship to one another are easily identified. It is deducible from these definitions that research designs form the core of research whether survey, descriptive, experimental or otherwise. They provide a thrust in the right direction that prevents ambiguity by providing guidance. All that any researcher requires is adequately taken care of by the requisite components of the corresponding research design. Research designs may be classified into the three types which are listed below:

- i. The experimental design;
- ii. The quasi-experimental design; and
- iii. The non-experimental design.

As described by Biereenu-Nnabugwu (2010), the experimental research design is characterized by rigorously controlled conditions and is obtainable in laboratory conditions

within the purview of the pure and natural sciences. On the other hand, the difficulty in eliminating or controlling stimuli in social science research involving humans as the subjects, makes the quasi-experimental and non-experimental designs more suitable. This is because they rely less on rigorous control and contain types of instruments which can be used for the study of past events such as the *ex-post-facto* design, oral interview and historical records. The *ex-post-facto* design is undertaken after the events have taken place and the data are already in existence. These qualities of the quasi-experimental and non-experimental designs make them relevant to and most appropriate for the instant study since the essence of the study is the determination of the relationship, if any, between the ecology of Nigeria's public administration and employee motivation in the Plateau State civil service. The research is also not a purely controlled one as it entails interactions with the staff of the civil service in order to evaluate their work attitudes and these can be influenced by human dynamics.

4.2.1 AREA OF STUDY

The Plateau State Civil Service presently consists of eighteen (18) ministries based on the constitutionally allocated concurrent responsibilities of states within Nigeria's federal structure (Constitution of 1999, Ohwona, 2007). They are comprised of Information, Health, Science and Technology, Women Affairs and Social Development, Works and Transport, Housing and Urban Development, Education, Finance and Economic Planning, Justice, Agriculture and Natural Resources, Water Resources and Rural Development, Local Government and Chieftaincy Affairs, Youth Development, Sports Development, Lands and Survey, Culture and Tourism, Environment, Cabinet Office and the Civil Service Commission which oversees the running of the entire state civil service. It was set up during the Gowon administration with the creation of Plateau State in 1976 (www.plateaustate.gov.ng/). It was also to boost administrative

convenience and the easy coordination of activities through the respective ministries under the auspices of commissioners in the state. The higher civil servants are to date, responsible for offering advice to enhance the promotion and regulation of the affairs of the civil service and improve its output (Plateau State Civil Service Commission, 2011). As a state civil service, its functions and objectives are limited to the following:

- a. Being an institution of nation building, economic and social progress e.g. industrialization through acting as an instrument of change, innovation and a development agent;
- b. Policy formulation, development planning and implementation, control and regulatory functions;
- c. Political leadership reliant on the higher civil servants for advice based on relevant data and experience in its custody;
- d. Translation of specific policy options into concrete results;
- e. Initiation of project ideas, undertaking feasibility studies of projects, the preparation, implementation, operation and evaluation of the viable projects and programmes;
- f. Enabling the government mobilize the available national resources and subsequently exercising control over the ownership and utilization of these resources;
- g. Traditional roles of the maintenance of law and order and related regulatory activities;
- h. Assisting the government in the preparation of appropriate legal documents to control the activities and behaviour of citizens and organizations within the state;
- i. The assessment and collection of taxes, issuance of permits, collection of fees or rates, regulation of ownership and control of business enterprises; and

- j. The collection and transmission of information for public consumption (Plateau State Civil Service Commission, 2011).

In relation to this, the guiding principle at its inception was that of a direct participant in national developmental activities. As the practice of federalism in Nigeria is largely centralized, most of the major, far-reaching policy outputs implemented in the states are normally determined and designed at the centre for implementation by the civil services at the state and local government levels (Osisu, 2015).

Over the years, these goals and objectives have apparently become utopian, relegated to the archives for records and reference purposes since their attainment has proved an uphill or almost impossible task. This is because the Civil Services at the federal and state levels, Plateau State Civil Service inclusive, have been unable to perform up to par despite the series of reforms which have been implemented for the purpose. Several reasons including excessive bureaucratic red-tapism, corruption, deplorable working conditions, etc. have been adduced for the state of affairs of Nigeria's public administration and the failures of the reforms to sufficiently ameliorate the situation. The research is however focused on the influence of factors within the socio-cultural environment of Nigeria's public administration on employee performance in the Plateau State Civil Service.

Pictures of some of the ministries that make up the Plateau State Civil Service are shown on the succeeding pages:

Fig. 4.1 Main Complex front and Back Views



Fig. 4.2: Ministries of Finance, Urban Development, Lands and Survey, and Health



Fig. 4.3: Civil Service Commission, Cabinet Office, Ministries of Culture and Tourism and Justice

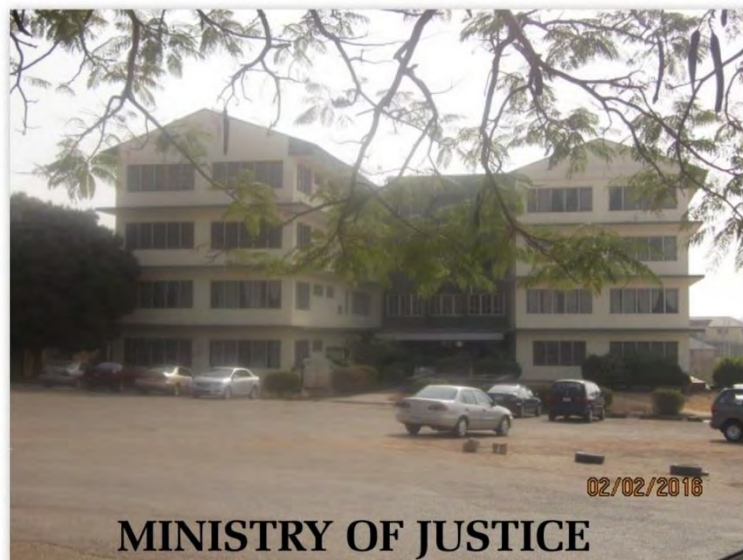


Fig. 4.4: Ministries of Environment, Commerce and Industry and Agriculture



Source: Pictures taken by the author, 2016.

Not all the ministries are originally located within the vicinity of the state secretariat because of paucity of space arising from changes in nomenclature, expansion of ministries, departments and agencies to reflect the national and global dynamics, etc. These include the ministries of lands, survey and town planning, housing and urban development, women affairs and social development, local government and chieftaincy, youth and sports development, information, culture and tourism, etc. to mention a few. Also, most of the structures containing the offices of the civil servants within the Plateau state secretariat have been undergoing renovation since 2013 and as such, many of the ministries have had to be quartered in offices and rented apartments spread across the Jos metropolis. Some of the ministries pictured above are just a few of those still functionally occupied within the secretariat as at the time of conducting the research.

4.2.2 POPULATION OF THE STUDY

The guiding principle for determining a study population is the convenience in selecting cases in a social survey when the relevant assumptions, requirements and attributes relevant to the research are readily available and met. Ideally, the study population should consist of all objects that possess the characteristics or have knowledge of the condition being studied within a certain territory in a given period (Webb et al, 1966; Black and Champion, 1976; Babbie and Mouton, 2001; Biereenu-Nnabugwu, 2010, Gupta 2011; Resnik, 2015). Staff of the Nigerian civil service are guided by particular sets of civil service rules, regulations and codes of conduct that with very few exceptions, normally apply across board to all the thirty-six (36) state civil services including that of the Federal Capital Development Authority (FCDA, Abuja), at the centre. Based on this, the work conditions, conditions of service, etc., are expected to be the same.

Asides the motivation issues arising from a dearth of infrastructure, insufficient pay and incentives, pressures of politics and partisanship, and so on, Plateau state, Nigeria, has seen its fair share of upheavals arising from ethno-religious conflicts and insurgency (Ostien, 2009; Krause, 2011). The totality of these represents the content of the administrative and non-administrative criteria in the immediate work and socio-cultural environments to which the state civil service employees have been exposed. A sample derived based on the total population of staff and cadres in the ministries, cabinet office and the state civil service commission of the Plateau State Civil Service enabled the evaluation of the impact of these experiences and environments on the employees motivation.

4.2.3 SAMPLE SIZE

Gupta (2011) quoted the principle of inertia of large numbers as stating that other things being equal, as the sample size increases, the results tend to be more reliable and accurate. This holds true in the instant research as the principle is applicable to the fact that the research involved a large sample size in view of the extent of the scope of study (the Plateau State civil service) and the context of the research (the ecology of Nigeria's public administration and employee motivation). Osuala (2005) opined that a sample should be neither too small to prevent results lacking in validity nor too large resulting in a waste of resources. As such, the three main factors that should guide the determination of a sample are the nature of the population, the type of sampling design and the degree of precision required. However, Akindele et al (2008) held that a large enough sample increases the possibilities of proper analysis and decreases the incidences of sampling errors. Furthermore, a large sample size increases the chances of the generalization of the research findings.

As the population in question is large and unarguably infinite, the lottery method of deriving a simple random sample was utilized. Gupta (2011) described it as reducing or avoiding human bias by ensuring that the basic characteristics of a population are taken into consideration in deriving a sample. The sample size was derived using the formula designed by Yemane (1967) thus:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

Where n = Sample size

N = Population size (16000)

e = Error limit (0.05).

The approximated total number of staff of the Plateau State Civil Service is sixteen thousand [16000] (Plateau State Civil Service Commission Annual Reports, 2011). The sample size was composed of three hundred and ninety [390] respondents approximated from 390.24 and derived thus:

$$n = \frac{16000}{1 + 16000(0.05)^2}$$

$$n = \frac{16000}{1 + 40}$$

$$n = \frac{16000}{41}$$

$$n = 390.24 \approx 390$$

4.2.4 SAMPLING TECHNIQUE

Akindele et al (2008) and Osuala (2005) defined sampling as a method of selecting a portion of the population to represent the whole. In doing this, the researcher was further guided by the law of statistical regularity noted by King (n.d.) in Gupta (2011). This law holds that a moderately large number of items chosen at random from a larger group are almost sure on the average, to possess the characteristics of that large group.

Based on this proposition, the simple random sampling method was adopted since it is characterized by the choice of objects from a larger group with the same specifics. It is relevant because it allows every member, unit or object of the population an equal and independent chance of being selected or included in the study size (Gupta, 2011). Ibanga (1992) considered it a convenient and useful technique for selecting cases in social survey when basic assumptions and requirements are met and cases that possess the attributes relevant to the research are readily available. The proportional stratified sampling method was also adopted since as noted by Obasi (1999), it takes care of certain composite characteristics of the population known to the researcher that are unlikely to be taken care of by the chance factor. It was adopted because the respondents were chosen proportionally, according to their grade levels within the civil service.

Nigerian Civil Servants are ranked between Grade Levels (GL) 1 to 16 in the state civil services. For the purpose of this research, the respondents were derived from across Grade Levels 6 to 16 because most of the staff on grade levels 1 to 5 are not literate enough to grapple with the contents of the questionnaire and interview schedules. The staff were grouped thus: GLs 6-9, 10-13 and 14-16. Twenty-one (21) respondents were drawn from the cadres on a proportion of seven (7) per cadre in each of the eighteen (18) ministries in the Plateau state civil service totaling three hundred and seventy-eight (378) and twelve (12) from the state civil service

commission bringing the total respondents to three hundred and ninety (390). The researcher attempted to achieve an even spread of the 52 ethnic groups by ensuring that all the local governments in Plateau State are represented. A minimum of ten (10) respondents represented each of the seventeen (17) local government areas of Plateau state to facilitate the assessment of the role of the socio-cultural environments in employee motivation in the Plateau State Civil Service. The interviews were conducted with twenty-one (21) individuals - seven from each cadre. These were also drawn from the subsisting respondents and interviewed in their individual capacities and work experience.

4.2.5 METHODS OF DATA COLLECTION

Akindele et al (2008) argued that the data collection methods must identify and describe all the instruments and devices used in collecting the data relevant to the study. This research utilized ‘multiple operationism’ which Webb, et al (1966) defined as the combination of a collection of methods in order to avoid sharing the same weaknesses. Also, both primary (empirical) and secondary data were collected for this study to ensure credible validity and reliability.

Primary Data: The primary data were gathered mainly through the administration of questionnaires. This method enhanced the respondents confidence because of the anonymity associated with it that afforded them a degree of openness and expression that did not bring them under any form of duress. The questionnaire was comprised of five sections (See Appendix A).

Section A covered the bio-data of the respondents including their ages, years of service, local government areas of origin, tribes, designations and their ministries or departments. Section B was comprised of statements assessing the effects of the motivational tools posited by the content and process organizational motivation theories on the motivation of the Plateau state

civil service employees. Statements in section C evaluated the administrative criteria for example the reforms, etc. present in the work place environment while Section D included statements that to a large extent, captured the non-administrative criteria present in the external environment of the employees. These were intended to elicit responses that enabled the researcher effectively gather data with regard to the relationship, if any, between the research variables. The statements in Section E assessed the effects of organizational socialization on the socio-cultural orientations of the employees to determine if exposure overtime to the demands and culture of the workplace in the Plateau state civil service had in any way influenced or changed the beliefs and conduct to which they might have been previously predisposed.

These statements were basically close-ended with designated responses. The close-ended questionnaire was also chosen by the researcher for convenience in consideration of the tight work schedules of the respondents though there were a total of three open ended statements eliciting information that the respondents deemed relevant to the research. Each close-ended statement had an option of five responses that ranged from Strongly Agree (SA) to Strongly Disagree (SD) based on a 5-point Likert-scale in order to allow as much latitude as possible for the respondents to give their views on the subject matter. It was also to enable the researcher effectively evaluate the degree to which the respondents are affected by the variables under study.

Other primary data collection methods that were utilized were key informant in-depth interviews and unstructured observation. Chowdhury and Chowdhury (2011) evaluated interviews as one of the most common methods of data collection in qualitative research. They describe it as similar to questionnaires because respondents are asked specific questions with the difference being that they are conducted by the interviewer personally and with single

respondents. They further described interviews as having provisions that guide the interviewer towards specific research goals by allowing for instant follow-up questions deriving from responses obtained. Pickard (2007) assessed in-depth interviews as relevant to the interviewer gaining a holistic understanding of the perceptions of the interviewee with regard to the phenomena under study. In the instant research, the interviews were conducted with twenty-one (21) staff. Apart from ensuring that the staffs were representative of the seventeen (17) local government areas of the state, all of them were picked randomly from across the cadres in the civil service. The interview instrument contained thirty-seven (37) questions that were drawn up in a manner that enabled the effective coverage of the research questions, objectives and the hypotheses (See Appendix B). In essence, they were made to reflect the key postulations of the content and process organizational motivation theories and factors within the employees immediate and outside-work-environments.

The unstructured observation method was adopted as an ‘unobtrusive’ measure (Webb, et. al, 1966) which enabled the researcher observe unspecified, involuntary activities and phenomena among the Plateau State civil servants as unbeknownst to them as possible. Lee (2000) asserted that unobtrusive methods are valuable because they encourage playful and creative approaches to data, undermining the tendency of researchers to rely on particular research methods because they are familiar or routine rather than that they are appropriate to the problem in hand. Unobtrusive methods imply an eclectic, non-ecumenical, stance towards data collection that Webb et al. (1966) contend, should be part of the normal methodological repertoire of the social scientist (Lee, 2000). The observation schedule should contain a list of items like a checklist that is monitored and recorded as the items listed occur (Maseh, 2015).

In this research, the checklist did not contain many items since the focus of the research was largely on the effect of the non-administrative criteria within Nigeria's public administrative environment on employee motivation. The researcher was constrained by the fact that only phenomena tending toward the non-administrative criteria and which occurred within the work environment could be assessed since there was no way to keep tabs on the employees once they were outside the official premises.

The use of the three data collection instruments was to enable the cross-validation of the responses. Also, the combination of the methods allowed the minimization or elimination of variations likely to arise from the researcher's perceptions of the situations (Denscombe, 2007). Furthermore, it was to ensure the dependability of the data collected since the quality of information gathered may have been tainted by the fact that the interviewees and the respondents were conscious of the presence of the researcher and perhaps, other colleagues. Osuala (2005) buttressed this point by pointing out that the very presence of the interviewer, with all that he represents in the mind of the respondents, affects the responses he obtains. The primary data from the questionnaires were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS Version 20) while the data from the interviews were analyzed using thematic content analyses.

B. Secondary Data: The secondary data were sourced from documents, information archived in the Cabinet Office of the Plateau State civil service, books by authors like Riggs (1961), Dahl (1947), Donaldson (2001), Pye (1965), Polinaidu (2004), Sharma et al (2011), Sharkansky (1978), Laxmikanth (2005), and a host of others. Also, information was gathered from internet sources, journals, publications and other reference materials - both published and unpublished. Thematic content analyses were also utilized in evaluating the secondary data.

The combination of these primary instruments and the secondary method was intended to facilitate an adequate understanding of the variables, content and context of the research.

4.2.6 TESTS OF VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Validity and reliability are two sides of the same coin in research. The concern of both is with the dependability and generalizability of the research findings. Validity entails the evidence that a study allows correct inferences about the question it aims to answer or that a test conceptually measures what it is intended to measure. Krishnaswami and Ranganathan (2010) identified three types of validity: the content (face and sampling related), the predictive (criterion related) and the construct. Biereenu-Nnabugwu (2010) noted that validity tests are different from reliability tests because validity tests are concerned with what is being measured while reliability tests are concerned with the instruments of measurement and their levels of precision and consistency. Uzoagulu (1998) defined validity in terms of the appropriateness of an instrument in measuring what it is intended to measure. It implies the extent to which an empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the concept under consideration (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). Similarly, Biereenu-Nnabugwu (2010) upheld the definition of validity by Hair et al (2000) as ‘the degree to which a research instrument serves the purpose for which it was constructed and the extent to which the conclusions drawn from the experiment are true’. The content validity is the extent to which the measurement device (in this case the questionnaire statements and interview questions) provides adequate coverage of the investigative questions; predictive validity implies the ability of the measures to make accurate predictions while construct validity is the extent to which the measurement questions actually measure the constructs that the researcher intends for them to measure (Saunders et al, 2012).

Reliability on the other hand, generally entails that significant results of a research must be constant and repeatable in the sense that researchers attempting to carry out the same research under the same conditions should arrive at the same conclusions as the previous research. Babbie and Mouton (2001) described the concept as the ability of a particular technique, applied repeatedly to the same object, to yield the same result each time. The findings must also be consistent if similar researches are replicated by different researchers (Saunders et al, 2012). This improves the degree of generalizability of a research finding. Biereenu-Nnabugwu (2010) in tandem with the views of Black and Champion (1976) and Obasi (1999) posited that reliability is the ability of an instrument to produce the same consistent results over time when applied to the same sample. Kerlinger (1973) and Asika (2005) defined it as the consistency between independent measurements of the same phenomena that has to do with the predictability, stability and dependability of a measuring instrument.

A. Tests of Validity

This study relied on the content and construct validity tests.

Content validity is the representativeness or sampling adequacy of the content, topics and matter of a measuring instrument. It focuses on the type, scope, items, extent of or content of the study(Kerlinger 1973;Biereenu-Nnabugwu 2010). In essence, a test demonstrates content validity when it accurately and adequately reflects the content and substance of the phenomena being investigated. These definitions are in tandem with the contentions of McQueen and Knussen (2002) that content validity is demonstrated when the content of a test fairly reflects the opinions, attitudes and events under study.

Construct validity as defined by Akindele et al (2008) is an evaluation of the extent to which an instrument measures the theoretical construct that the investigator intends to measure

i.e., whether the construct exists, is different from other constructs and therefore worthy of its own name. Basically, it explains a network of research findings and predicts further relationships. Kerlinger (1973) observed that construct validity concerns itself with theoretical constructs and scientific empirical inquiry that involves the testing of hypothesized relations. Biereenu-Nnabugwu (2010) described it as not only a handy tool for assessing how theory, concepts and hypotheses are formulated and tested but also for evaluating the adequacy of a theory in explaining data collected.

Efforts were made to adequately capture the characteristics of the variables under study within the designated primary instruments of data collection. This was done in a manner that portrayed a sufficient spread over the items deemed relevant to the logical assessment of the variables of the research. As specific theories that attempt to explain the variables under study already exist, the relationship between the theories adopted and the hypotheses of the research were evaluated to determine the suitability or otherwise of the theories for the context of the research.

B. Test of Reliability

Reliability entails that significant results of a research must be constant and repeatable in the sense that researchers attempting to carry out the same research under the same conditions should arrive at the same conclusions. This improves the degree of generalizability of a research finding. Reliability tests are concerned with levels of precision and consistency of the instruments of measurement. Biereenu-Nnabugwu (2010) agrees with Black and Champion (1976) and Obasi (1999) that reliability is the ability of an instrument to produce the same consistent results over time when applied to the same sample. Kerlinger (1973) and Asika (2005)

see it as the consistency between independent measurements of the same phenomena that has to do with the predictability, stability and dependability of a measuring instrument.

For the instant study, test-retest and the alternate form reliability methods have been adopted. The test-retest reliability method entails correlating data collected from the interviews with those from the questionnaire also collected under almost equivalent conditions. Biereenu-Nnabugwu (2010) describes the alternate form reliability method as involving the administration of two different forms of the test to the same respondents at the same time. In essence, there must be two measuring instruments administered within a designated time-frame by utilizing a combination of the primary data collection instruments (questionnaires and interviews) that contain indices to measure the research variables equally. Where a high coefficient correlation is established between the two, the tests results are reliable (Biereenu-Nnabugwu, 2010).

The reliability of this research rests in the characteristic permanence of the civil service and can be upheld if the ecology of Nigeria's public administration to which the employees have been exposed remains unchanged. Also, these must be evaluated based on the postulations of Riggs' Fused-Prismatic-Diffracted model and the contingency theory in determining the efficacy of the long established Western-oriented content and process motivation theories. This way, the possibility of arriving at similar findings will be heightened.

4.2.7 METHODS OF DATA ANALYSIS

As noted by Biereenu-Nnabugwu (2010), where the research hypotheses are not stated in null and alternate forms, as in the instant research, they may not necessarily require numerical testing or measurement. The issues raised by each research hypothesis were therefore addressed using

the descriptive, inferential and parametric and nonparametric statistical tools of data analyses and presentation.

Biereenu-Nnabugwu (2010) explained the descriptive tools as involving the use of quantitative tools like the Statistical Programme for Social Sciences (SPSS, Version 20) to summarize or handle a mass of data generated in a study in order to discover relationships between relevant variables. It also helps to describe the key features of a sample and translates numerical data to meaningful information while the inferential statistical tools as described by Obikeze (1990) involved making generalizations or predictions about the entire population based on samples derived from it. Adamu and Johnson (1975) described the parametric statistical tools of analysis as those which depend on a characteristic of a population to summarize information about the population with regard to the variable(s) under study. It entails drawing inferences on a population parameter based on a sampled, normally distributed population. The characteristics and parameters that can be ascribed to the population in this study include that they are all civil servants within the Plateau State Civil Service and hail from one local government or the other. As explained by Biereenu-Nnabugwu (2010), the correlational analyses measure, describe and yield coefficients which reveal the closeness, strength and relationship between the variables.

The analyses presented in this study were based on:

- a. **Karl Pearson's product-moment coefficient formula:** it is adequate for the quantitative measurement of and for the determination of linear relationships between the variables under consideration in a study thus:

$$r = \frac{\sum xy}{\sqrt{\sum x^2 \sum y^2}}$$

Where r = the coefficient of correlation

X= the deviation from the mean of one variable

Y= the deviation from the mean of the corresponding variable; And on:

- b. The **Bivariate Two-way frequency table correlation method** which as described by Gupta (2011), enables the summarization of fairly large data based on the formula:

$$r = r_{xy} = \frac{N \sum fxy - (\sum fx)(\sum fy)}{\sqrt{[N \sum fx^2 - (\sum fx)^2] \times [N \sum fy^2 - (\sum fy)^2]}}$$

Where r = the coefficient of correlation

N = the total frequency

F = the frequency and the product of x and y

- c. **Spearman's rank correlation coefficient**, usually denoted by ρ (**Rho**) which Gupta (2011) described as relevant in the measurement of variables with qualitative characteristics which cannot be measured quantitatively but can be arranged serially. The analyses is based on the formula:

$$\rho = 1 - \frac{6 \sum d^2}{n(n^2 - 1)}$$

Where d = the difference between the pair of ranks of the same individual in the two characteristics

n = the number of pairs

- d. The open-ended questions in section E of the questionnaire and the interview responses were analyzed using **thematic content analysis** and **the simple percentage formula** which were expressed with graphic presentations as deemed appropriate thus:

$$\frac{\text{NR X 100\%}}{\text{TNR}}$$

Where NR = the number of responses to each variable

TNR = the total number of responses.

4.3 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS IN THE RESEARCH

Ethics are defined as norms of conduct that distinguish between acceptable and unacceptable behavior while promoting the aims of research that include the expansion of knowledge, truths and the avoidance of errors (Resnik, 2015). Johnson and Christensen (2008) defined them as the norms or standards of behavior that guide moral choices about behaviour and our relationships with others. They entail the appropriateness of a researcher's behaviour in relation to the rights of those who become the subjects of the study or are affected by it (Saunders et al. 2009) encompassing morality and responsibility in the formulation and clarification of the research topic, design, data collection, processing, storing, analysis and presentation (Ngulube, 2015).

The University of KwaZulu-Natal code of research ethics upholds honesty and integrity, safe and responsible methods as well as equity and fairness for the research participants. As such, the researcher explained the intentions and context of the research and assured the respondents of their rights to privacy, confidentiality and freedom from deliberate violations or harm. The respondents were also informed that they could participate anonymously and that the inquiries were for purely research purposes. Furthermore, their rights to participate, not participate or stop participating in the research as contained in the informed consent forms, were clearly communicated to them in an information letter contained on the first pages of the questionnaire and interview schedules. Before the commencement of the survey research, the

relevant authorization was obtained from the Plateau state civil service commission as is required (See Appendix C). It was on these bases that the ethical clearance and approval to commence the research survey were granted by the Ethics committee at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa (See Appendix D) since the research topic had already been approved.

4.4 EVALUATION OF THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Virtually every research conducted must be evaluated to determine the extent to which the methods and investigative methodology adopted were apt in analyzing the phenomena for which the research was initiated. The methodology evaluation procedure enables the researcher highlight unexpected changes to and the limitations of the research design, the ethical considerations and the challenges faced in the course of the research (Ngulube, 2005).

As the research progressed, it became imperative to adjust items three and four of the research questions and objectives and subsume them under item two of the research questions and objectives. This was because it was evident that they reflected components of the non-administrative criteria which comprised one of the variables under study. As a result, item two of the research questions and the research objectives were broadened to reflect the contexts which the subsumed items three and four originally portrayed. This reduced the research questions and objectives to three from the five initially proposed, making it more concise. The adjustments neither affected the hypotheses which were the broader issues for investigation and provided clarity on the non-administrative criteria being studied, nor did they in any way affect the subject matter of the research.

As per the primary data collection procedure, the research adopted the unobtrusive methods approach. One major justification for the use of the unobtrusive methods lies in the

methodological weaknesses of interviews and questionnaires (Lee, 2000). The addition of the unstructured observation technique to bring the total methods of data collection to three was therefore beneficial in enhancing the quality of data collected. This was done because of the tendency of interviews and questionnaires to, as noted by Lee (2000), create attitudes in part whereby respondents commonly try to manage their personal impressions in order to maintain their standing in the eyes of the researcher. As noted earlier, the use of the unstructured observation technique was however encumbered by the inability of the researcher to observe the employees activities outside the confines of their workplace environments.

At the initial stage, the questionnaire and interview respondents were to be drawn from Grade Levels 6 to 17, divided into three groups, 6-9, 10-13 and 14 to 17. However, the researcher was duly informed that the Grade Level 17 only exists in the federal civil service as the highest level of bureaucrats in the state civil services were those on Grade Level 16. Consequently, the respondents were derived from across three cadres of staff -the middle (GL 6-9), the upper-middle (GL 10-13) and the upper (GL 14-16) - within the scope of the study which is the Plateau State Civil Service. The researcher attempted to achieve an even spread by ensuring that all the seventeen local government areas (LGAs) in Plateau State were equally represented by the respondents taking into consideration, the extent of ethno-diversity within the state. It is noteworthy that within these local government areas, there are fifty-two ethno-linguistic groups basically subsumed under about forty (40) diverse ethnic groups because of the fact that some of the groups spill into other local government areas with which they share boundaries. There were a minimum of ten (10) questionnaire respondents representing each of the local government areas of the state. This consciousness was to facilitate the assessment of the socio-cultural environments of the respondents, the work environment as represented by the

Plateau State Civil Service and the relationship, if any, between these environments and employee motivation.

Three hundred and ninety (390) questionnaires in all were administered but only three hundred and forty-three (343) copies of the total returned were considered valid enough for the analyses. For the remaining forty-seven (47) copies, few were too damaged to be put to use, others were not filled properly and the rest were not returned at all. The response rate was therefore reasonably high and satisfactory. The guarantee of anonymity and confidentiality encouraged the respondents to give maximum cooperation and to exhibit a degree of honesty in filling the questionnaires. The researcher had to allow periods of two to five-week intervals before retrieving the questionnaires because of its bulk and the fact that the staff still had to accord priority to their official and administrative responsibilities. Also, some of the respondents proceeded on their annual leaves during the period, further delaying the retrieval and collation of the questionnaires by the researcher.

The interviews were conducted after the questionnaires had been administered and retrieved. The focus of the interviews was more on achieving a spread of the respondents across the seventeen local governments than on achieving a spread across the eighteen ministries of the Plateau State Civil Service. They were originally to be conducted with eighteen (18) respondents. However, after the first six interviews were conducted, the interview schedules had to be reworked when it was observed that they did not adequately cover the variables as contained in the research questions and so could be inadequate in effectively achieving the research objectives. The initial six interviews were thus, treated as a pre-test. Consequently, another fifteen (15) interviews were conducted bringing the total number of interviews to twenty-one (21) since the information derived from the first six was not discarded. The gaps on

the pre-test interviews were captured under the term ‘missing values’ in respect of the questions and information lacking on them at the time.

It was also observed in the course of the interviews that the higher the grade levels, the better and more tangible the quality of information received because of the level of education, wealth of experience, etc. that appeared to be lacking with the staff on GL 1 to 5 who had been approached by the researcher to serve as respondents. This further informed the decision to exempt the staff on GL 1 to 5 as a result of their inability to fully grasp the contexts of the interview questions on the basis that the technicalities involved were beyond their comprehension and that they lacked the requisite experience for tangible responses. Many staff in this cadre referred the researcher to interview officers on the higher grade levels and notably, no hitches were experienced in the course of the interviews.

As per the methods of data analyses, the Spearman’s rank correlation coefficient had to be adopted to boost the quality of analyses alongside the Pearson’s product moment coefficient formula and Bi-variate two-way frequency table correlation method which were initially proposed. It served as a buffer for the proper measurement of the qualitative aspects of the data (Gupta, 2011).

4.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter provided comprehensive details and guidelines on the components of the research methodology to enable an in-depth evaluation of factors that reflect the variables under study. It opened with an introduction to the chapter and discussed the quasi-experimental research design adopted for the study. This choice was made based on the propositions of the positivist and interpretivist perspectives since the study is both quantitative and qualitative in nature. It

included concise information that describes the study area and its characteristics as they pertain to the variables of the study. The population of the study was indicated and the formulas used for deriving the sample size such that it adequately represents the population, explained. The chapter discussed the random and proportional sampling techniques utilized in deriving the sample size including the reasons why they were most appropriate for the study. The sources and methods of data collection and the tests of validity and reliability were also described and reasons for adopting the specified tests, including their adequacy in measuring the accuracy and generalizability of the research findings, provided. The chapter, in line with achieving the research objectives, also covered the procedures for data analyses, testing the hypotheses and reviewing the research questions to determine a correlation or otherwise between the variables.

In a nutshell, this methodology chapter has attempted to do two main things that are covered in such a chapter conventionally. First, it demonstrated that the researcher understands what the research methodology chapter considers from a general perspective. This included discussing the key concepts pertaining to research e.g. qualitative and quantitative methods, primary and secondary data, validity and reliability, etc. Secondly, the chapter specifically discussed how data for this particular study were collected. This included a step-by-step account of the data collection methods, the challenges experienced during the data collection process as well as strategies employed to resolve the challenges.

The next chapter focuses on the presentation of the data collected and analyzed using the components of the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) as explained in the section on methods of data analysis.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSES

5.0 INTRODUCTION

This study examined the ecology of Nigeria's public administration and employee motivation in the Plateau state civil service between the years 2004 to 2014. As mentioned in chapter 4, participants for this study were three hundred and forty-three (343) who responded to the structured questionnaire. 206 were males, 128 females, while about 9 of them did not indicate gender. For the interviews, there were twenty-one (21) respondents, 7 of whom were female and the remaining 14, males. All of them were staff of the Plateau State Civil Service at the time that the research and data collection were carried out. The responses and interpretation of data are presented in the sections below. The data from the questionnaire are presented first followed by the data derived from the interviews.

5.1 DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSES

The questionnaire data collected were coded for ease of analysis and presentation. Birley and Moreland (1998) described coding as a procedure which enables the structuring of data into an analyzable form that entails the use of letters, numerals or alpha-numeric codes to represent the data without necessarily referring to each response in the sample. This helps reduce bulk and present data in a more tangible and manageable form that makes it relevant to the researcher and future researchers. The coded data were then analyzed using Pearson's coefficient of correlation formula, Spearman's rank correlation coefficient and the Bivariate Two-way frequency correlation method. The Pearson's correlation formula is usually more appropriate for parametric analyses involving quantifiable numerical data. However, because of the bulk of information collected in the questionnaires, such that some of the data could not be allocated numerical

values, it was not ideal to base the analysis solely on the Pearson’s correlation formula. To check this gap, the data collected were also subjected to analysis using Spearman’s Rho which is a statistical analytical tool for handling unquantifiable numerical data (Gupta, 2011). The interview data on the other hand is basically qualitative in nature and so they were analyzed using thematic content analyses relevant in the handling of qualitative data. Content analysis is defined by Babbie and Mouton (2001) as the systematic collection and organization of information in a standard format that allows analysts draw conclusions about the characteristics and meaning of recorded material.

5.1.1 Results, Analyses and Interpretation of the Questionnaire Data

The pre-test conducted on the questionnaire proved that the instrument had adequately taken the context of the research questions into consideration and was properly constructed to handle the research hypotheses to be tested. The table below is a frequency statistics and percentage rating of the bio-data and socio-demographic characteristics of the questionnaire respondents presented as a concise summary.

Respondents Bio-data and Socio-demographic Information (Questionnaires)

Table 5.1: Respondents Bio-data

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	206	60.1%
Female	128	37.3%
Age		
18-25	1	.3%
26-35	39	11.4%
36-45	131	38.2%
46-55	115	33.5%
56 & Above	24	7.0%
LGA		
BarkinLadi	17	5.0%
Bassa	22	6.4%
Bokkos	36	10.5%
Jos-East	8	2.3%

Jos-North	25	7.3%
Jos-South	22	6.4%
Kanam	15	4.4%
Kanke	22	6.4%
Langtang-North	30	8.7%
Langtang-South	7	2.0%
Mangu	28	8.2%
Mikang	12	3.5%
Pankshin	50	14.6%
Qua'an Pan	15	4.4%
Riyom	8	2.3%
Shendam	9	2.6%
Wase	7	2.0%
Ethnic Group		
Ngas	21	6.1%
Jhar	8	2.3%
Yuom	11	3.2%
Ron	18	5.2%
Mupun	19	5.5%
Taroh	22	6.4%
Mwaghavul	17	5.0%
Berom	26	7.6%
Pan	12	3.5%
Afizere	19	5.5%
Bugum	6	1.7%
Mushere	13	3.8%
Bogghom	7	2.0%
Rukuba	6	1.7%
Anaguta	11	3.2%
Kwalla	9	2.6%
Kulere	7	2.0%
Goemai	10	2.9%
Aten	5	1.5%
Kadung	7	2.0%
Jukun	9	2.6%
Mernjang	14	4.1%
Fulani	9	2.6%
Buji	7	2.0%
Chip	10	2.9%
Doemak	6	1.7%
Pyem	4	1.2%
Rumada	7	2.0%
Irigwe	11	3.2%

Ministry	20	5.8%
Civil Service Comm.	19	5.5%
Finance	18	5.3%
Health	14	4.1%
Environment	17	5.0%
Works & Transport	15	4.4%
Justice	20	5.8%
Education	15	4.4%
Lands & Survey	21	6.1%
Women Affairs	18	5.3%
Commerce & Industry	20	5.8%
Water Resources	19	5.5%
Local Gov. & Chieftaincy Affairs	19	5.5%
Information & Communications	17	5.0%
Science & Technology	16	4.7%
Youth & Sports Development	16	4.7%
Housing & Urban Development	21	6.1%
Culture & Tourism	21	6.1%
Agriculture & Rural Development	17	5.0%
Cabinet Office		
Grade Level	104	30.3%
6-9	126	36.7%
10-13	90	26.2%
14-16		
Years in Service	24	7.0%
1-5	53	15.5%
6-10	57	16.6%
11-15	39	11.4%
16-20	81	23.6%
21-25	41	12.0%
26-30	16	4.7%
31-35		
Education	18	5.2%
Secondary	137	39.9%
Polytechnic	110	32.1%
University	52	15.2%
Others		

Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

Table 5.2: Frequencies for the Respondents' Socio-demographic Information (Questionnaire)

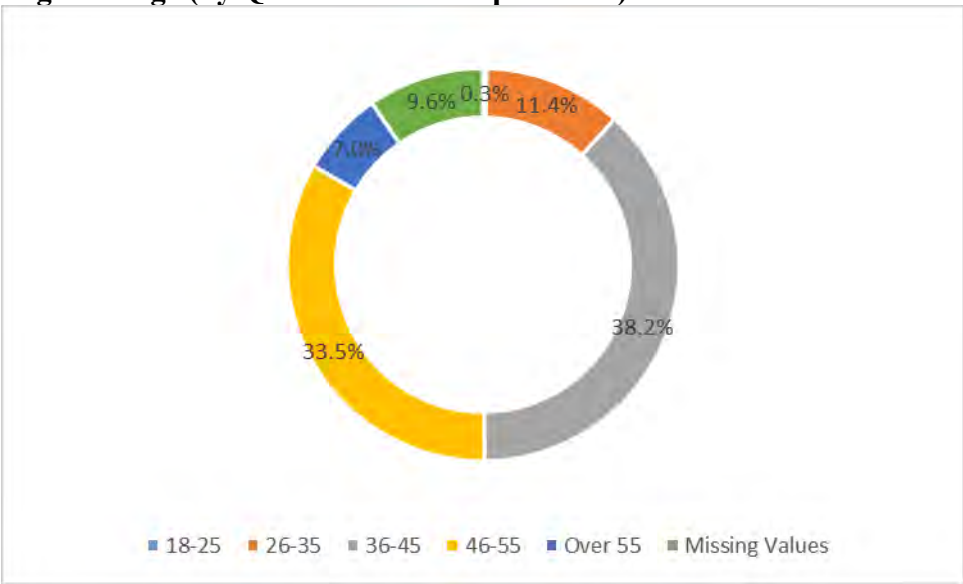
		Statistics							
		Age	Sex	LGA	Ethnic Group	Ministry	Grade Level	Years in Service	Education
N	Valid	310	334	333	331	321	320	311	317
	Missing	33	9	10	12	22	23	32	26
Mean		48.94	1.38	8.33	12.49	8.74	1.96	3.92	2.62
Std. Error of Mean		.464	.027	.247	.454	.290	.044	.095	.046
Median		45.00	1.00	8.00	10.00	9.00	2.00	4.00	3.00
Mode		45	1	13	8	1	2	5	2
Std. Deviation		8.165	.487	4.516	8.261	5.192	.779	1.677	.824
Variance		66.662	.237	20.397	68.251	26.960	.606	2.813	.680
Range		40	1	16	28	17	2	6	3
Minimum		25	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Maximum		65	2	17	29	18	3	7	4
Sum		15170	462	2774	4135	2807	626	1220	830
Percentiles	25	45.00	1.00	4.50	6.00	4.00	1.00	3.00	2.00
	50	45.00	1.00	8.00	10.00	9.00	2.00	4.00	3.00
	75	55.00	2.00	13.00	20.00	12.00	3.00	5.00	3.00

Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

Frequency Tables per Subject:

For clarity, the information contained in the table above was broken into specific subheadings to enable the articulation and interpretation of the data as it applied to the study.

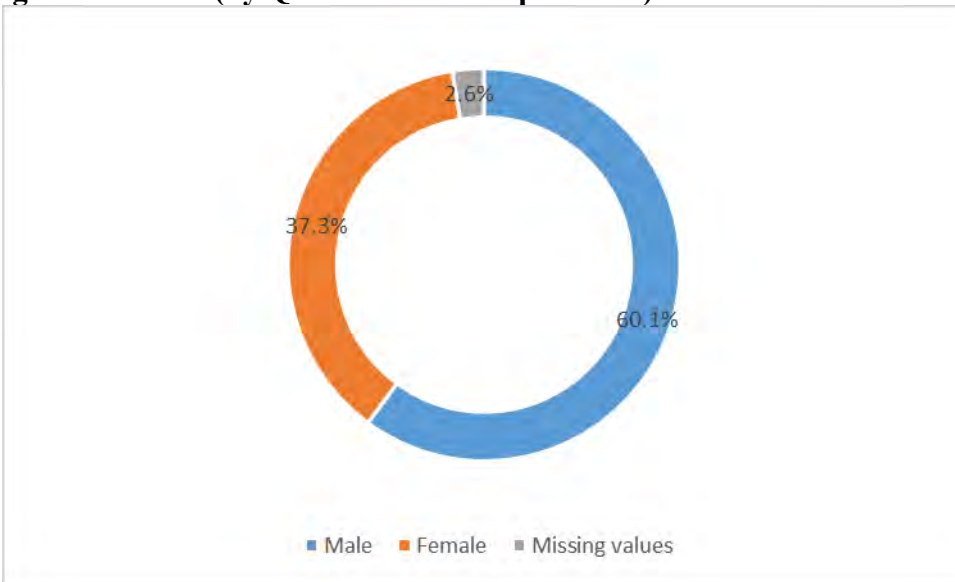
Fig. 5.1: Age (by Questionnaire Respondents)



Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

This chart shows that most of the questionnaire respondents(38.2%) were in the 36 – 45 year age range closely followed by those in the 46 – 55 age range with 33.5%.

Fig. 5.2: Gender (by Questionnaire Respondents)



Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

The information in the figure above indicates that majority (60.1%) of the questionnaire respondents were male while the females accounted for 37.3%. The men were actually more amenable and willing to participate in the research than the women.

Table 5.3: Local Government Area of Origin (by Questionnaire Respondents)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Barikin Ladi	17	5.0	5.1	5.1
Bassa	22	6.4	6.6	11.7
Bokkos	36	10.5	10.8	22.5
Jos-East	8	2.3	2.4	24.9
Valid Jos-North	25	7.3	7.5	32.4
Jos-South	22	6.4	6.6	39.0
Kanam	15	4.4	4.5	43.5
Kanke	22	6.4	6.6	50.2
Lantang-North	30	8.7	9.0	59.2

Langtang-South	7	2.0	2.1	61.3
Mangu	28	8.2	8.4	69.7
Mikang	12	3.5	3.6	73.3
Pankshin	50	14.6	15.0	88.3
Qua'an Pan	15	4.4	4.5	92.8
Riyom	8	2.3	2.4	95.2
Shendam	9	2.6	2.7	97.9
Wase	7	2.0	2.1	100.0
Total	333	97.1	100.0	
Missing System	10	2.9		
Total	343	100.0		

Source: Field Survey 2016(Compiled by the author)

Coincidentally, as per representation by local government areas, Pankshin Local Government Area had a 14.6% majority followed closely by Bokkos Local Government Area with 10.5%.

Table 5.4: Ethnic Group (by Questionnaire Respondents)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid				
Ngas	21	6.1	6.3	6.3
Jhar	8	2.3	2.4	8.8
Youm (Garkawa)	11	3.2	3.3	12.1
Ron (Challa)	18	5.2	5.4	17.5
Mupun	19	5.5	5.7	23.3
Taroh	22	6.4	6.6	29.9
Mwaghavul	17	5.0	5.1	35.0
Berom	26	7.6	7.9	42.9
Pan	12	3.5	3.6	46.5
Afizere (Jarawa)	19	5.5	5.7	52.3
Burum	6	1.7	1.8	54.1
Mushere	13	3.8	3.9	58.0
Bogghom	7	2.0	2.1	60.1
Rukuba	6	1.7	1.8	61.9
Anaguta	11	3.2	3.3	65.3

Kwalla	9	2.6	2.7	68.0
Kulere	7	2.0	2.1	70.1
Goemai	10	2.9	3.0	73.1
Aten	5	1.5	1.5	74.6
Kadung	7	2.0	2.1	76.7
Jukun	9	2.6	2.7	79.5
Mernyang	14	4.1	4.2	83.7
Fulani	9	2.6	2.7	86.4
Buji	7	2.0	2.1	88.5
Chip	10	2.9	3.0	91.5
Doemak	6	1.7	1.8	93.4
Pyem	4	1.2	1.2	94.6
Rumada	7	2.0	2.1	96.7
Irigwe	11	3.2	3.3	100.0
Total	331	96.5	100.0	
Missing System	12	3.5		
Total	343	100.0		

Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

The Berom was the most represented ethnic group as they constituted the highest number of respondents (7.6%) while Pyem with 1.2% had the least representation. This may be attributable to the fact that the Berom are the most dominant ethnic group in the state spread across four (4) local government areas - Jos North, Jos South, Barkin-Ladi and Riyom - with pockets of them still inhabiting other local government areas like Jos East, as minority communities. Also, virtually all the Plateau State civil service offices are located within the metropolitan areas of Jos North and Jos South which are two of the four main local government areas inhabited by the Berom ethnic group.

Table 5.5: Ministry (by Questionnaire Respondents)

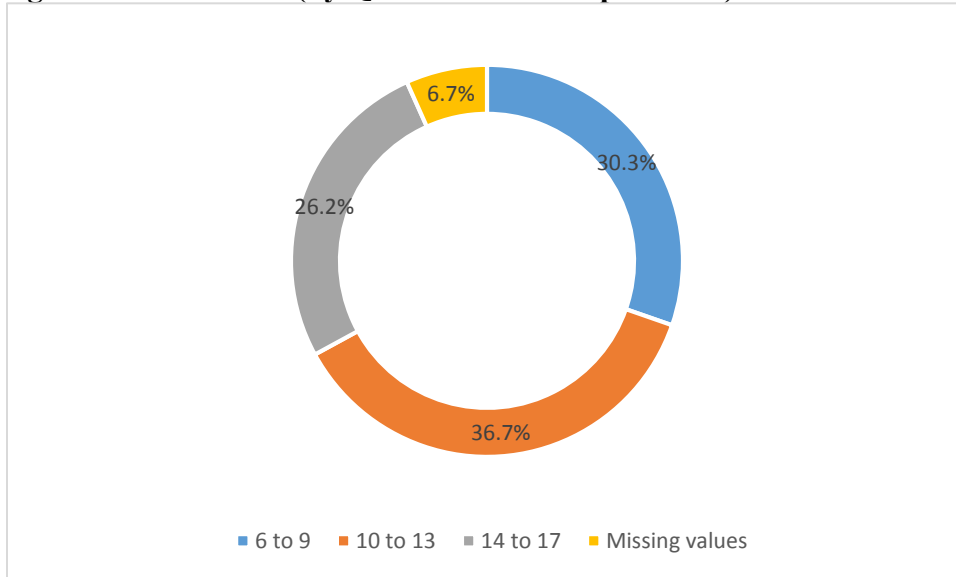
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Civil Service Commission	20	5.8	5.8	5.8
Finance	19	5.5	5.5	11.3
Health	18	5.3	5.3	16.6
Environment	14	4.1	4.1	20.7
Works & Transport	17	5.0	5.0	25.7
Justice	15	4.4	4.4	30.1
Education	20	5.8	5.8	35.9
Lands & Survey	15	4.4	4.4	40.3
Agriculture & Rural Development	21	6.1	6.1	46.4
Commerce & Industry	18	5.3	5.3	51.7
Water Resources	20	5.8	5.8	57.5
Local Government & Chieftaincy Affairs	19	5.5	5.5	63.0
Information & Communications	19	5.5	5.5	68.5
Science & Technology	17	5.0	5.0	73.5
Youth and Sports Development	16	4.7	4.7	78.2
Women Affairs and Social Development	21	6.1	6.1	84.3
Culture and Tourism	21	6.1	6.1	90.4
Housing and Urban Development	16	4.7	4.7	95.1
Cabinet Office	17	5.0	5.0	95.1
			100.0	100.0
Total	343	100.0		

Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

Similarly, the ministries with the majority of respondents in this study are Agriculture and Natural Resources, Women Affairs and Culture and Tourism with 6.1% each. These are the ministries where the target number of twenty-one (21) participants per ministry was reached. The ministries of Finance, Local Government and Chieftaincy Affairs and Information and

communication were next with 5.5% as the questionnaires were filled by nineteen respondents in each of them.

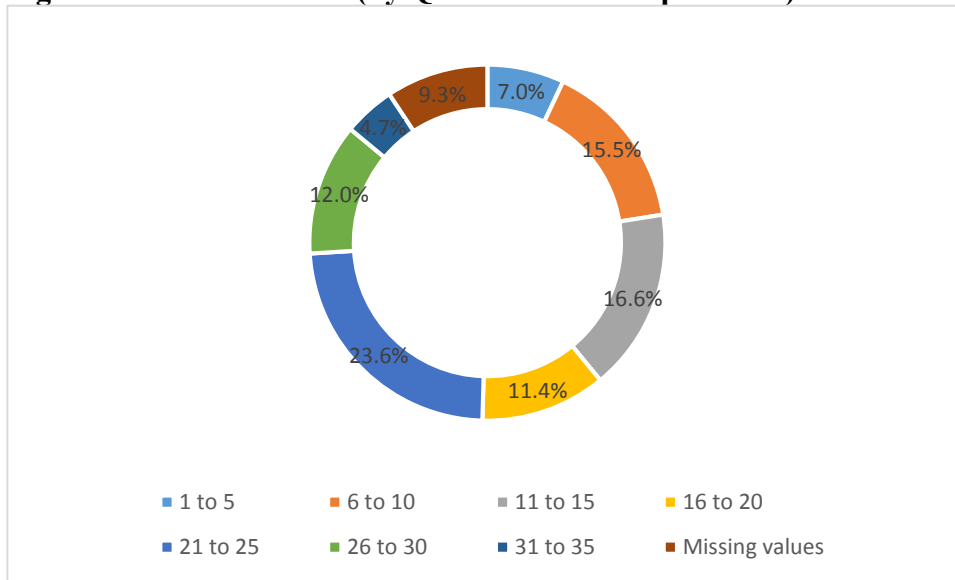
Fig. 5.3: Grade Level (by Questionnaire Respondents)



Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

Most of the respondents were within the Grade Levels 10 – 13 representing 36.7% of the study population. The next highest value was 30.3% representing those on Grade Levels 6 – 9.

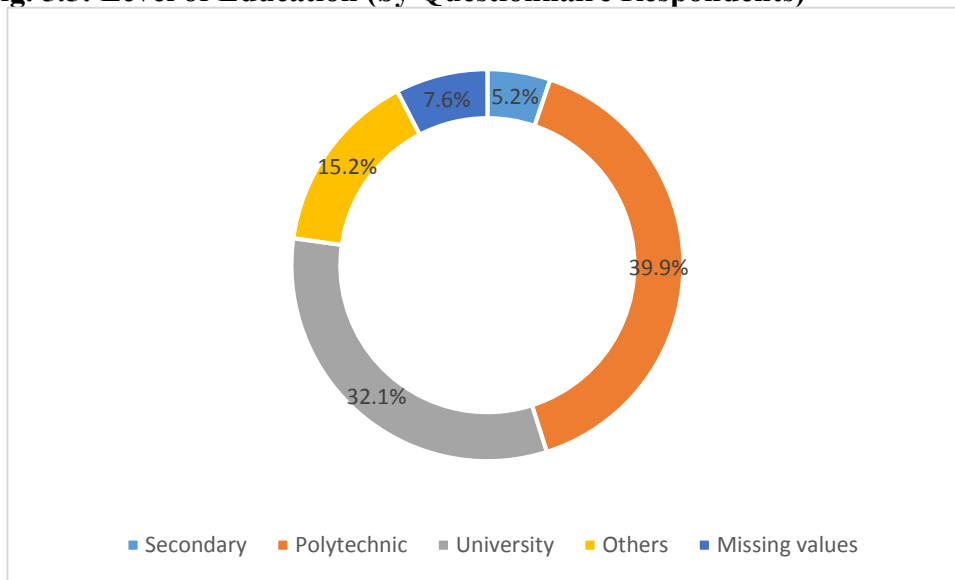
Fig. 5.4: Years in Service (by Questionnaire Respondents)



Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

The figure above shows that the majority of the questionnaire respondents were the staff who had spent 21 – 25 years in service representing 23.6%.

Fig. 5.5: Level of Education (by Questionnaire Respondents)



Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

The educational level most represented in this study is the polytechnic with 39.9% indicating that it is the highest level of tertiary education obtained by most of the respondents.

A. Inferential Statistics and Hypotheses Testing

To test the hypotheses of this study, the data from participants' responses were coded into Microsoft Excel and computed on SPSS using Version 20. Hypotheses two, three and four were interpreted using the Pearson's correlation coefficient and Spearman's rank correlation coefficient while the one-sample t-test was used to analyze hypothesis one since the correlation analysis was not appropriate for its testing. Subsequently, the data were also analyzed using the Bi-variate two-way frequency correlation method and the results presented with the aid of scatter diagrams. Scatter diagrams enable the diagrammatic representation of a bi-variate distribution and are simple tools for ascertaining the correlation between two variables. They also enable the formation of fairly good though rough or vague impressions about the relationship between two

variables and are interpretable in various ways depending on the extent of correlation implied by the directions and positions of the points on the diagram (Gupta, 2011). In the instant research, the points attained a degree of density, close to each other toward the centre of the diagram thereby revealing a fairly good correlation between the analyzed variables (Gupta, 2011).

Hypothesis One:

The Western-oriented content and process organizational motivation theories are target-specific and wholly tenable in explaining the factors underlying workers motivation in the Plateau State Civil Service.

Table 5.6: Comparison between Motivators and Employee Performance

One-Sample Test	Test Value = .5						95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig.	Mean Difference	Lower	Upper
Motivators	343	70.80	13.15	99.02	342	.000	70.29592	68.8995	71.6923

The results from table two indicate that the score for the respondents’ motivators was statistically significant in comparison with the population mean, $t(342) = 99.02, p < .05$. The confidence interval shows that on a number of occasions, up to 95% on a scale of 100%, the difference between employee motivation and performance is between 68.8995 and 71.6923. In other words, the application of motivators produced detectable effects on employee performance.

T-Test:

Table 5.6.1: One-Sample Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Motivators	343	70.7959	13.14825	.70994

Table 5.6.2: One-Sample Test

	Test Value = .5					
	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
Motivators	99.017	342	.000	70.29592	68.8995	71.6923

Table 5.6.3: Correlations between Administrative Criteria and Employee Motivation

Variable Pair	Mean	Std. Deviation	N	<i>r</i>	Sig.
Administrative Criteria	32.40	6.10	343	.374	.000
Motivators	70.80	13.15			

The correlation table above reveals there is a significant and positive relationship, $r(341) = .374$, $p < .05$, between administrative criteria (which include components of the motivation theories usually applied in the work place) and employee motivation. As such, the proper or improper application of most of their postulations is strongly associated with work performance.

Table 5.6.4: Descriptive correlation statistical analysis for Hypothesis One

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Administrative Criteria	343	1.00	62.00	32.4023	6.10064
Motivators	343	37.00	107.00	70.7959	13.14825
Valid N (listwise)	343				

Table 5.6.5: Descriptive Statistics for Hypothesis One

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Administrative Criteria	32.4023	6.10064	343
Motivators	70.7959	13.14825	343

Table 5.6.6: Correlations

		Administrative Criteria	Motivators
Administrative Criteria	Pearson Correlation	1	.374**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	343	343
Motivators	Pearson Correlation	.374**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	343	343

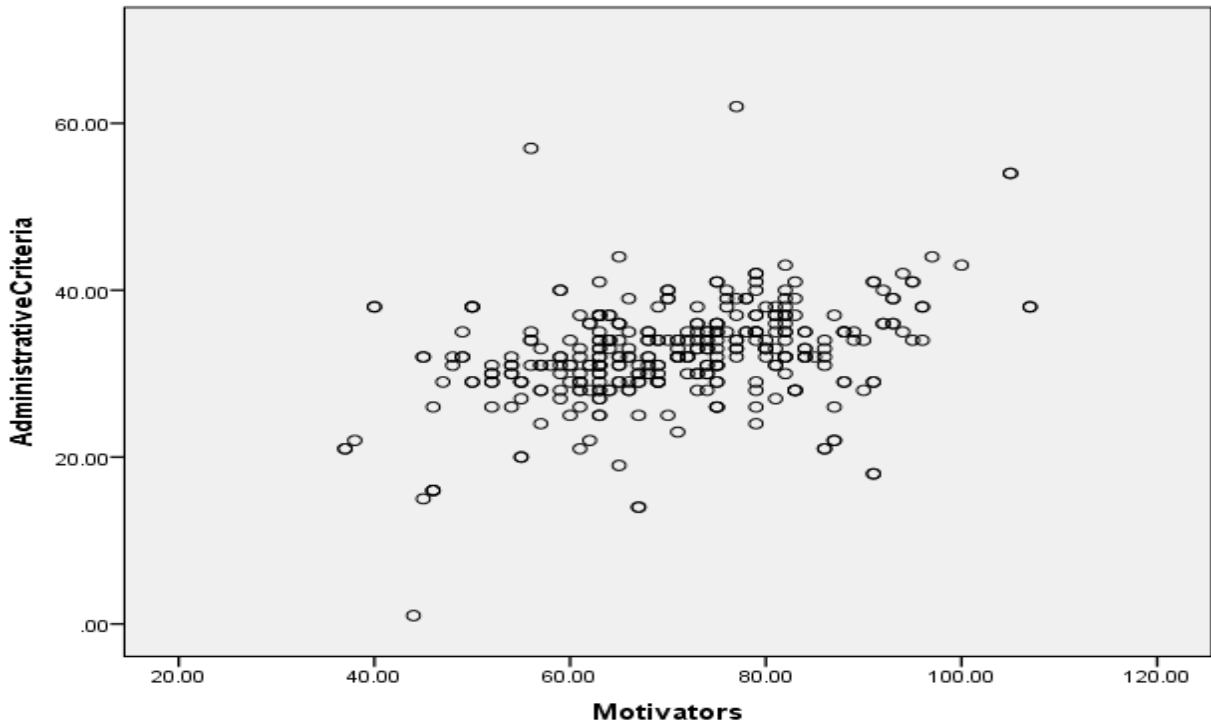
** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 5.6.7: Nonparametric Correlations

		Administrative Criteria	Motivators
Administrative Criteria	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.371**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
	N	343	343
Motivators	Correlation Coefficient	.371**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
	N	343	343

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Fig. 5.6 Graph/SCATTERPLOT(BIVAR) = Motivators WITH AdministrativeCriteria/MISSING=LISTWISE.



Hypothesis Two:

Non-administrative criteria in the socio-cultural environment of Nigeria’s public administration and extraneous to the immediate work environment of the Plateau State civil servants significantly affect their work ethics and performance.

Table 5.7: Correlation between the Non-Administrative Criteria and Employee Motivation

Variable Pair	Mean	Std. Deviation	N	R	Sig.
Non-administrative criteria	163.37	25.42	341	.299	.000
Motivators	70.80	13.15			

The above results show a significant and positive relationship, $r(339) = .299, p < .05$. In other words, the socio-cultural environment of Nigeria’s public administration and the non-

administrative criteria existent within this environment are strongly associated with employee motivation and performance.

Table 5.7.1: Descriptive Statistics Listwise

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Non-Administrative-Criteria	341	55.00	221.00	163.3695	25.41742
Motivators	343	37.00	107.00	70.7959	13.14825
Valid N (listwise)	341				

Table 5.7.2: Descriptive Statistics for Hypothesis Two

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Non-Administrative-Criteria	163.3695	25.41742	341
Motivators	70.7959	13.14825	343

Table 5.7.3: Correlations

		Non-Administrative Criteria	Motivators
Non-Administrative-Criteria	Pearson Correlation	1	.299**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	341	341
Motivators	Pearson Correlation	.299**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	341	343

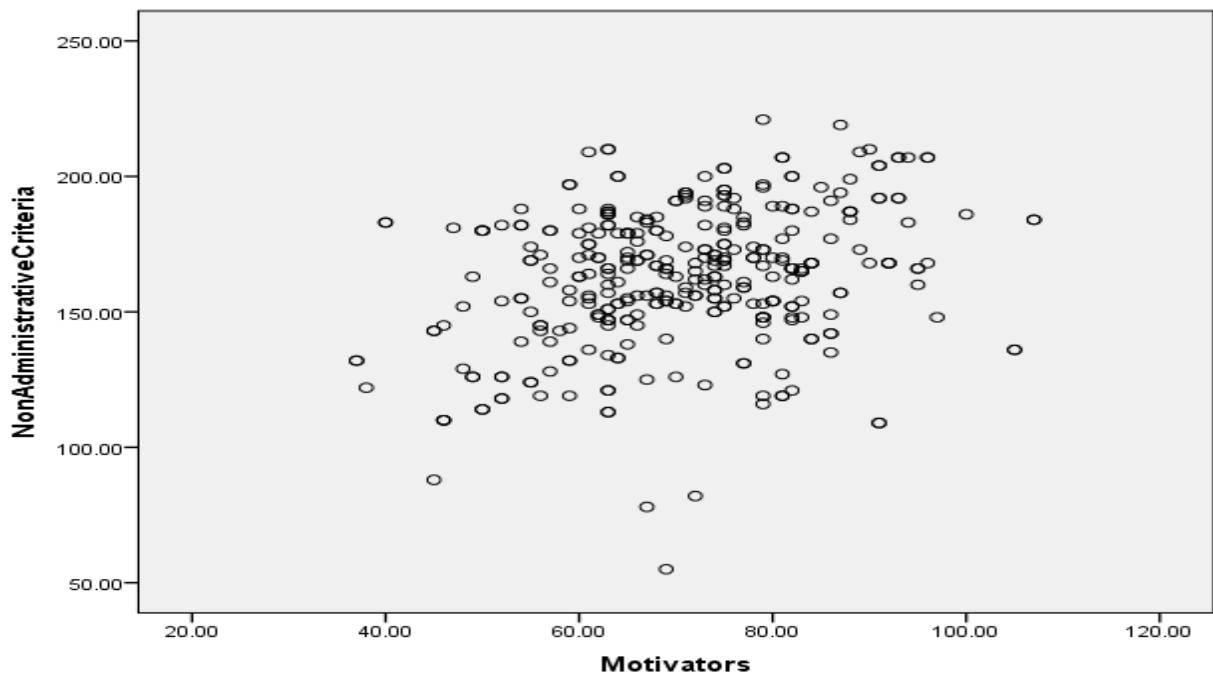
** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 5.7.4: Nonparametric Correlations

		Non-Administrative Criteria	Motivators
Spearman's rho	Non-Administrative Criteria	Correlation Coefficient	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
		N	341
Motivators		Correlation Coefficient	.274**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
		N	341

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Fig. 5.7 Graph/SCATTERPLOT(BIVAR) = Motivators WITH Socio-Cultural Environment Non-Administrative Criteria/MISSING=LISTWISE.



Hypothesis Three:

The ethno-religious crises in recent years and the advent of Boko Haram insurgency in the ecology of Nigeria's public administration have significantly affected output quality in the Plateau State Civil Service.

Table 5.8: Correlation between Insecurity and Employee Motivation

Variable Pair	Mean	Std. Deviation	N	R	Sig.
Insecurity	31.02	6.87	339	.219	.000
Motivators	70.80	13.15			

In the table above, the results show that there is a significant and positive relationship between insecurity and employee motivation, $r(337) = .219, p < .05$. The correlation was strong, indicating that the high incidence of ethno-religious crises and the Boko Haram insurgency have significantly affected output and productivity in the Plateau State Civil Service.

Table 5.8.1: Descriptive Statistics for Hypothesis Three

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Insecurity	339	3.00	50.00	31.0236	6.86639
Motivators	343	37.00	107.00	70.7959	13.14825
Valid N (listwise)	339				

Fig. 5.8.2 Correlations

		Insecurity	Motivators
Insecurity	Pearson Correlation	1	.219**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	339	339
Motivators	Pearson Correlation	.219**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	339	343

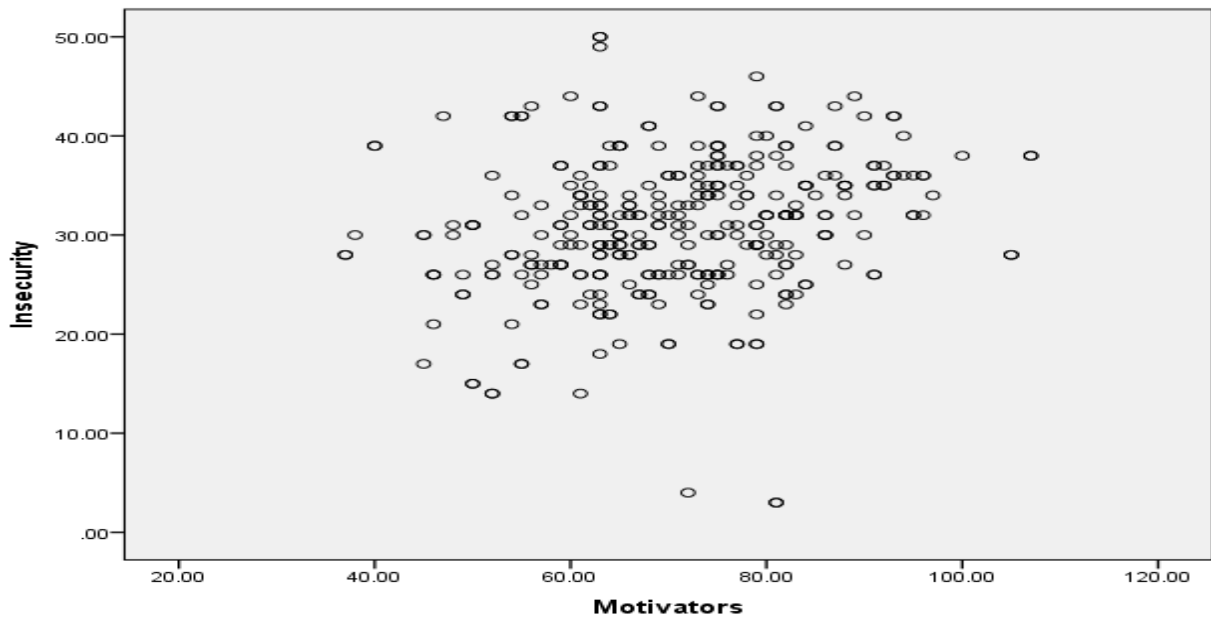
** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Fig. 5.8.3: Non-Parametric Correlations

		Administrative Criteria	Motivators
Spearman's rho	Administrative Criteria	Correlation Coefficient	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.371**
		N	.000
Motivators		Correlation Coefficient	.371**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	1.000
		N	.000
		N	343
			343

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Fig. 5.8 GRAPH /SCATTERPLOT (BIVAR) = Motivators WITH Insecurity/MISSING= LISTWISE



Hypothesis Four:

The administrative reforms will be more potent and strategic in engendering bureaucratic efficiency and effectiveness and influencing output quality in the Plateau State Civil Service if they take cognizance of the non-administrative criteria present in the workers socio-cultural environment.

Table 5.9: Correlation between Motivators Predicted by Administrative and Non-administrative Criteria

Variable Pair	Mean	Std. Deviation	N	R	Sig.
Administrative criteria	32.40	6.10			
Non-administrative criteria	163.37	25.42	343	.299	.000
Motivators	70.80	13.15			

Correlations between the administrative and non-administrative criteria show that there is a significant and positive relationship between both variables and the employee motivators, $r(343) = .299, p < .05$. In essence, both influence employee motivation in one way or the other. However, the non-administrative criteria were more strongly associated with employee motivation and work performance ($M = 163.37, SD = 25.42$) than the administrative criteria ($M = 32.40, SD = 6.10$).

Table 5.9.1: Descriptive Statistics for Hypothesis Four

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Administrative Criteria	32.4023	6.10064	343
Non-Administrative Criteria	163.3695	25.41742	341
Motivators	70.7959	13.14825	343

Table 5.9.2: Correlations

		Administrative Criteria	Non-Administrative Criteria	Motivators
Administrative Criteria	Pearson Correlation	1	.272**	.374**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	343	341	343
Non-Administrative Criteria	Pearson Correlation	.272**	1	.299**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	341	341	341
Motivators	Pearson Correlation	.374**	.299**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	343	341	343

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 5.9.3: Nonparametric Correlations

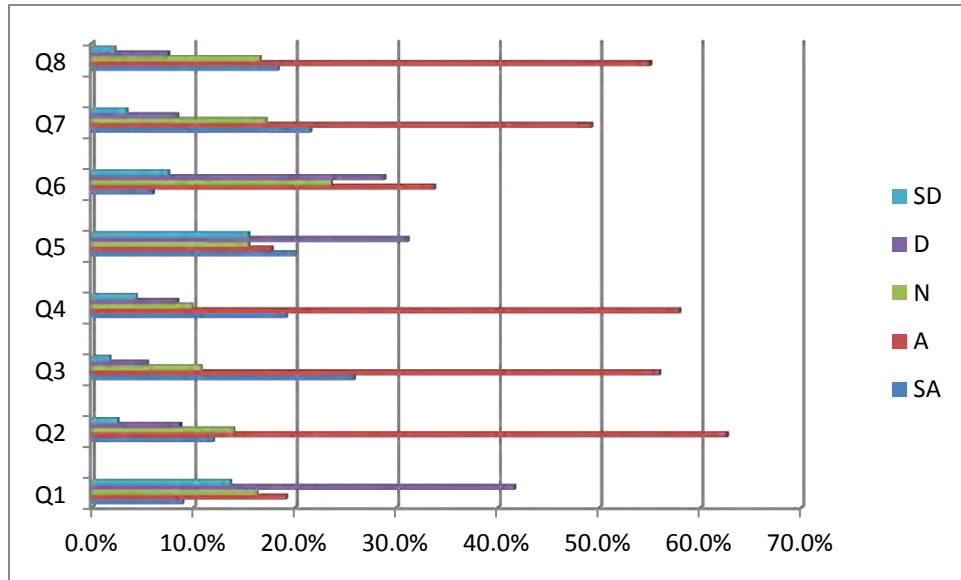
			Administrative Criteria	Non-Administrative Criteria	Motivators
Administrative Criteria		Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.260**	.371**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.000
		N	343	341	343
Spearman's rho	Non-Administrative Criteria	Correlation Coefficient	.260**	1.000	.274**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.000
		N	341	341	341
Motivators		Correlation Coefficient	.371**	.274**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.
		N	343	341	343

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Section E of the questionnaire was comprised of eight (8) statements structured such that they assess the possible effects of organizational socialization on the employees socio-cultural perceptions and orientations. There was also a single open-ended question eliciting other socio-cultural factors which in the respondents' opinions should be addressed but may not have been adequately portrayed in the questionnaire. All the responses from this section were analyzed using the simple percentage method with the responses ranging from Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree on a 5-point Likert scale while the responses to the open-ended question were subjected to thematic content analyses. Percentages obtained from the responses under the Strongly Agreed and Agreed and the Strongly Disagreed and Disagreed were collated and presented together as single results showing general agreement or disagreement respectively. Also, where the results contradicted those obtained from the interviews, they were highlighted and comparisons made.

Possible contradictions or variations to data can arise from the researcher's perceptions of the situations or from the fact that it may have been tainted by the lack of anonymity and privacy occasioned by the consciousness of the interviewees of the presence of the researcher and perhaps, other colleagues (Denscombe, 2007). Osuala (2005) buttressed this point by pointing out that the very presence of the interviewer, with all that he represents in the mind of the respondents, affects the responses he obtains.

Fig. 5.9 (SECTION E) INFLUENCE OF ORGANIZATIONAL SOCIALIZATION ON SOCIO-CULTURAL ORIENTATIONS



LEGEND

	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Q6	Q7	Q8
SA	9.0%	12.0%	25.9%	19.2%	20.1%	6.1%	21.6%	18.4%
A	19.2%	62.7%	56.0%	58.0%	17.8%	33.8%	49.3%	55.1%
N	16.3%	14.0%	10.8%	9.9%	15.5%	23.6%	17.2%	16.6%
D	41.7%	8.8%	5.5%	8.5%	31.2%	28.9%	8.5%	7.6%
SD	13.7%	2.6%	1.8%	4.4%	15.5%	7.6%	3.5%	2.3%
TOTAL	99.9%	100.1%	100.0%	100.0%	100.1%	100.0%	100.1%	100.0%

Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

5.1.2 Results, Analyses and Interpretation of the Interview Data

The table below is a frequency statistics and percentage rating of the socio-demographic characteristics of the interview participants.

Participants' Bio-data and Socio-demographic Information (Interviews)

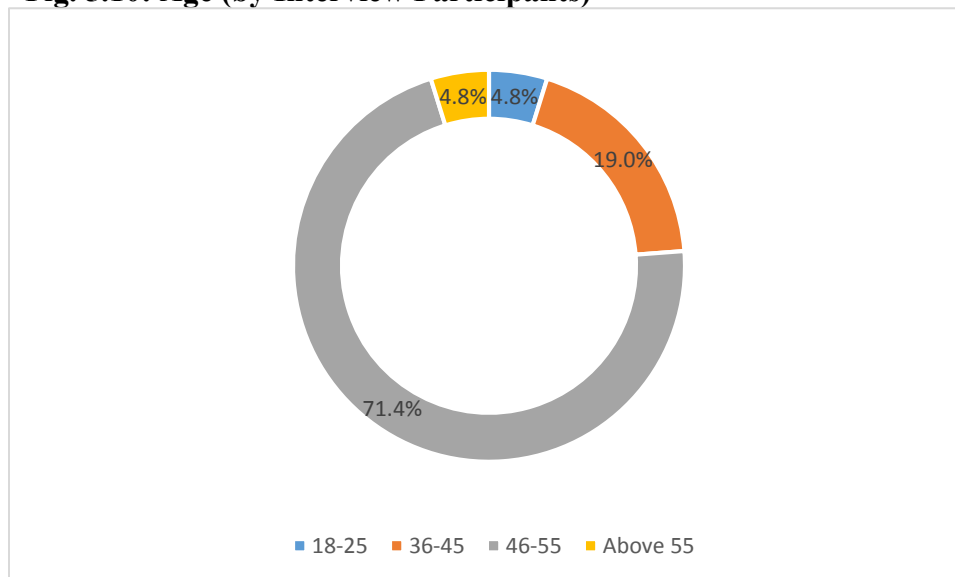
Table 5.10: Statistics

		Age	Gender	LGA	Ethnic Group	Ministry	Grade	Years in Service	Education
N	Valid	21	21	21	20	21	17	19	19
	Missing	0	0	0	1	0	4	2	2
Mean		52.14	1.33	8.48	6.00	5.67	13.94	25.84	3.47
Std. Deviation		7.838	.483	5.231	3.656	2.763	3.092	7.500	.612

Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

Frequencies per Subject:

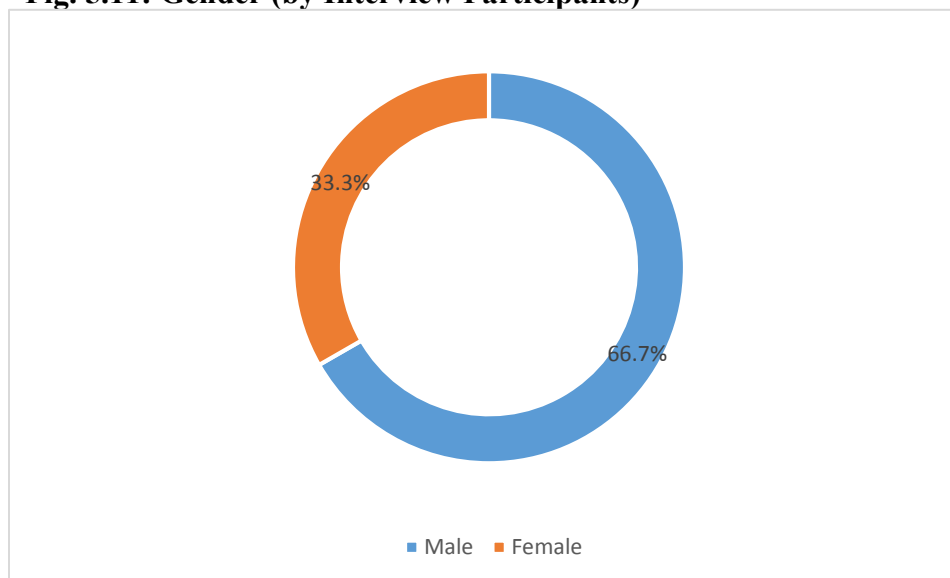
Fig. 5.10: Age (by Interview Participants)



Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

For the interviews, the majority of the participants representing 71.4% were aged between 46 and 55 years of age. The next in line were the 36 to 45 year bracket represented by 19.0%.

Fig. 5.11: Gender (by Interview Participants)



Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

As was the case with the questionnaires, the men were also more willing to participate in the interviews. They represented 66.7% of the participants while the women made up the remaining 33.3%.

Table 5.11: Local Government Area of origin (by Interview Participants)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Mangu	2	9.5	9.5	9.5
Bassa	1	4.8	4.8	14.3
Mikang	2	9.5	9.5	23.8
Barkin Ladi	1	4.8	4.8	28.6
Pankshin	1	4.8	4.8	33.3
Jos-North	2	9.5	9.5	42.9
Wase	1	4.8	4.8	47.6
Qua'an Pan	1	4.8	4.8	52.4
Riyom	1	4.8	4.8	57.1
Jos-East	1	4.8	4.8	61.9
Kanam	1	4.8	4.8	66.7
Jos-South	1	4.8	4.8	71.4

Langtang North	1	4.8	4.8	76.2
Langtang South	1	4.8	4.8	81.0
Bokkos	2	9.5	9.5	90.5
Kanke	1	4.8	4.8	95.2
Shendam	1	4.8	4.8	100.0
Total	21	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

The table above is a representation of the spread of the interview participants across the local government areas. The interview was intentionally conducted with at least one respondent from each local government area to enable a proper evaluation of some of the non-administrative criteria inherent in their socio-cultural environments.

Table 5.12: Ethnic Group(by Interview Participants)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Mwaghavul	2	9.5	10.0	10.0
Irigwe	1	4.8	5.0	15.0
Ywom	2	9.5	10.0	25.0
Berom	5	23.8	25.0	50.0
Mupun	1	4.8	5.0	55.0
Fulani	1	4.8	5.0	60.0
Jarawa	1	4.8	5.0	65.0
Bogghom	1	4.8	5.0	70.0
Taroh	2	9.5	10.0	80.0
Ron	1	4.8	5.0	85.0
Ngas	1	4.8	5.0	90.0
Kulere	1	4.8	5.0	95.0
Goemai	1	4.8	5.0	100.0
Total	20	95.2	100.0	
Missing System	1	4.8		
Total	21	100.0		

Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

The ethnic group most represented in the interviews was the Berom with five participants. This is because as explained previously, the Berom are the ethnic group with the most spread in Plateau state.

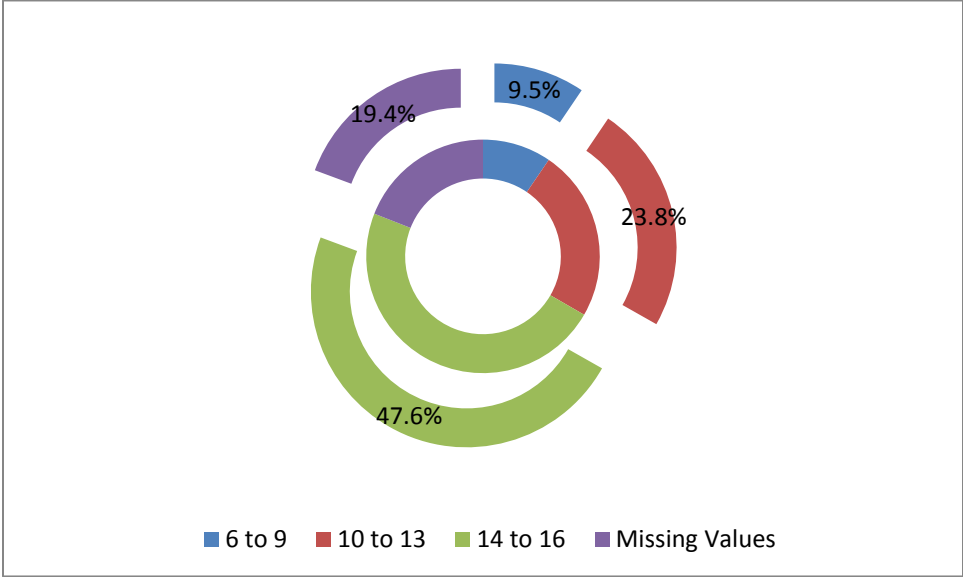
Table 5.13: Ministry (by Interview Participants)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Health	1	4.8	4.8	4.8
Finance	1	4.8	4.8	9.5
Education	5	23.8	23.8	33.3
Agriculture & Rural Development	2	9.5	9.5	42.9
Civil Service Commission	1	4.8	4.8	47.6
Water Resources	2	9.5	9.5	57.1
Valid Cabinet Office	1	4.8	4.8	61.9
Lands Survey & Town Planning	4	19.0	19.0	81.0
Local Government & Chieftaincy Affairs	3	14.3	14.3	95.2
Youths & Sports Development	1	4.8	4.8	100.0
Total	21	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

The focus of the interviews was not on achieving a spread across the ministries but more on a spread across the areas of origin of the participants. As such, they were not chosen from across all the eighteen ministries of the Plateau State civil service but rather randomly, based on their fit into the criteria of representing a local government area of origin.

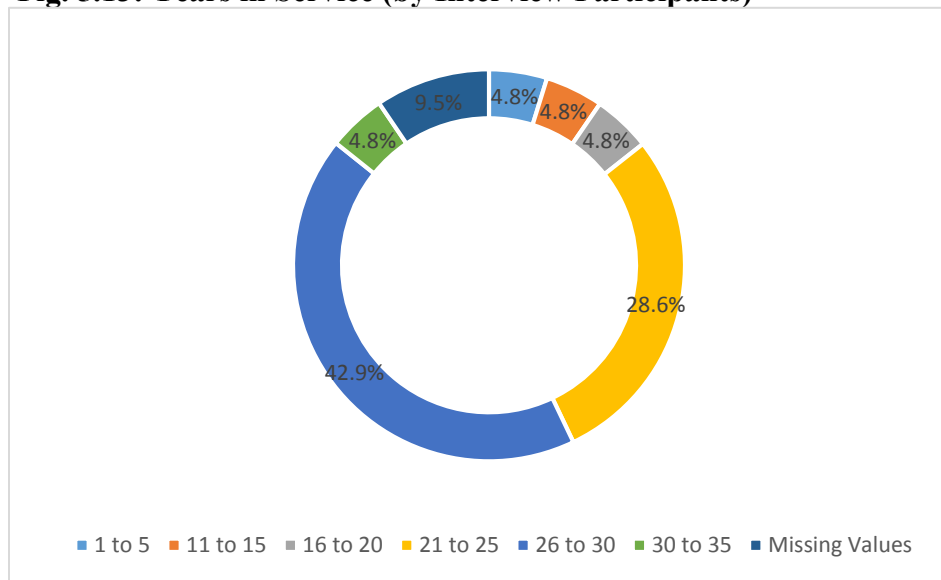
Fig. 5.12 Grade Level (by Interview Participants)



Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

For the interviews, the majority of the participants were on Grade Levels 14 – 16 with 47.6% representation while the least number of participants were those on Grade Levels 6 – 9 with 9.5% although there were missing values that accounted for 19.4%.

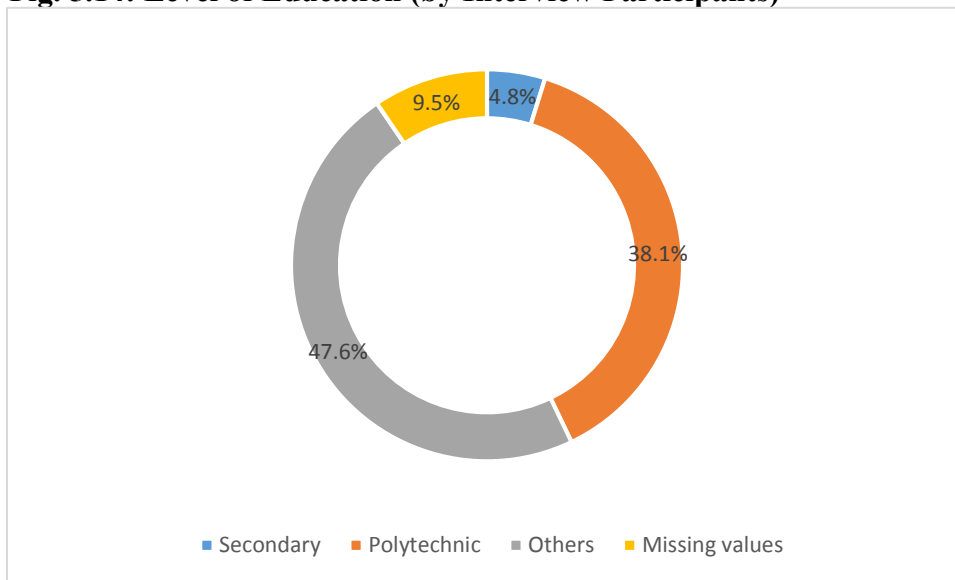
Fig. 5.13: Years in Service (by Interview Participants)



Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

Most of the interview participants (42.9%) were those who had spent between 26 and 30 years in the service. The next majority (28.6%) was the group that had spent between 21 and 25 years.

Fig. 5.14: Level of Education (by Interview Participants)



Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

The majority (47.6%) of the participants fell into the group, 'others'. This implied that they had tertiary education beyond the polytechnic level e.g. graduate and postgraduate qualifications. The participants who had tertiary education up to the polytechnic level were next with 38.1% representation.

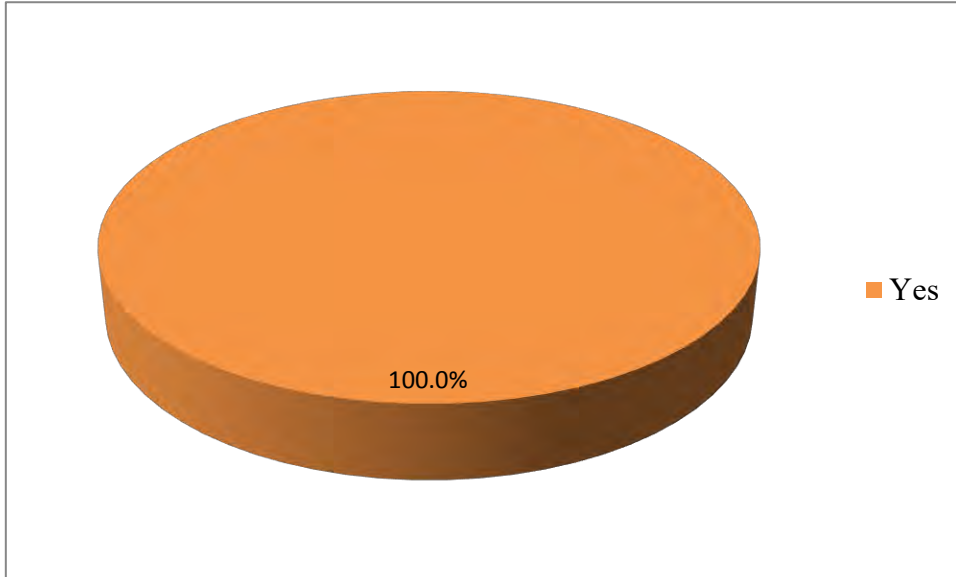
5.2 Charts showing the data derived from the interview responses

It is noteworthy that the focus of the interviews was more on the ethno-linguistic groupings than on the cadre of the staff and the spread of the ministries within the Plateau State civil service. However, the researcher came to understand that the higher the grade level, the better the quality of information received as a result of the years spent in service, the wealth of their experiences, etc. Also, after an initial number of six interviews were conducted, it was observed that the interview schedules did not adequately cover the research questions. The schedules were then reworked to properly reflect the research questions and objectives. Subsequently, fifteen other

interviews were conducted bringing the total number of interviews to twenty-one as the information gathered from the first six interviews were not discarded. The gaps recorded in the initial interviews are covered by the term 'Missing Values' in respect of the questions which were not covered at the time in the interview schedules.

5.2.1 Will only better pay and conditions of service enhance your output and productivity in the civil service?

Fig. 5.2.1: BETTER PAY AND CONDITIONS OF SERVICE ARE EFFECTIVE

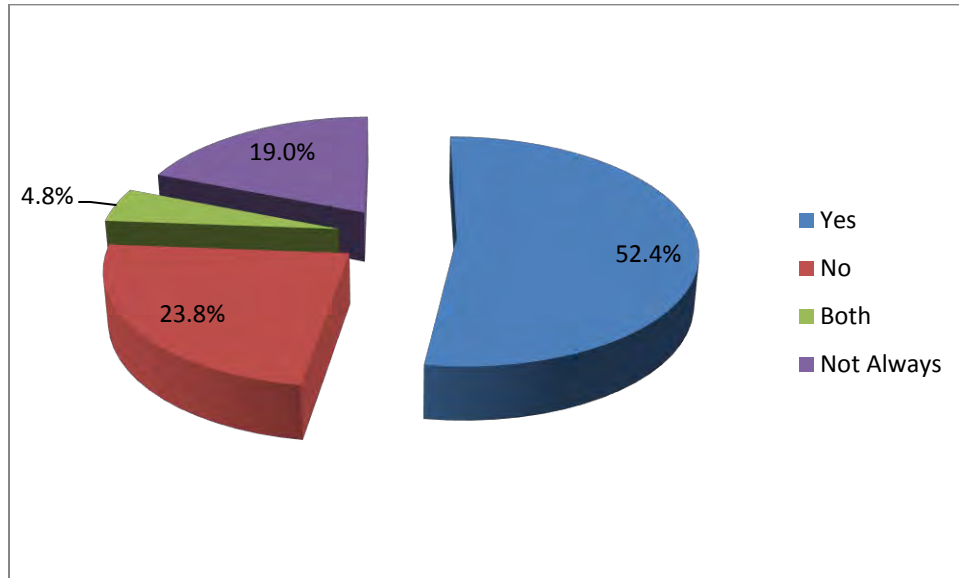


Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

From the interview responses, all (100%) of the staff interviewed agreed that better pay and conditions of service were potent enough to encourage the staff to put in their best at work. They complained of the poor remunerations that they received yet these salaries, etc. were never paid as due. Some of them adduced to the fact that they were being owed backlogs of salaries that had even been carried over from the outgone administration into the newly elected government.

5.2.2 Are promotions, awards, bonuses and so on always on merit in the civil service?

Fig. 5.2.2: MERITORIOUS PROMOTIONS, AWARDS, ETC.

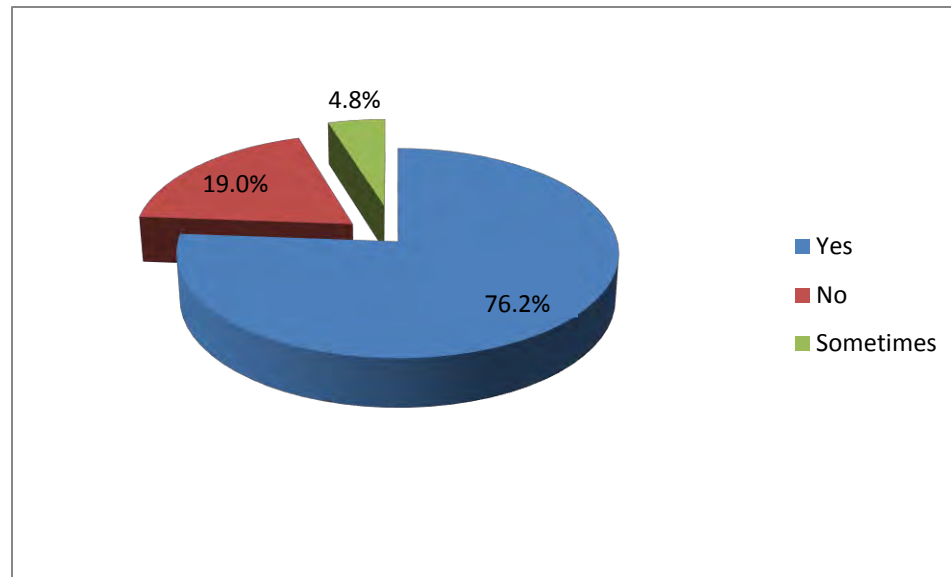


Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

The majority of the staff (52.4%) attested that the promotions, etc. within the service were largely based on merit and success at prescribed examinations, years spent on designated ranks, etc. those who disagreed formed the next highest percentage of 23.8%. They upheld that there were incidences of corruption in the form of nepotism, political interference and favoritism that dogged the process and so it was hardly free and fair nor based on merit. However, though no proof of these was given to the interviewer, some other staff who were present in a few of the offices at the time the interviews were conducted, concurred but asked not to be named.

5.2.3 Do you feel that when you put in your best, others who do much less reap the benefits because of corruption?

Fig. 5.2.3: CORRUPTION OVERRIDES MERIT

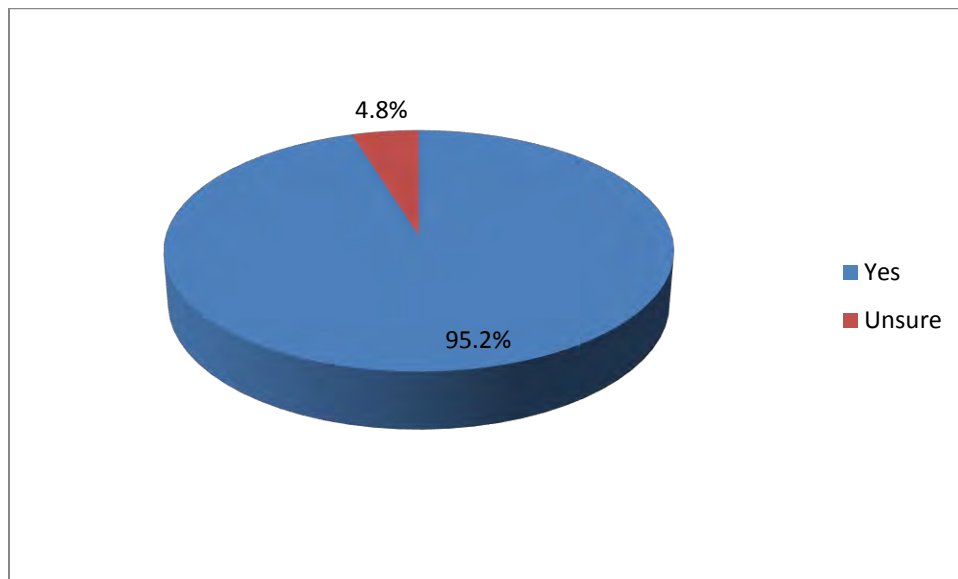


Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

A large majority of the respondents (76.2%) agreed that the merit principle has been overridden by a deeply ingrained culture of corruption that they claim pervades the system such that no staff can claim ignorance of its existence. Some of the staff expressed dismay with the way situations could turn around sometimes, for an errant individual immediately he or she is able to speak in the dialect of the superior. As a result, laxity, redundancy and the general malaise in the Plateau State civil service go unpunished.

5.2.4 Do some civil service staffs engage in other activities that divert their attention and affect their commitment to the goals of the civil service because they need to make ends meet?

Fig. 5.2.4: ENGAGEMENT IN OTHER BUSINESSES

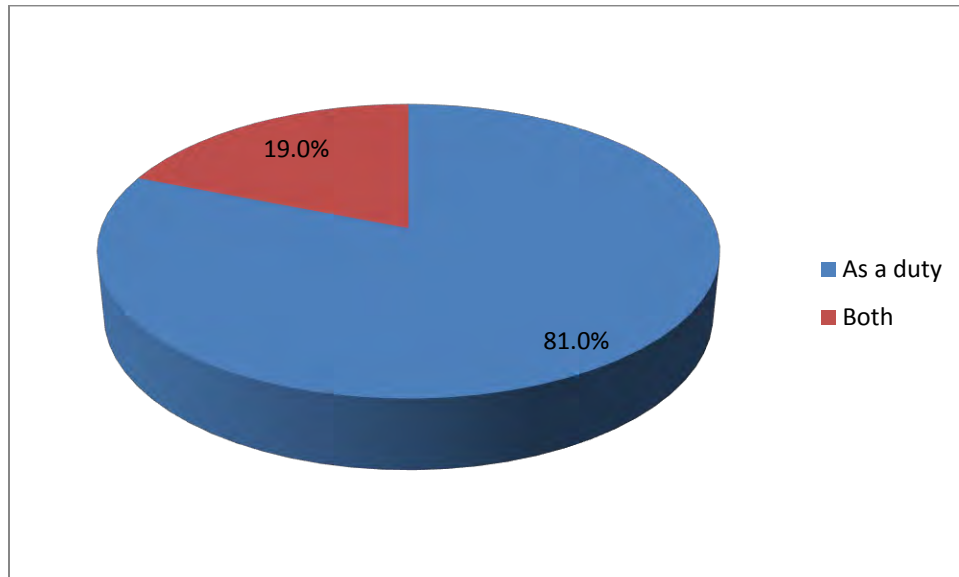


Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

95.2% of the respondents answered in the affirmative. This trend was attributed to the fact that the salaries were not forthcoming as due, yet there were other almost overwhelming personal and nuclear and extended familial responsibilities to be shouldered. This, they said was also made worse by the rising levels of poverty in the society and the degree of inflation that even made their salaries a drop in the ocean when compared with the ever-increasing costs of living.

5.2.5 Are you influenced to excel and do your best because your mates/colleagues are excelling or because you have a duty to?

Fig. 5.2.5: MOTIVATION TO WORK

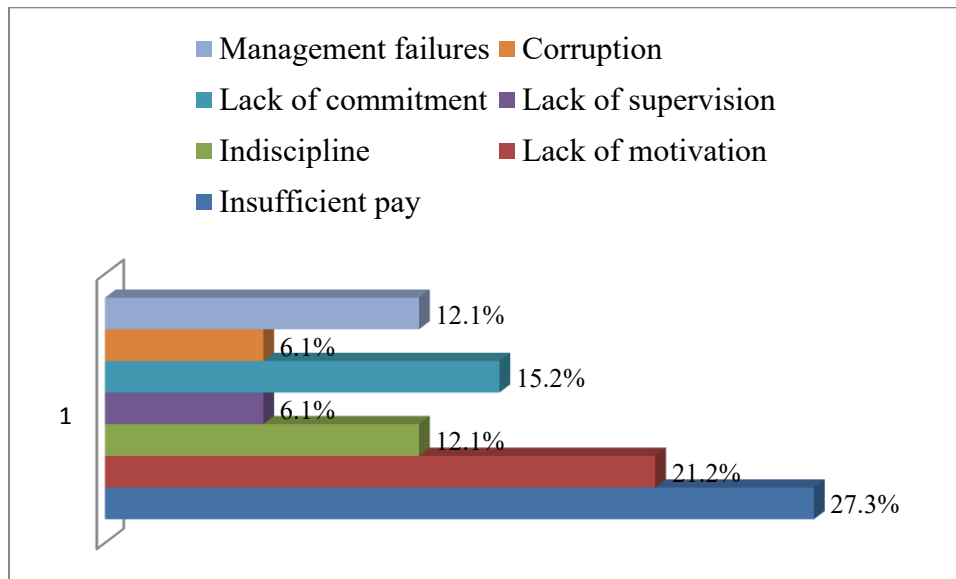


Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

From the findings, 81.0% of the staff held that they were committed to their jobs and the job demands despite the discouraging factors like the lack of salaries. Another 19.0% claimed that their commitment to work is driven both by duty and a desire to attain the greatest heights possible within the ranks of the civil service.

5.2.6 What factors would you say are responsible for the lackadaisical attitude of staff in the civil service?

Fig. 5.2.6: FACTORS RESPONSIBLE FOR POOR WORK ATTITUDE



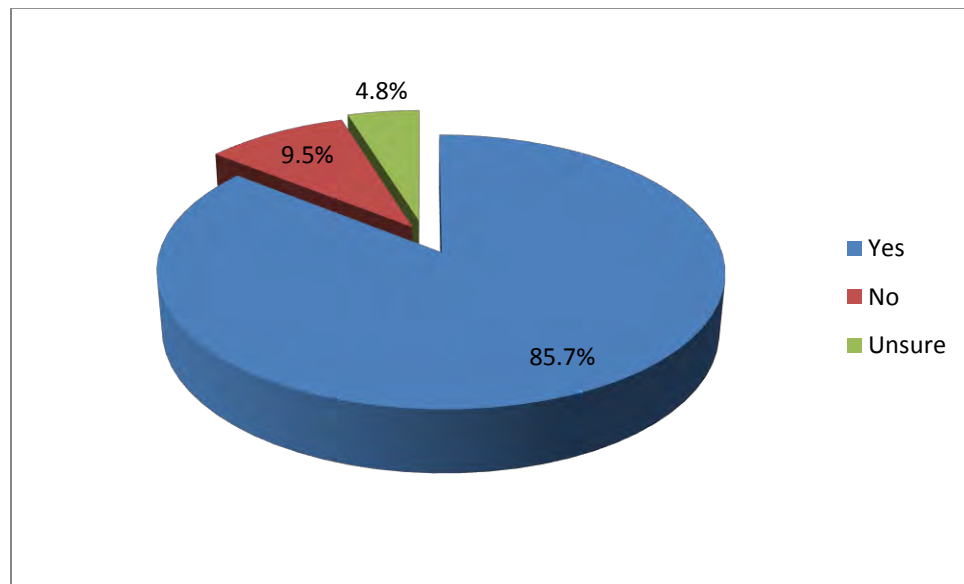
Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

This was a multiple-response question which allowed the respondents express themselves. 27.3% were still of the view that the insufficient and constantly delayed salaries was the number one culprit to be blamed for staff laxity. They gave instances of staff having to engage in other businesses to be able to fight poverty, feed, pay their children's fees and meet other financial obligations. They also linked this to the lack of motivation to work (21.2%) that was resulting in a general lack of commitment of staff (15.2%). Their zeal was also doused by other factors like corruption within the system (6.1%), the failures of the civil service management to play its roles of protecting the rights of the civil servants in terms of the welfare and benefits accruable to them from the government, adequately define staff schedules of duty, and discipline errant

superiors, etc. all constituting 12.1%.The broad responses were subsumed under these seven main themes to enable an analysis of the subject matter.

5.2.7 Will you agree that some staff are not motivated to put in their best because they see a general laxity among staff in the civil service?

Fig. 5.2.7: INFLUENCED BY POOR ATTITUDE

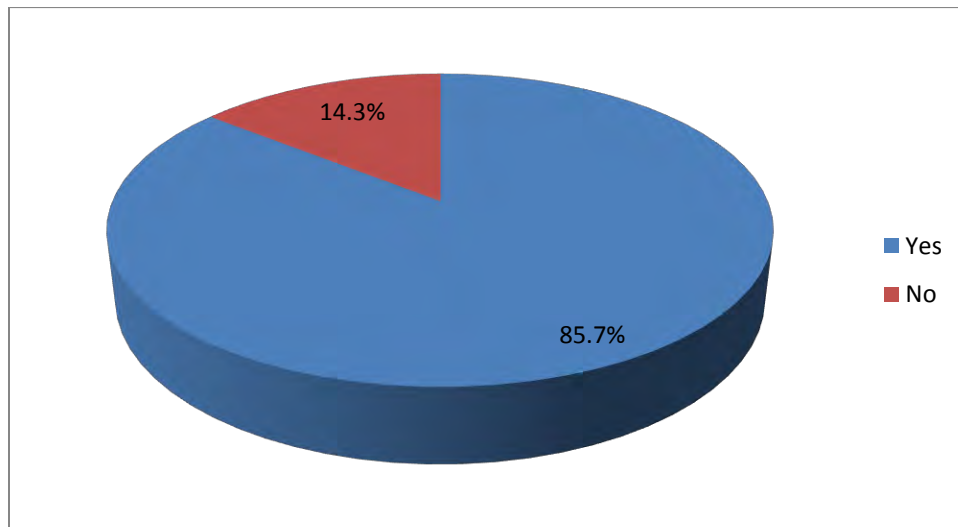


Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

The majority of the staff interviewed (85.7%) agreed that they were adversely affected by the general laxity of staff in the civil service. A few of them attributed it to some of the factors listed in question 6 while others said the indiscipline among colleagues was infectious and as such, ‘when in Rome, they would behave as the Romans’.

5.2.8 Will the provision of basic amenities like electricity, good health care, security, comfortable housing, portable water, etc. boost the civil servants motivation to work?

Fig. 5.2.8: PROVISION OF BASIC AMENITIES WILL MOTIVATE

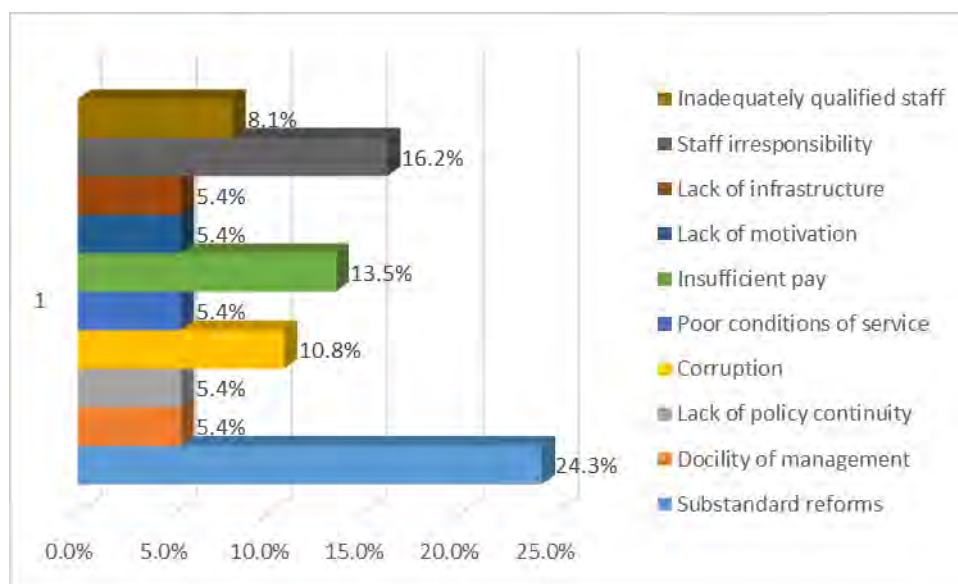


Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

85.7% of the staff also representing the majority of the respondents agreed that they would be influenced to put more efforts on the job if the provision of essential services and basic amenities for the civil servants by the government and the management of the civil service were made a priority. They opined that it will take the strain off their already lean resources which were not even dependable because the government was not committed to prompt salary payments. They also bemoaned the fact that even the housing facilities which were formally provided by the government to the civil servants had found their way into the hands of private individuals because of the inability of civil servants to afford them when the government put them up for sale.

5.2.9 Despite the numerous reforms to better the quality of output in the civil service, not much has been achieved. What can you say is responsible for the state of affairs?

Fig. 5.2.9: FACTORS UNDERMINING THE REFORMS



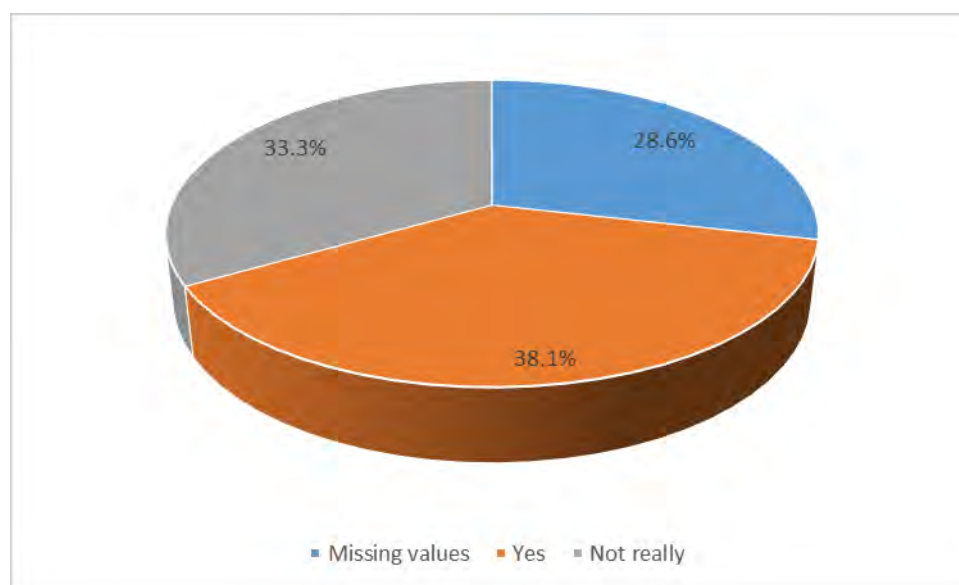
Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

Question 9 also required multiple responses as it was an open-ended question that allowed the respondents express their views. The majority (24.3%) complained that the reforms were almost always substandard, lacking in substance and not crafted in ways that captured the realities on ground. The reforms were described as removed from the actual content of and context within which Nigeria’s civil service operates as they are always copied from more developed nations. Furthermore there were really no facilities (both human and material) to adequately handle or ensure the proper implementation of the reforms. Most of the respondents viewed the poor quality reforms as a domino effect arising from the underlying issues which had been allowed to fester over the years and erode the fabric of the service. These issues included staff irresponsibility and lack of commitment to the goals of the civil service which 16.2% of the

respondents complained of. They linked these to other factors like insufficient pay (13.5%), corruption (10.8%), inadequately trained staff (8.1%), the docility of management, poor conditions of service and lack of policy continuity with 5.4% each. The factors were viewed as the culprits in the civil service being flooded with quacks that would definitely be unable to contribute meaningfully to reform processes and so churn out baseless reforms that are of no relevance to the service.

5.2.10 In the state civil service, will you say that the relationship between the superiors and their subordinates is cordial?

Fig. 5.2.10: CORDIALITY BETWEEN CADRES OF STAFF



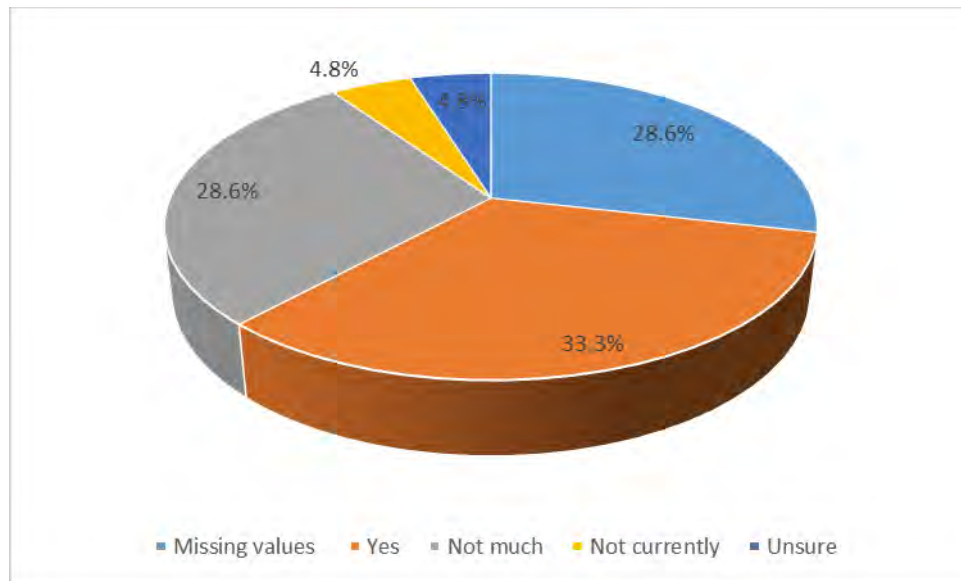
Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

38.1% of the respondents representing the majority attested to the existence of cordial relations among and between the cadres of the staff in the service although 33.3% were of the opinion that the relationship between staff cannot really be said to be cordial but rather determined by the

ideologies and individual temperaments of the senior staff because some of them may not allow open-door policies that make them accessible to their junior colleagues.

5.2.11 Are there cases of witch-hunting of civil servants in the civil service?

Fig. 5.2.11: WITCHHUNTS IN THE CIVIL SERVICE

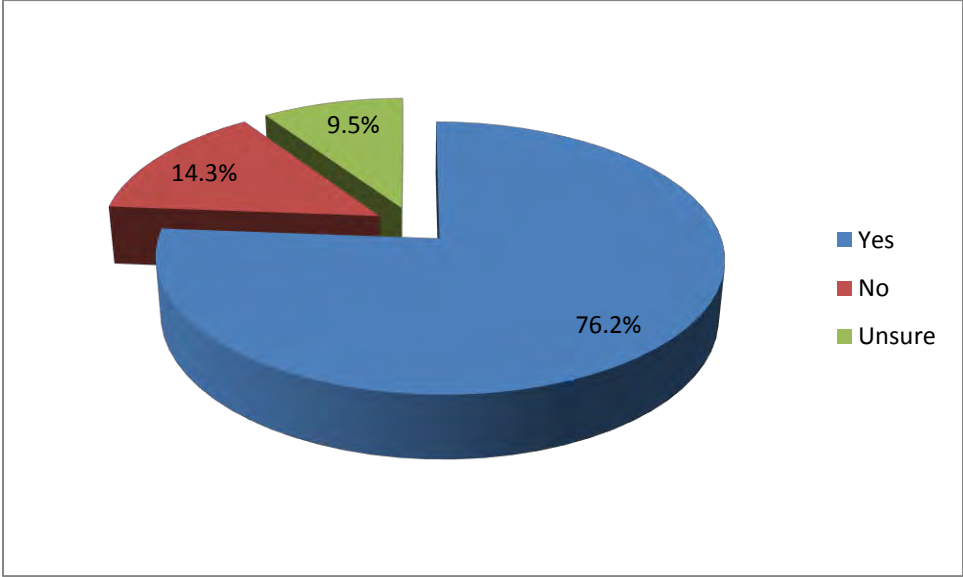


Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

A majority of the respondents (33.3%) confirmed that there are witch-hunts within the civil service while 28.6% said though not rampant, it is undeniable that it exists. In fact, some of the staff claimed that some of the witch-hunts arose from non-administrative issues like amorous advances being turned down by female staff, superiors and junior colleagues going after the same women either in the office or in the town, a junior colleague appearing to be favoured or ‘connected’ in certain circles or simply because the superiors wanted to pull their weight and make particular people miserable.

5.2.12 Do the civil servants have cliques (small groups of friends-kaman na mu ne) among themselves that they are somehow more loyal to than to the goals of the civil service?

Fig. 5.2.12: PRESENCE OF CLIQUES

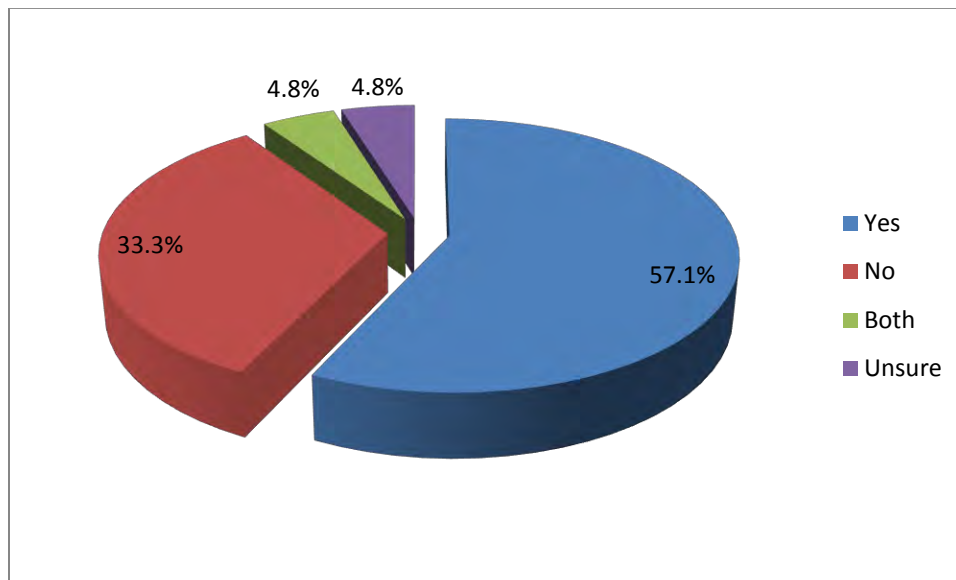


Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

Cliques were described as inevitable in human existence by some of the staff including the majority (76.2%) who agreed that there were indeed cliques within the Plateau State civil service. Some of the staff within the 14.3% who said there were no cliques within the service, claimed it was because the nature and structure of the civil service was too officious to allow for their existence.

5.2.13 Are colleagues more likely to react to the civil service rules, authorities, etc. as members of these cliques than as ordinary civil servants?

Fig. 5.2.13: MEMBERSHIP OF CLIQUES AFFECTS

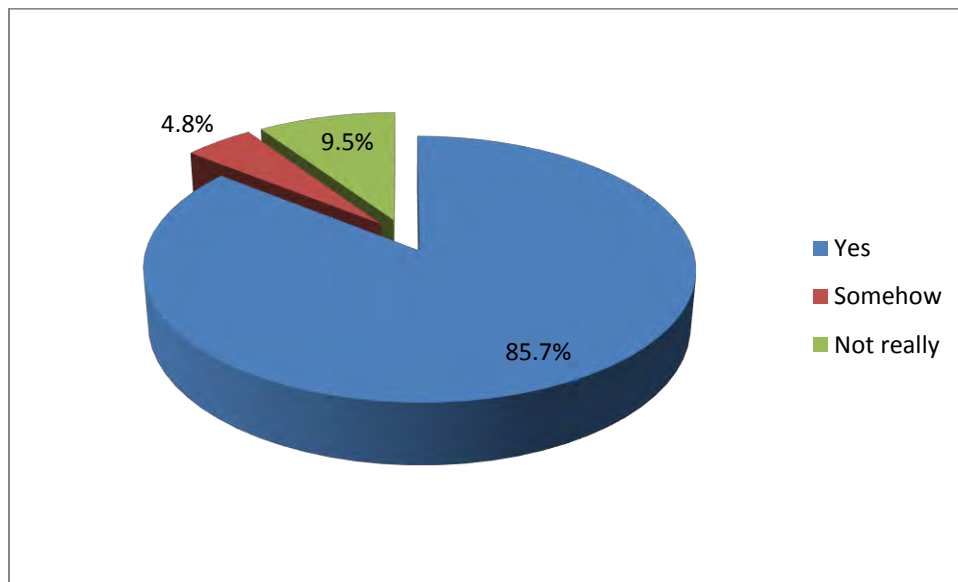


Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

57.1% agreed that the cliques were potent enough to affect the attitude of their members to some of the procedures within the civil service while 33.3% held that the presence or membership of the cliques did not have any link to their work in the civil service and was actually irrelevant and second fiddle when it came to their day to day activities within the service.

5.2.14 Are there class struggles and cliques among the top administrators in the civil service?

Fig. 5.2.14: CLASS STRUGGLES AND CLIQUES AMONG TOP BRASS

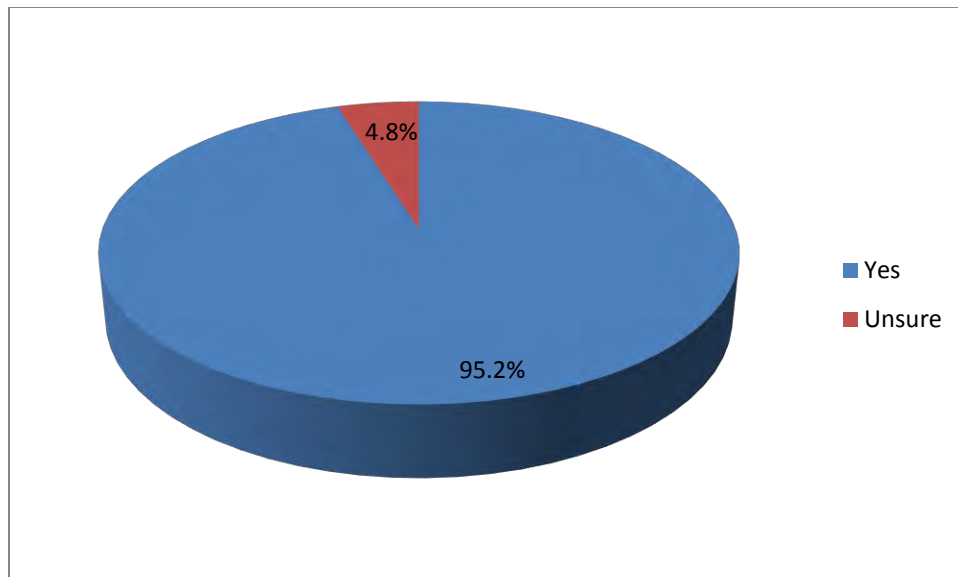


Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

Most of the respondents actually answered with a resounding ‘Yes’ when asked about the cliques and class struggles at the top thereby constituting the majority with 85.7%. They explained that the cliques and class struggles existed on a different pedestal from the one discussed in Questions 12 and 13 because the top civil servants were seen as representing certain political cleavages and socio-economic interests that appeared to have strangleholds on them in terms of demands on loyalty and by extension, affecting their activities in the civil service. These were also pointed out by some of the respondents as being part of the reasons for the downward spiral which the Plateau State civil service and the Nigeria civil service in general have taken. 9.5% of the respondents claimed that there were not really cliques in the upper echelon of the service.

5.2.15 Are some superiors more loyal to certain ideologies and sentiments that do not tally with or advance the goals of the civil service simply because they have personal, ethnic, tribal or other interests to protect?

Fig. 5.2.15: INFLUENCE OF PERSONAL, ETHNIC OR OTHER INTERESTS

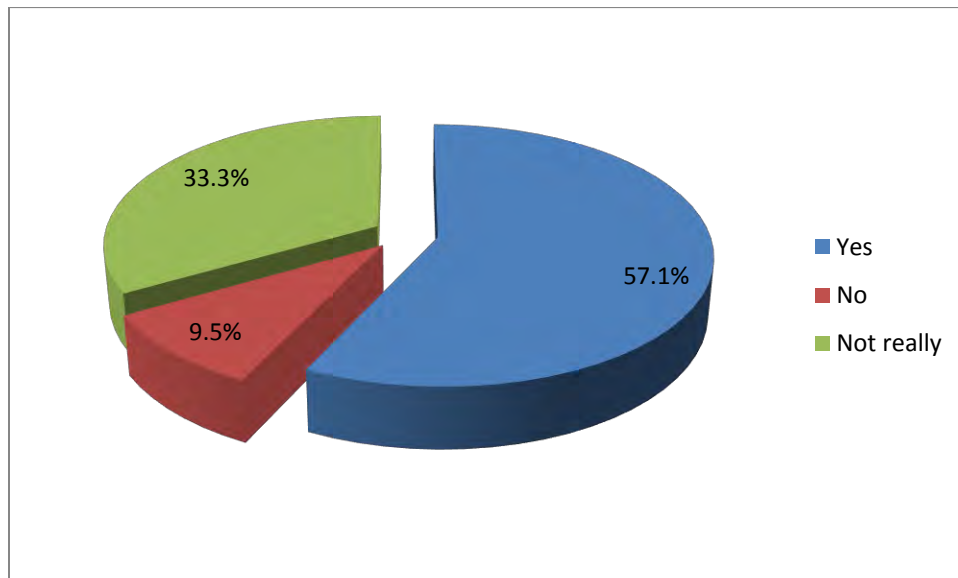


Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

On question 15, a glaring majority (95.2%) answered that some superiors are more loyal to and pursue ideologies that reflect a concern for the protection of cultural, familial and other parochial and partisan interests. This is sometimes to the detriment of qualitative administrative service delivery. A few of the respondents in buttressing their points, decried the fact that some civil servants are holders of traditional titles which ideally should not be so if the extent of administrative professionalism expected in the bureaucratic civil service is to be upheld.

5.2.16 Do you evaluate the top civil servants as very committed to the growth and development of the civil service?

Fig. 5.2.16: TOP CIVIL SERVANTS ARE COMMITTED

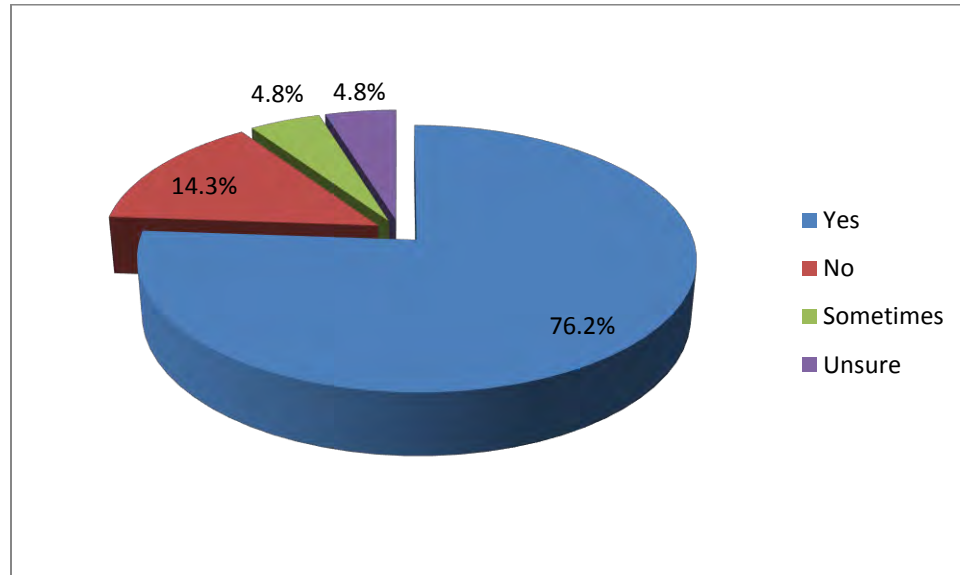


Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

Ironically, as many as 57.1% representing a majority of the respondents, assessed their superiors at the top echelon of the service as being very committed to the growth and development of the service. 33.3% were of the opinion that they are not really committed while 9.5% said they were not. They highlighted the heavy politicking going on within that class that ordinarily should be the main representatives of the administrative class and the engine room of the government and as such, should be neutral and apolitical.

5.2.17 Do you agree that some staff of the civil service are treated as sacred cows?

Fig. 5.2.17: SACRED COWS WITHIN THE SERVICE

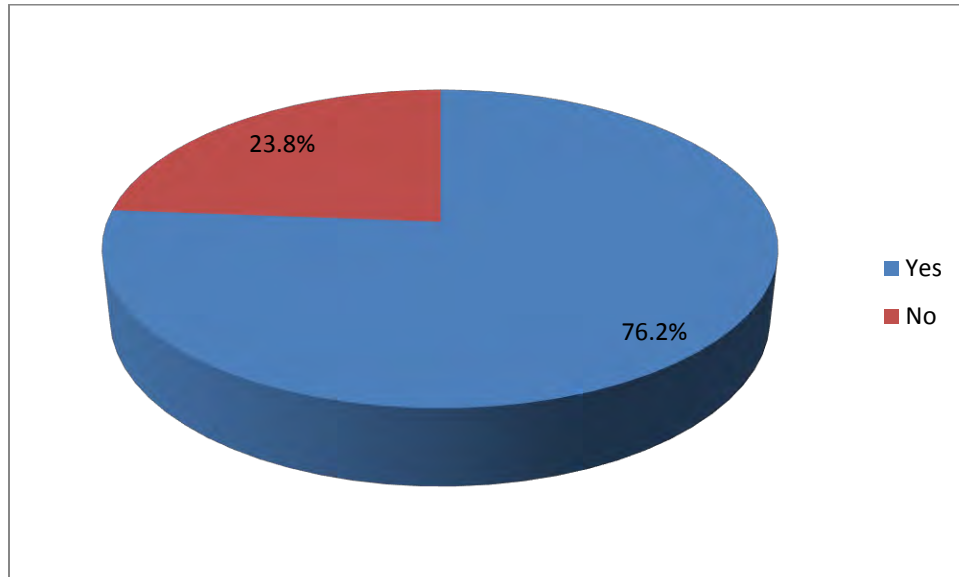


Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

Another resounding 'Yes' response came from a 76.2% majority of the respondents who agreed that some staff of the civil service are treated as sacred cows because they are believed to be backed by faceless but powerful godfathers. This they claimed sometimes results in indiscipline and the sidetrack of laid down procedures to favour the select few. However, 14.3% disagreed with the notion that there are sacred cows in the service.

5.2.18 Do these or other factors affect your input and output at work?

Fig. 5.2.18: THE FACTORS DISCUSSED SO FAR AFFECT PRODUCTIVITY



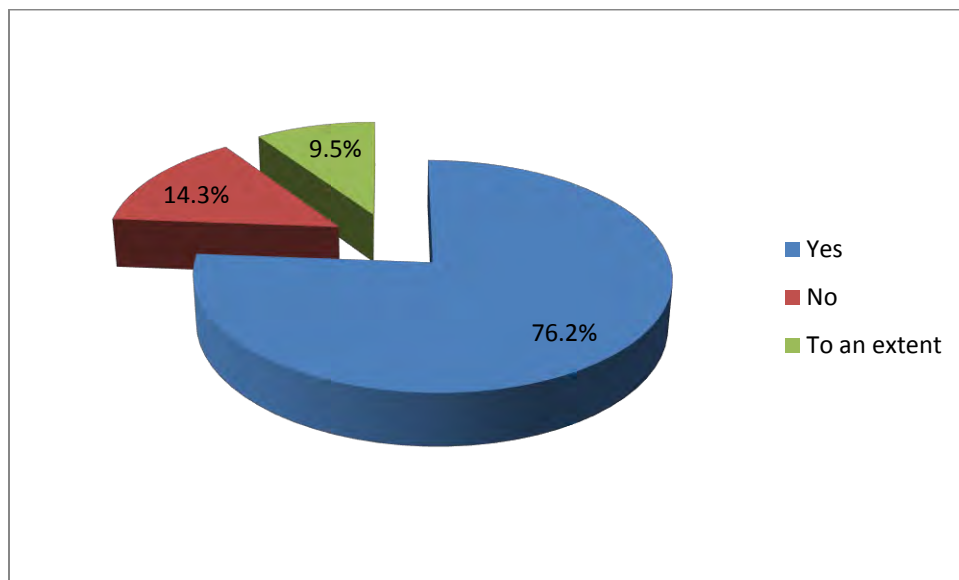
Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

On the notion that the factors discussed so far in Questions 1 to 17 negatively affected their output at work and by extension, productivity in general, the majority, 76.2%, answered in the affirmative. 23.8% on the other hand claimed to be unfazed by the factors and were mainly just focused on their work and responsibilities in spite of the surrounding pressures. However, some other respondents (28.6%) noted that there were still other factors not highlighted in the interview schedule nor captured, which were potent enough to affect employee motivation for example, sexual harassment. This is more prevalent among the men who prey on female colleagues especially those in the lower cadre who may be unable to stave off their advances. There are also issues of sexism that sometimes deny the women folk in particular, certain opportunities or positions which appear to be the sole preserves of the men. Although with the

highly-touted ‘affirmative action’ which is a move to recognize and allow women hold at least 35% of appointments and positions in public offices, there is an improvement.

5.2.19 Will you agree that sometimes the actions of administrators are affected by outside influence like loyalty to culture, family, friends, or community members so that they do not follow the civil service rules to the letter?

Fig. 5.2.19: INFLUENCE OF CULTURE, FAMILY, ETC.

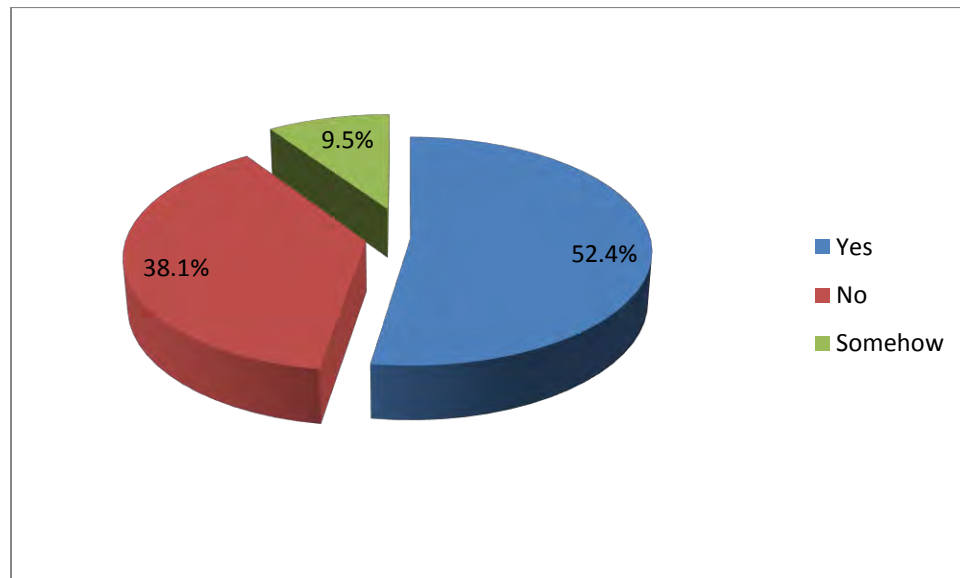


Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

The majority of the interviewees (76.2%) agreed that there were instances where civil servants were influenced by loyalty to culture, family and community members, etc. in the conduct of their administrative duties such that some provisions of the civil service rules were compromised. 14.3% of the respondents disagreed while 9.5% said this was only true to an extent.

5.2.20 Are there times when you need to balance the expectations of your culture, family, friends or community association members with what the civil service expects from you?

Fig. 5.2.20: EXTERNAL INFLUENCEDIRECTLY AFFECTS JOB DEMANDS



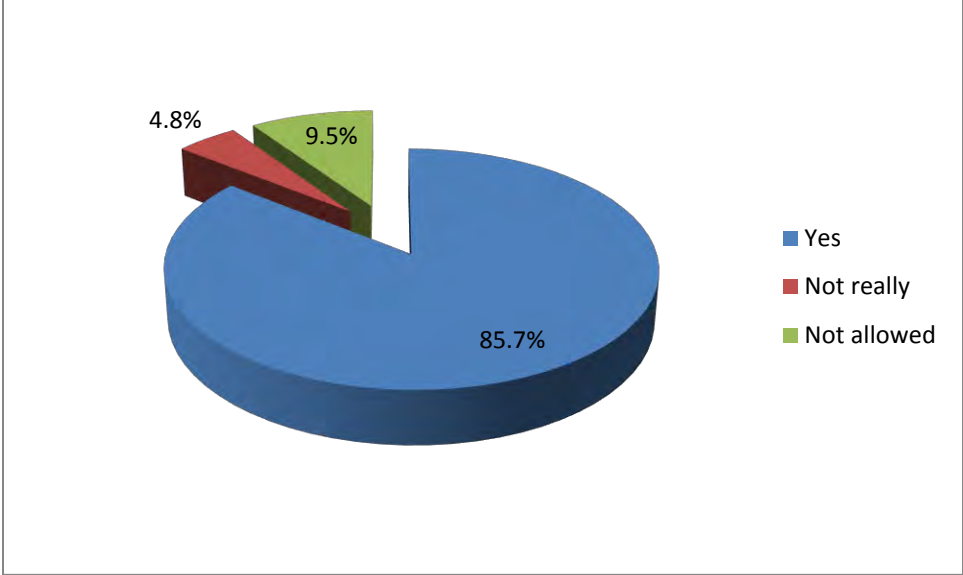
Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

On whether the interviewees had been directly confronted with situations in which their administrative decisions or rules were swayed by the influence of factors within their socio-cultural environments like family, friends, community, etc., 52.4% concurred that such situations had arisen. 38.1% stated that though they had been confronted with such situations, they did not bend the rules in favour of the external factors. 9.5% claimed they had had instances like that in which their administrative perceptions on situations were somewhat influenced.

5.2.21 Are gifts given in appreciation by individuals or corporate bodies to civil servants for assistance or to facilitate their administrative duties? Will you say that these gifts are bribes?

A.

Fig. 5.2.21A: GIFTS ARE GIVEN

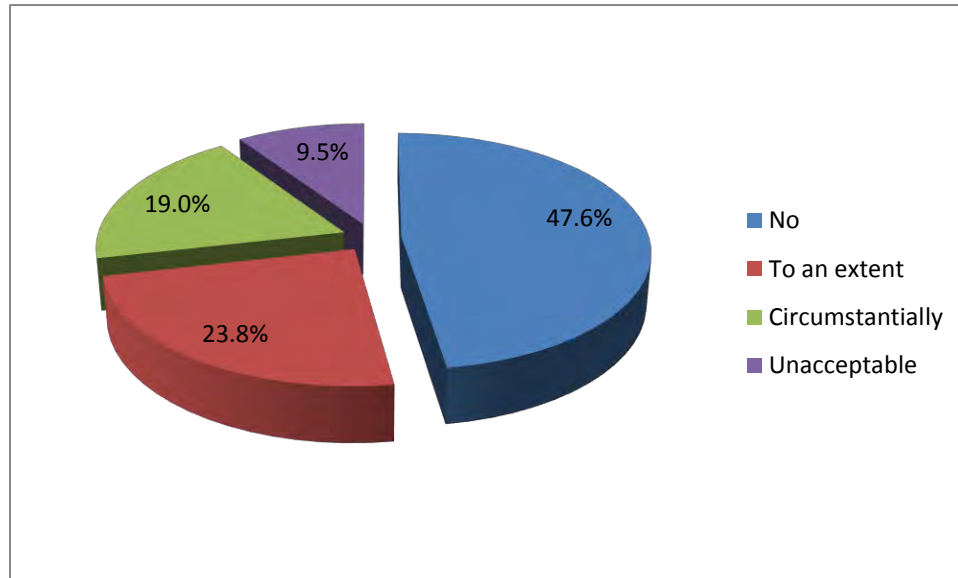


Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

In total, 85.7% of the respondents agreed that gifts are given to civil servants sometimes in the course of the conduct of their administrative duties. 9.5% stated that the receipt of any form of gifts in the course of carrying out administrative duties is not allowed within the civil service rules as contained in Section 304 subsection (a) and (b) except where the gifts are given by traditional rulers.

B.

Fig. 5.2.21B: THE GIFTS ARE BRIBES



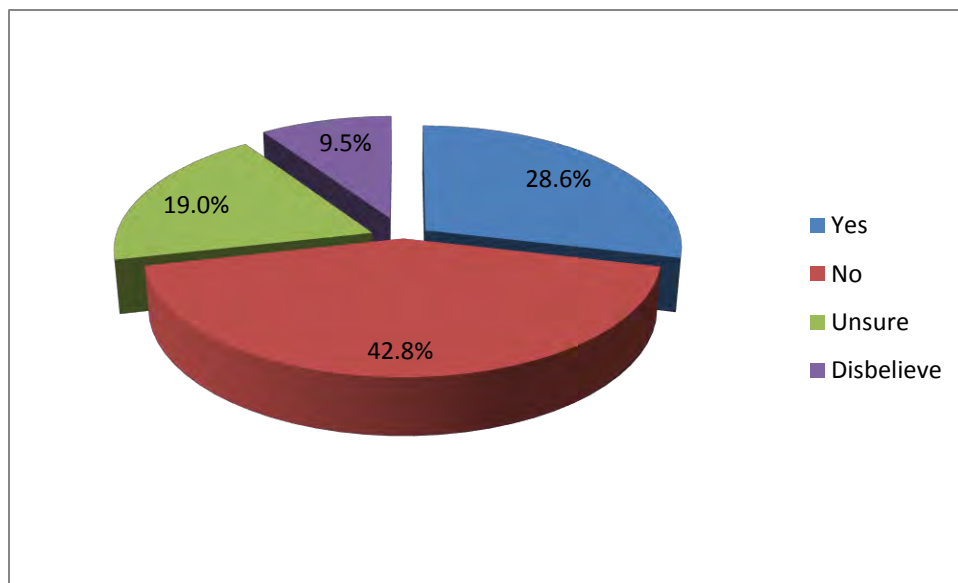
Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

A percentage of 47.6% (the majority), declined the notion that the gifts that were given to the civil servants are bribes because they claimed that they were unsolicited for and neither were the givers subjected to any form of duress. Some of them held that it was a reflection of our African culture for someone to be appreciative of efforts made to assist in any way and it was equally un-African to reject the gifts. Some respondents also stated that the feeling of being appreciated was also motivational. 23.8% claimed that gifts of any kind could be categorized as bribes to an extent because of the biblical position that ‘a gift destroys the heart’ and so anything with a capacity to sway the position of an individual towards a form of compromise could more or less be termed a bribe. 19.0% on the other hand opined that the description of such gifts as bribes will depend on the circumstances within which the gifts are exchanged. In essence, if they are

demanded or solicited for then they can be called bribes but if not then they could not be qualified as bribes.

5.2.22 Do you have instances where colleagues claim that other colleagues within the civil service are engaging in juju, voodoo or witchcraft for one reason or the other?

Fig. 5.2.22: FETISH PRACTICES AMONG COLLEAGUES



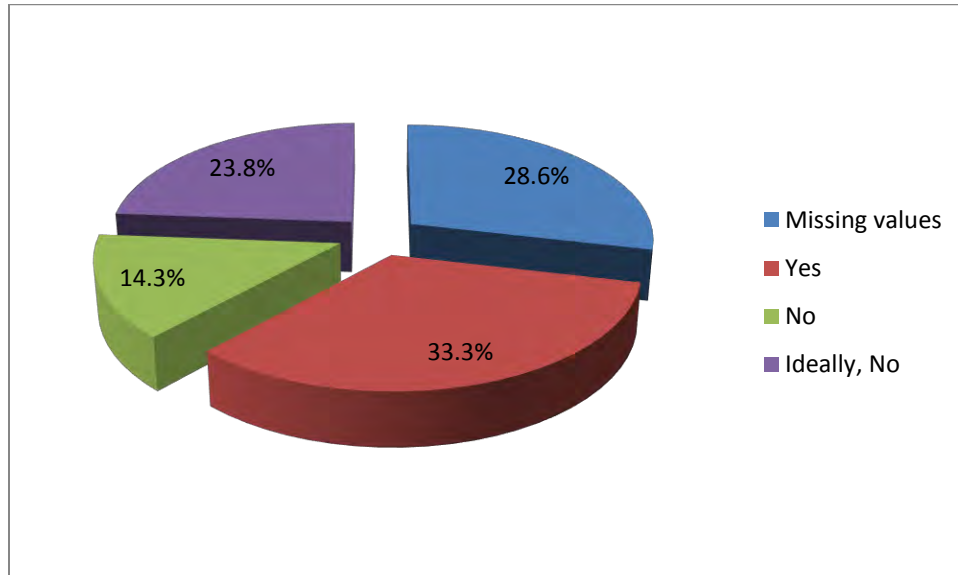
Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

The majority of the respondents (42.8%) disagreed with the notion that there are fetish practices within the civil service claiming that it is virtually impossible to prove although 28.6% upheld the presence and potency of such practices. 19.0% claimed to be unsure about the presence of such factors though some of them admitted to having heard rumours of such practices while 9.5% said they did not believe in the existence of anything like that.

5.2.23 Is it okay for a woman to be the breadwinner in the home? Does your culture allow it?

A.

Fig. 5.2.23A: WOMEN AS BREADWINNERS

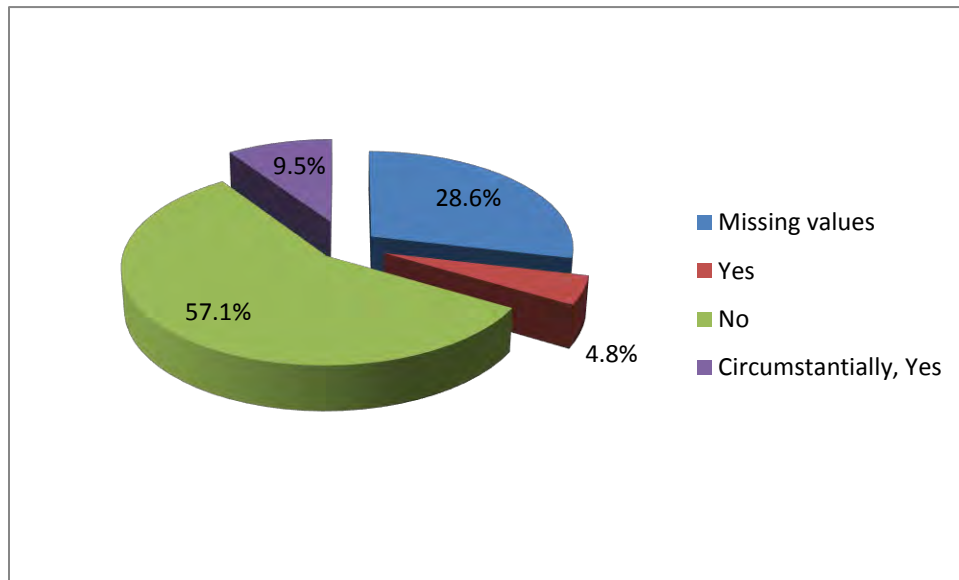


Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

A total of 33.3% of the respondents constituting the majority did not see anything wrong with women being the breadwinners in the home. 23.8% said ideally, women should not be breadwinners in the home but if they are because of the vicissitudes of life, they should be able to rise to the occasion. Finally, 14.3% were in total disagreement with the woman being a breadwinner in the home and insisted that it is the responsibility of the men to fend for their homes and where for instance a woman is widowed the men in the family should be able to rally round her and ensure that her basic needs and those of her children, if any, are met.

B.

Fig. 5.2.23B: CULTURALLY ACCEPTABLE

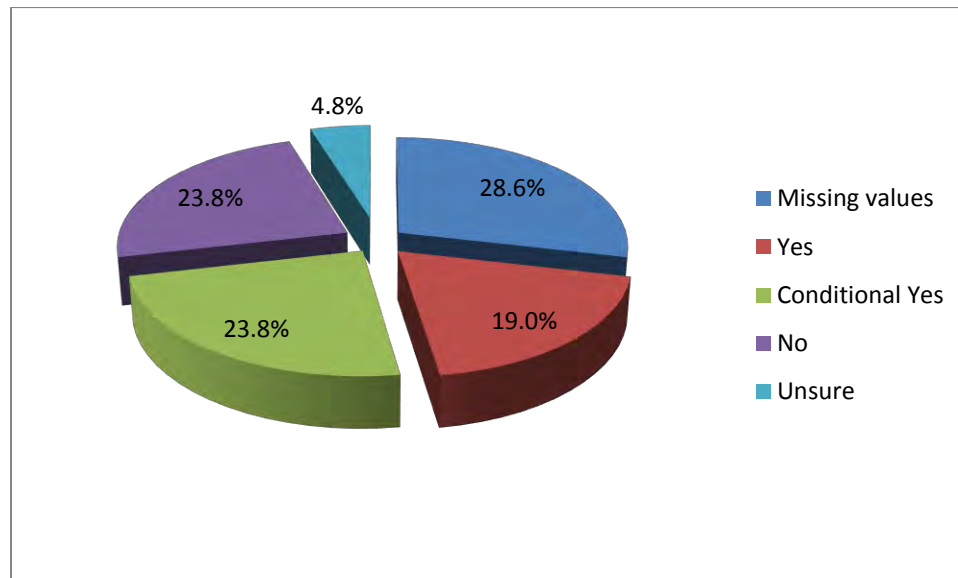


Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

On whether the woman as the breadwinner is allowed within the cultures of the respondents, 57.1% emphatically answered in the negative while 9.5% said it could be allowed within their cultures depending on the circumstance that led to the reversal of roles. 4.8% clearly stated that it is allowed by their culture. It is noteworthy that the Berom tribe from which these 4.8% hail is well known in the state as a tribe with men who indulge in wanton consumption of alcohol to the extent that most of their farming and familial responsibilities are left in the hands of the women.

5.2.24 Do certain cultural and traditional beliefs within particular areas affect the decisions taken in the civil service concerning those areas?

Fig. 5.2.24: CULTURAL INFLUENCE ON GOVT'S ADMINISTRATIVE DECISIONS

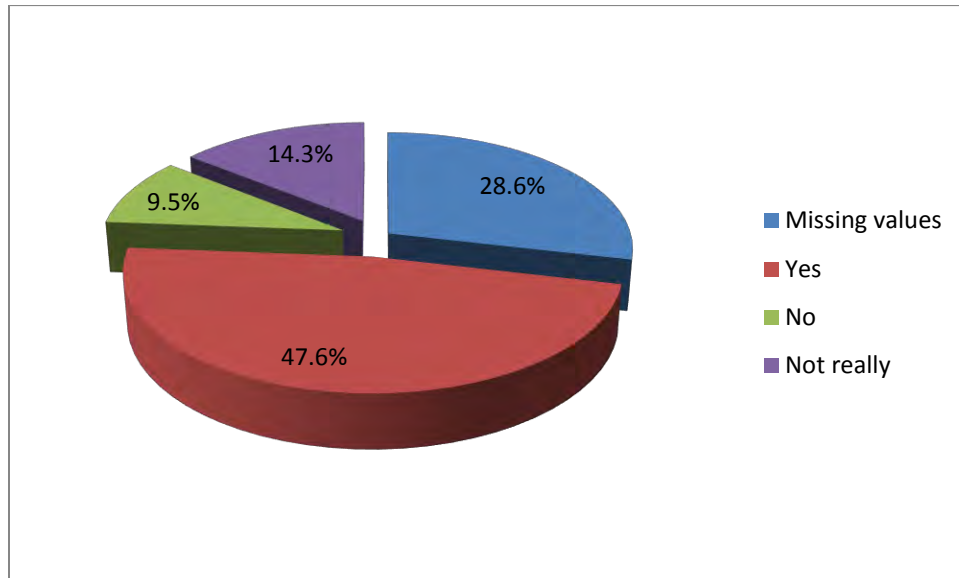


Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

On whether some of the cultures and traditions (e.g. deities, etc. matters) in the local government areas in the state sometimes affect the administrative decisions taken concerning them by the government, 19.0% answered in the affirmative. 23.8% gave a conditional 'Yes' explaining that it was not the rule per se but where the decision would impact positively on the citizenry with its merits outweighing the demerits, the administrative decisions were reevaluated to accommodate the cultural and traditional influences. Another 23.8% however said that the administrative decisions were unaffected by these factors.

5.2.25 Has working in the civil service changed your perceptions on some of your cultural values such that they do not and/or no longer affect your work?

Fig. 5.2.25: EFFECTS OF SOCIALIZATION ON CULTURAL ORIENTATIONS

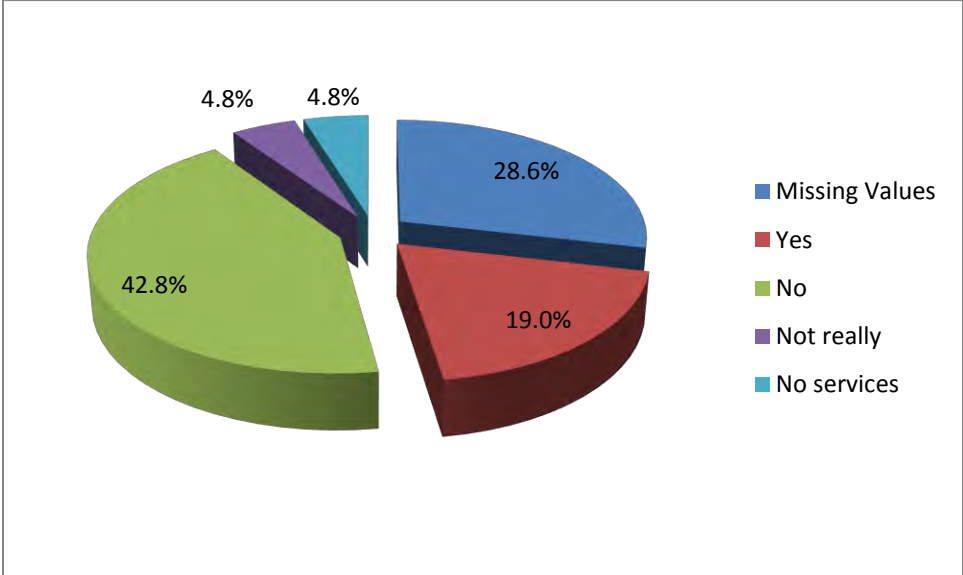


Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

Most of the respondents (47.6%) affirmed that their cultural values had to an appreciable extent been affected by organizational socialization resulting from more modern experiences garnered from working in the civil service thereby weakening the initial cultural orientations to which they had been acclimatized. 14.3% claimed that there was no significant impact on their cultural values while 9.5% held that there was no impact at all because their local government areas of origin were actually either the state capital or in close proximity to the capital and as such were already metropolitan in configuration.

5.2.26 Does the distribution of essential services by the government fairly reflect the socio-cultural diversity of the state?

Fig. 5.2.26: EQUITABLE DISTRIBUTION OF SERVICES

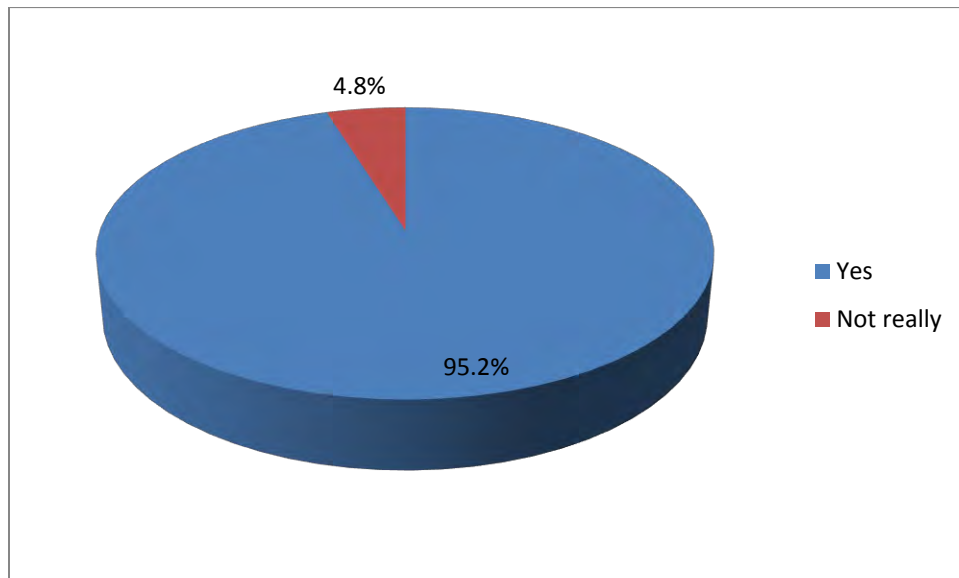


Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

The majority of the respondents 42.8% disagreed with the notion that essential services are distributed equitably and according to need across the local government areas. They went on to say that the distribution is normally influenced by the area of origin of the governor in power and the fact that he also tries to ensure the satisfaction of his closest cronies. On the other hand, 19.0% stated that the services are fairly distributed across the state.

5.2.27 Do insecurity and other ethno-religious conflicts affect your attitude to work in the civil service?

Fig. 5.2.27: CONFLICTS DISCOURAGE

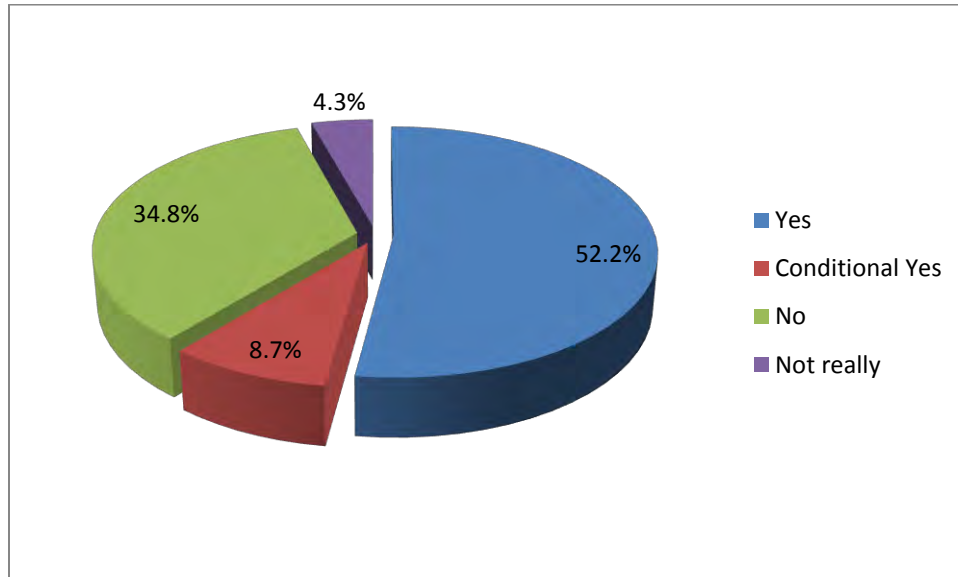


Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

The effect of conflicts as discouraging to the quality of input in the civil service was upheld by a resounding 95.2% majority. Most of the respondents reminisced about the times that they had to ascertain that the situation within the town is calm and quiet before venturing out of their homes and that this also has a way of directly or indirectly affecting their commitment to work.

5.2.28 Is your community at risk of constant attacks or conflicts?

Fig. 5.2.28: COMMUNITY AT RISK

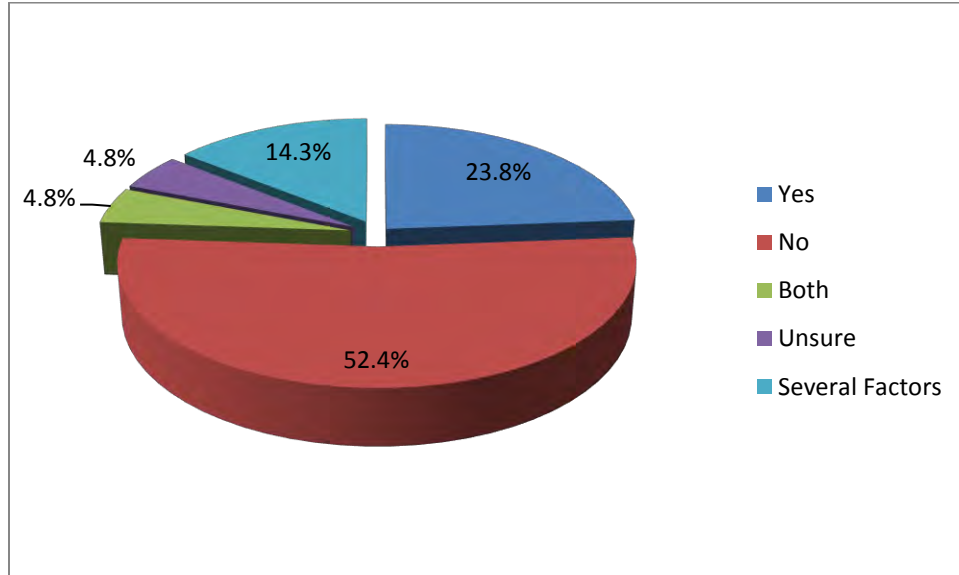


Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

A notable percentage, 52.2%, representing the majority stated that their communities are volatile and at risk of intermittent conflicts and attacks. This reflects the tendencies of the state to degenerate into politically- or ethno-religiously-engineered conflagrations on the spur of the moment. 8.7% gave a conditional 'Yes' answer to the question explaining that their communities of origin are safe but the communities where they reside within the town and commute to work from are very volatile and unsafe. 34.8% on the contrary stated that their communities are not at any risk of attacks and conflicts. 4.3% said there were not really threats of conflict in their communities because relative calm has returned to most parts of the state.

5.2.29 Do you think that these conflicts are mainly unprovoked?

Fig. 5.2.29: CONFLICTS ARE UNPROVOKED



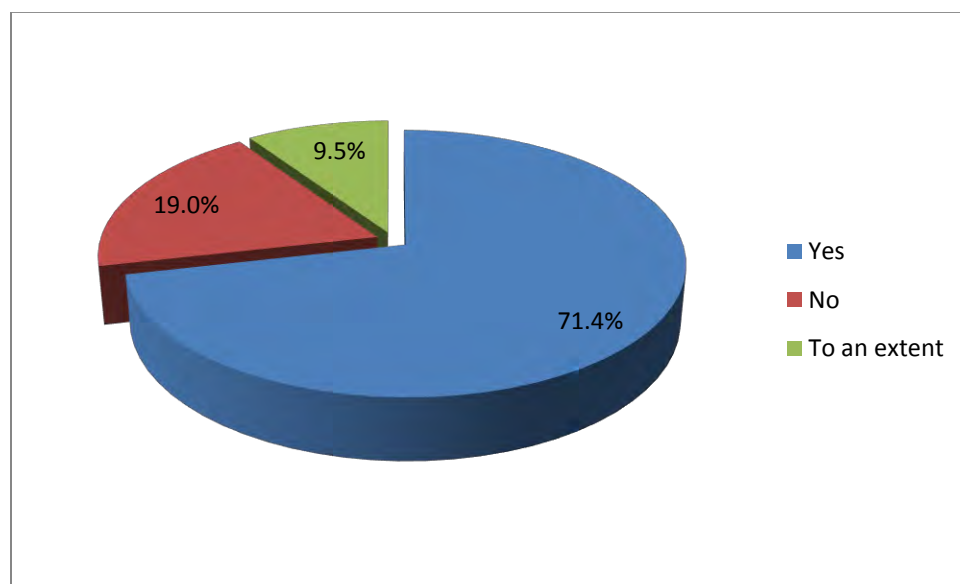
Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

In an assessment of the reasons behind the conflicts that have bedeviled the state, the majority (52.4%) viewed them as being provoked by the affronts and attacks by surrounding communities, Fulani herdsmen or Boko Haram insurgents. They also explained that these incidents and the reprisal attacks by aggrieved communities led to the status of Plateau state as a volatile region because of the seemingly incessant conflicts across and among the communities. 23.8% of the respondents held that the conflicts were unprovoked especially where they involved the Fulani herdsmen and cattle rustlers who invade communities and trespass into the farmlands of the natives. Several factors were listed by 14.3% of the respondents that include the Hausas trying to claim portions of the state for themselves, the zeal to propagate Islam in the

predominantly Christian state, political and other ethno-religious sentiments, Boko Haram insurgency, reprisal attacks, etc. as contributing to the causes of the conflicts in the state.

5.2.30 Will you say that the crises are between the Fulani herdsmen/cattle rearers and the natives?

Fig. 5.2.30: CONFLICTS ARE BETWEEN THE FULANI AND THE NATIVES



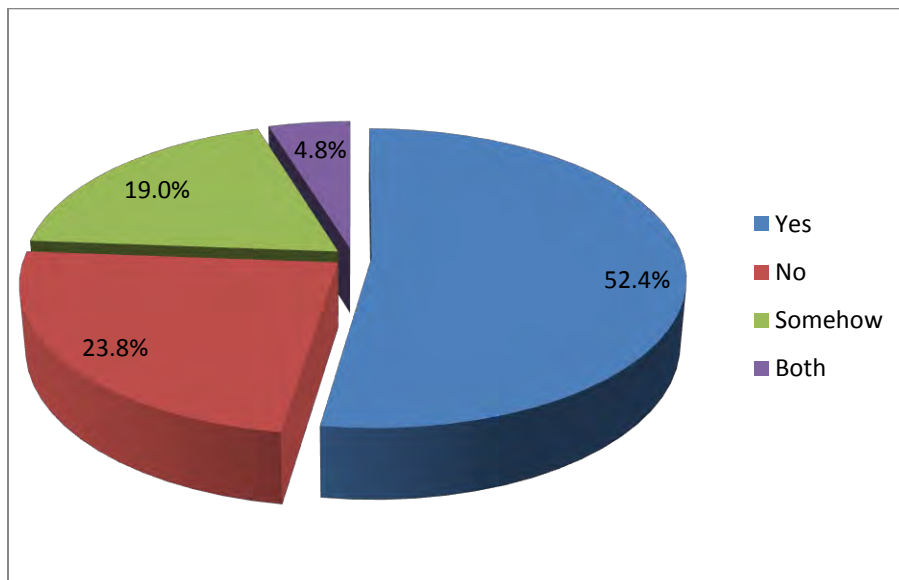
Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

For Question 30, 71.4% constituting the majority, believed that currently, the conflicts in the state are between the Fulani and the natives. A few of the respondents also mooted that some of these Fulani are engineered and recruited by the Hausa groups to carry out their politically-motivated biddings. 19.0% rejected the notion of the Fulani being involved in the crises and stated that numerous factors came into play in the circumstance while 9.5% were of the view that

there were no provocations as such but only invasions, trespasses and attacks by the Fulani and Boko Haram groups on hapless and erstwhile peaceful communities.

5.2.31 Will you say that the conflicts are between the indigenes and settlers?

Fig. 5.2.31: CONFLICTS ARE BETWEEN THE INDIGENES AND SETTLERS



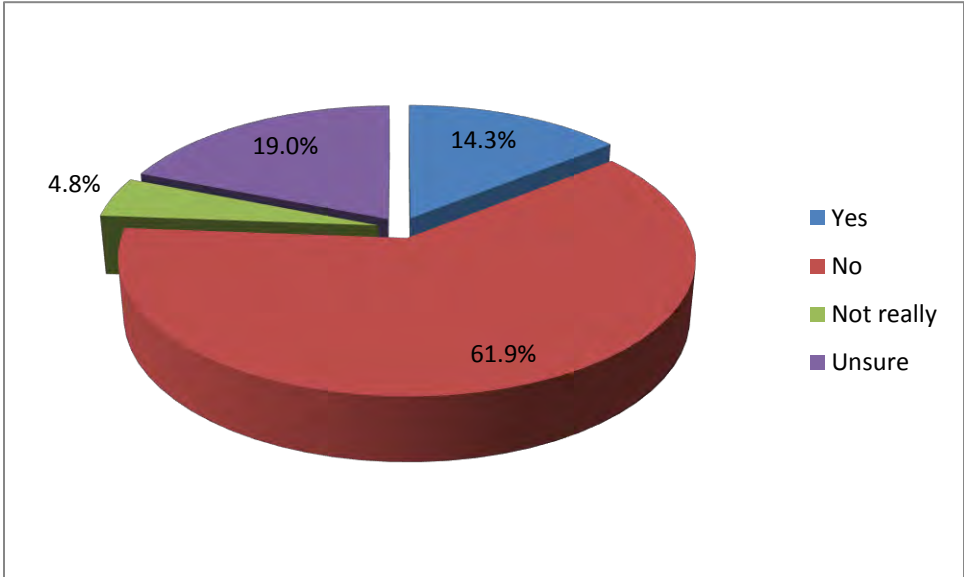
Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

In answer to Question 31, 52.4% held that the conflicts are largely between the indigenes and the settlers. They explained that the settlers were those who for mainly economic reasons had come to live in Plateau state over decades and centuries gone by and whose ancestry could no longer be traced in some cases thereby making them easily claim to be or pass for natives e.g. the Fulani. The conflicts then arose as a result of struggles for the scarce economic resources like land. Overtime, the conflicts developed political and religious colourations because the Fulani are Muslims while Plateau State is predominantly Christian. These differences further fanned the

embers of distrust and disunity that destroyed the fabric of harmony previously existing in the state. Some of the respondents (23.8%) opined that the crises were fueled by outside influence like the Hausas interested in propagating Islam and controlling power in the state. These Hausas then engineered the Fulani to fight the indigenes and other settler groups. Based on this analogy, the conflicts were not necessarily between the indigenous and settler groups. For 19.0%, the conflicts are somehow between the indigenes and settlers. This is not only because of the economic and other reasons raised by the majority of the respondents but also partly due to the fact that the Fulani settler groups served as links for the invading Fulani and other Islamic groups who were not really familiar with the terrains, to successfully carryout their heinous crimes against the natives.

5.2.32 Do you think the conflicts are just a reflection of the general Boko Haram issues?

Fig. 5.2.32: CONFLICTS REFLECT BOKO HARAM ISSUES



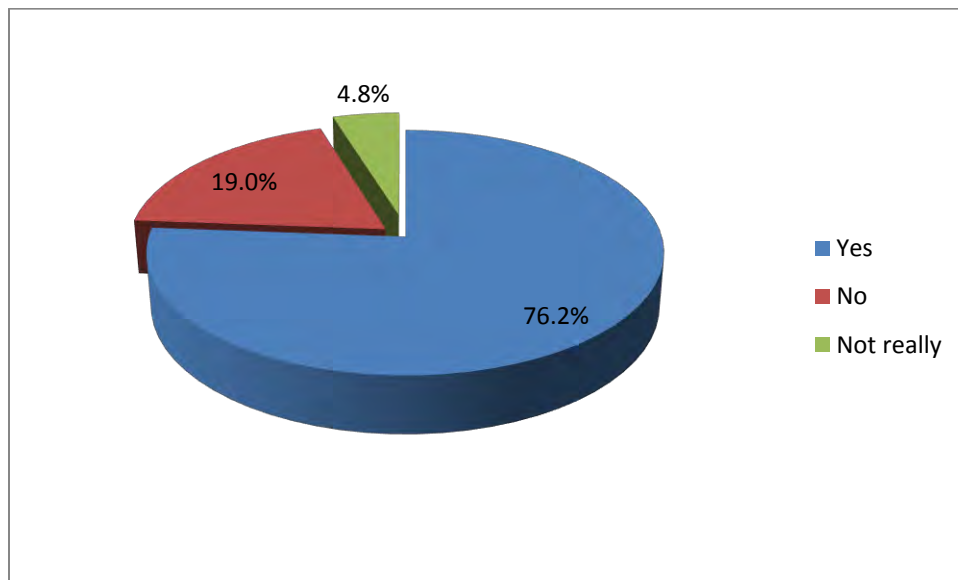
Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

As per the conflicts in Plateau state being a reflection of the Boko Haram issues that Nigeria has been faced with since the attempts to disband the group since 2009, 61.9% were in disagreement. They strongly asserted that conflicts and ethno-religious upheavals in Plateau state had predated the period within which the Boko Haram group shot into the limelight. 19.0% said they could not speak with all certainty because although there had been pockets of inter-communal clashes in the state in the 1990s, it was until 2001 that there was a major crisis with strong religious undertones in which lots of lives and property were lost.

The respondents further reasoned that the 2001 crisis might have been triggered by sleeper cells of the Boko Haram group which were already festering from that period before coming out as a formidable group in 2009. Their reasons were based on the similarities of the characteristics of the Boko Haram group with the Maitasine, an Islamic fundamentalist group which had started off as a seemingly harmless group that eventually unleashed a reign of terror on Nigerians until it was finally quashed in 1983. 14.3% however held that the conflicts in the state were a reflection of the Boko Haram issues. They claimed that the intra- and inter-communal clashes had waned overtime and had been replaced by the deadly attacks mainly carried out by the Fulani which has been the case since religion became the dominant factor underlying the conflagrations in Plateau state.

5.2.33 Have you been directly affected by the crises in the state in terms of loss of lives and property?

Fig. 5.2.33: DIRECT LOSS OF LIVES OR PROPERTY

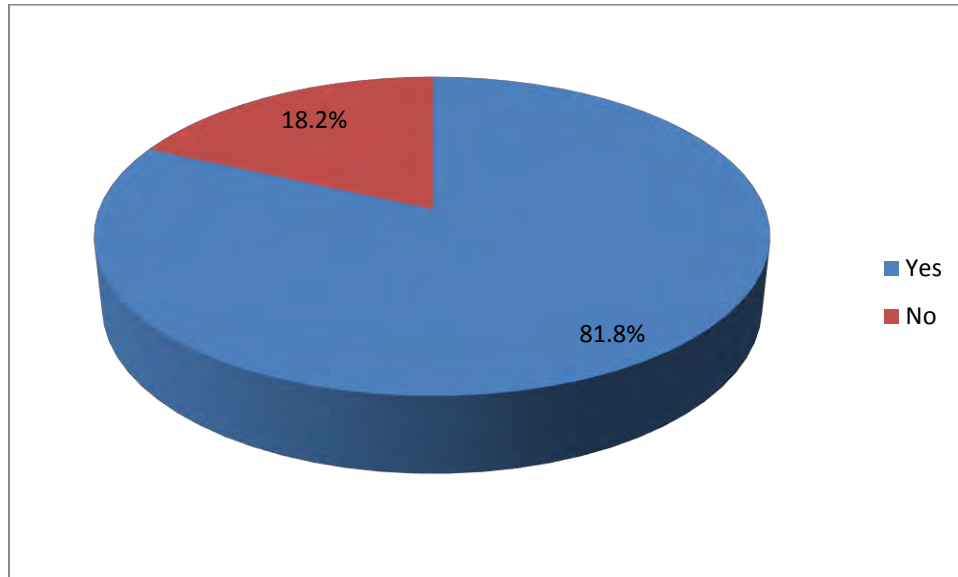


Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

In evaluating the extent of loss of loved ones and property attributable to the conflicts in the state, as many as 76.2% of the respondents stated that they had been directly affected by the crises. 19.0% were not directly affected in anyway except perhaps for restrictions of movement, etc. 4.8% said they were affected but somewhat indirectly in that it was the members of their extended families that had taken the direct hit.

5.2.34 Have you lost members of your community in any of these conflicts?

Fig. 5.2.34: CONFLICT-RELATED BEREAVEMENTS

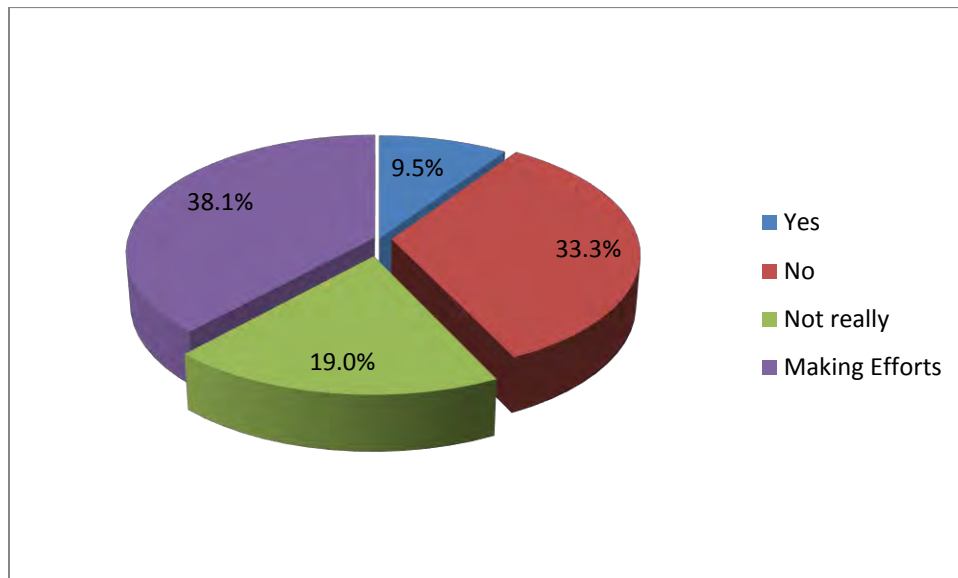


Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

In response to Question 34, 81.8% had lost members of their communities to the incessant conflicts. A few from this number went on to explain that their communities had become desolate because people had run away from them as a result of fear of the attackers returning. Some others stated that their communities were almost obliterated as there was not even a single habitable building standing, not to talk of animals because of the extent of the attacks in which farmlands and even livestock were destroyed.

5.2.35 Do you think that the government has done enough to checkmate or handle the crises and conflicts in the state?

Fig. 5.2.35: GOVERNMENT EFFORTS ARE TANGIBLE

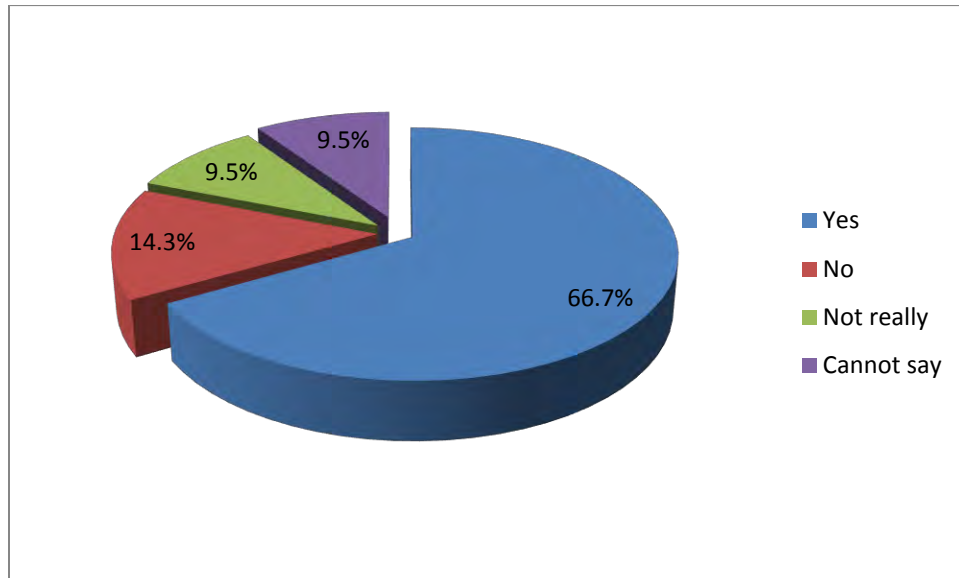


Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

From the responses received, 38.1% representing the majority, answered that though the government is making efforts which may not necessarily be seen as tangible enough to put the crises in check, it is still better that they are doing something. Incidentally, those who disagreed totally and felt that the government is not making any tangible efforts are the second highest majority with 33.3%. From the results, only 9.5% of the respondents answered in the affirmative that the efforts of the government are tangible.

5.2.36 Does the effort of the government towards ending the crises in the state encourage you to put in your best at work?

Fig. 5.2.36: GOVERNMENT EFFORTS ARE ENCOURAGING

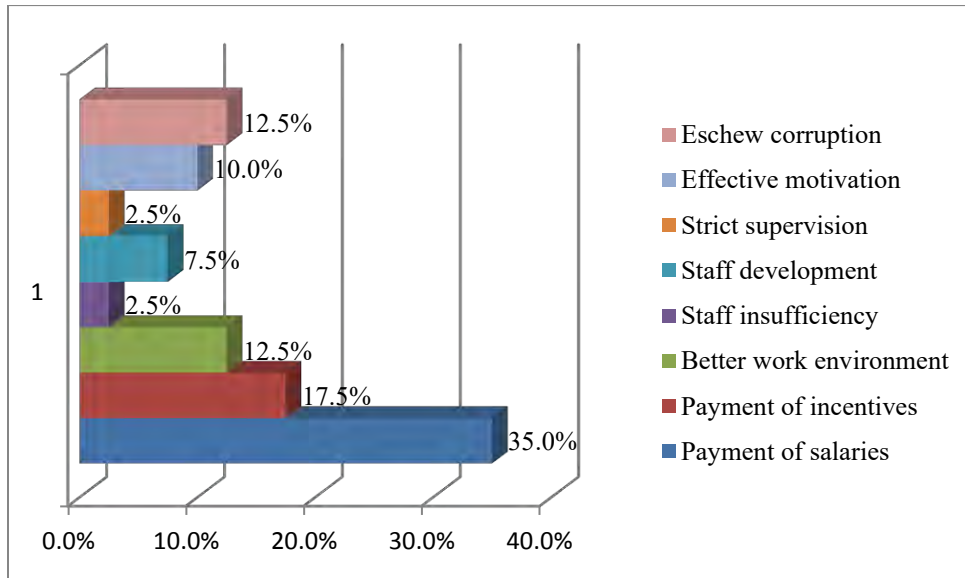


Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

On whether the staff assessed the government's efforts at checkmating the crises as sufficiently encouraging and positively influencing their zeal to work, 66.7% which was the majority on this question answered in the affirmative. They further went on to say that the governmental efforts have strengthened their confidence in the ability of the government to protect their lives and property in the face of crises.

5.2.37 What other factors affect your mind-set or can be taken into consideration in encouraging staff commitment to the goals of the Plateau State civil service?

Fig. 5.2.37: FACTORS TO BE CONSIDERED IN BOOSTING COMMITMENT



Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

This question was an open-ended one with multiple responses. It was intended to allow the staff bare their minds and proffer recommendations deriving from their experiences at work and which they felt could handle the latent and manifest problems bedeviling the Plateau State civil service. Topping the list was the need to address the lack of constant payment of the already insufficient salaries with 35.0%. The second recommendation suggested by 17.5% of the respondents centred on the need for the constant payment of staff incentives and concern for their welfare packages, bonuses, etc. Two points (a better work environment and eschewing corruption) came in level (on the same rating) as the third most pressing considerations to be made with 12.5% each.

5.3 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter focused mainly on the presentation and analyses of the data collected via the questionnaires and the interviews conducted at the research site of the study. The information on the bio-data of the staff were tabulated according to ethnic group, local government, gender, years of service, level of educational attainment, etc. The data collected were evaluated in the tests of the hypotheses using Pearsons' coefficient of correlation, Spearman's rank correlation and the Bi-variate two-way product formulae as described in the preceding chapter. All of them showed degrees of significance implying that all the issues hypothesized on, had varying levels of influence on the motivation of staff in the Plateau state civil service. The questionnaire data were also presented graphically using charts based on the simple percentage method. Brief analyses and explanations of the information gathered and the percentages obtained were done to enable an easy understanding of what the graphic representations were all about.

A more in-depth interpretation and discussion of the findings follows in the next chapter (Chapter 6) in which the links between the postulations of the theories utilized in the theoretical framework, the findings and the significance of the hypotheses are extrapolated upon in correlating the research variables. The chapter is also deemed important in the sense that it knits together the different chapters and demonstrates how the present study contributes to knowledge.

CHAPTER SIX

DATA INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

6.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter covers the interpretation of the data analyzed in chapter 5. It provides a step-by-step evaluation that enables a more in-depth understanding and grasp of the subject matter of the research. The chapter is basically an invaluable nexus that links the variables of the research with the research questions and hypotheses, the theoretical framework and the literature review discussed in previous chapters.

6.1 REVISITING THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS THAT GUIDED THE STUDY

The questions to which the study sought to find answers were the following:

1. Are the motivators postulated by the major organizational motivation theories well-suited for enhancing performance among the employees of the Plateau state civil service?
2. Is there a probable influence of the non-administrative criteria within Nigeria's public administrative environment, inadequately captured by the Western-oriented organizational motivation theories and the series of administrative reforms, on employee motivation? and
3. Will checkmating these factors extraneous to the individual and the immediate workplace environment but inherent in the workers socio-cultural environments significantly influence their output quality?

6.2 DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

The research questions and hypotheses guided the formulation and structure of the research instruments (the questionnaire and the interview schedule) to ensure the effective portrayal of the variables under study. This section therefore elaborates on the outcome of the Bi-variate Two-Way correlation, Pearson's coefficient (parametric) and Spearman's Rho (nonparametric) analyses to which the data collected via the administered questionnaires were subjected in order to test the research hypotheses. On the other hand, the data gathered from the open-ended question discussed in Section E and from the interviews being mainly qualitative, were also analyzed using thematic content analyses. One major benefit of the interviews is that they also allowed for instant follow-up questions where proper clarifications were required; these derived from the responses obtained from the actual interview questions. The findings were discussed based on the research questions outlined in 6.1 above with reference to the hypotheses as the broader issues for investigation to enable the determination of the extent to which the research objectives were met.

6.2.1 Are the motivators postulated by the major organizational motivation theories well-suited for enhancing performance among the employees of the Plateau state civil service?

Polinaidu (2004) describes motivation as signifying the willingness, direction, strength and persistence of an individual's behavior at work that results in job satisfaction. He emphasizes that employee motivation is paramount to the progress and successful goal achievement in organizations irrespective of function, size, structure or composition. His position mirrors the crux of all the organizational motivation theories since their focus is on the best possible approach to the enhancement of employee input and organizational output quality.

Hypothesis one evaluated the propriety of the postulations of the content and process motivation theories in achieving motivation among the employees of the Plateau state civil service. The results showed a strong, positive two-tailed significance at a 0.01 level on the parametric and nonparametric analyses while the scatter-plot reflecting the bi-variate analysis showed a significant cluster. This implied that the basic motivators such as pay, annual leaves, the merit principle for promotion, bonuses and incentives, equity and fairness, staff training and development, cordiality among staff, and so on, are intrinsic values which the management of the Plateau state civil service takes into consideration in its bid to boost the morale and commitment of its staff and motivate them to achieve its goals. Also, Questions 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 10, 11, 16 and 18 on the interview schedule assessed the tenability of and the extent to which the key motivators and motivational tools proffered by the content and process motivation theories have been properly harnessed and applied to enhance employee productivity in the service.

On the effectiveness of better pay and conditions of service in Question 1, all the respondents (100%) averred that these were the overall most potent of the motivators for a developing country like Nigeria in the face of pressures brought about by endemic poverty and other socio-economic maladies. Unfortunately, all the respondents strongly decried the insufficiency of their pay and other remunerations within the civil service. They also stated that efforts to survive on their meager earnings were further thwarted by the fact that the salaries were not paid according to the prescribed schedule, rather the staff were owed salaries in backlogs. These issues made them unable to make tangible plans for themselves and their dependents since there was no certainty of when payments would be made. Besides this, most of them were almost always in accumulated debts accruing from borrowing to take care of pressing

needs and responsibilities. The position of this research is that situations as these tend to perpetuate the cycle of poverty.

Scientific managers like Taylor (1911), Henri Fayol and Max Weber emphasized the economic at the expense of the psychological and social aspects of workers needs in organizations. They held that a worker acts rationally to maximize his economic gains (Ngu, 1994). Today, such extreme conceptualizations of the economic man have been discredited, especially by the Human Relations School. The importance of pay and conditions of service in the motivation of employees is upheld by Maslow as necessary for the satisfaction of the basic physiological and safety needs, by Alderfer for the satisfaction of the existence needs and by Herzberg as hygiene factors whose potency cannot be underscored. Kalleberg (1977) in evaluating the perceptions of workers in relation to rewards and the value placed on the job found that the workers got more job satisfaction from the rewards than from the value placed on the work (Shepard and Hougland, 1978). This agrees with the motivation theories that pay and better pay are still strong motivators to employees anytime. The utility of pay and conditions of service is thus upheld as the baseline on which the motivation of the average employee rests because of the desire to satisfy the most essential existential needs of food, shelter and so on. These views on the relevance of pay to the employee explain the rationale behind the discussions and propositions on pay as the core issue of all the civil service/administrative reforms over the years. There is no doubt therefore, that most employees find motivation in financial rewards but the important question is the level of effectiveness it inspires and the appeal it has to different individuals.

For Question 2, the majority (52.4%) of the respondents avouched that the merit principle was applied in relation to promotions, bonuses, equity and fairness and so on. This fact was an

upper in terms of their commitment since none of the respondents within this majority had had any experience or information on the contrary. It further agrees with J. S. Adam's Equity theory of motivation which holds that individuals compare their work situations with those of their colleagues and a perception of the fairness of rewards vis-à-vis the employees input influences their level of motivation. On the contrary, of 23.8% of the respondents who disagreed with the notion that the merit principle is upheld in the service, some claimed to have actually been short-changed while others did not assess the reward processes implemented in the Plateau state civil service as fair. Some cited instances where colleagues undeserving of promotions, bonuses, etc. benefitted from those exercises while the more deserving staff were denied of the rewards either deliberately or unwittingly as a result of shadiness or careless oversight. J. S. Adam in his Equity theory classified incidences like these as reflective of over- or under-reward that always culminates in job dissatisfaction.

As per the influences of colleagues on the respondents' efforts to perform better at work, 81.0% representing the majority on Question 5 stated that a dedication to duty and the desire to achieve career goals were stronger motivators than the fact that their colleagues were hardworking and reaping benefits. This result tallied with the one derived from Statement 1 of section E. 55.4% of the respondents disagreed (41.7% disagreed and 13.7% strongly disagreed) that they were affected by some of the anomalies within the civil service and so were apathetical to work. By this, they reflected the contexts described by Maslow's self-actualization need, Alderfer's Growth need, Herzberg's opportunity for personal growth and McClelland's achievement need motivators. These scholars posit that an individual's desire to excel and be at the top of his chosen field encourage commitment to his career dreams. The respondents also

stated that there were colleagues who had outright negative, slothful attitudes to work that did not negatively influence their own attitude to work even though they did not get punished.

However, 85.7% (the majority on Question 7) held that their zeal to work was doused when there was a general perception or air of laxity pervading the work environment or when hitherto diligent colleagues exhibited laxity and poor attitude to work especially when no consequences were attracted. This phenomenon was put down to discouragements arising from unmet expectations and the fact that their pay and pay schedules were disappointingly below par. Taylor (1911) explained this as a consequence of the 'soldiering' phenomenon, involving actions depicting situations of under- or non-exertion or the attitude which deliberately restricts output and may be adopted by employees when they perceive a general laxity among colleagues in the workplace capable of rubbing off on other colleagues and even newcomers in organizations. Vroom's Expectancy and Adam's Equity theories explain this reduction in the zeal and commitment to work as a drop in the individual's valence, instrumentality and expectancy and the perceived inequity of efforts to rewards respectively. They explained it as emanating from the perceived failures of the work to provide favourable working conditions, a hygiene factor highlighted by Herzberg.

These include meeting the expectations of the workers in terms of rewards, outcomes or level of satisfaction, management inability to deliver on agreements with their employees, unequal treatment of colleagues, disappointment with the job content and events within the workplace environment. This is because individuals come to the work environment with needs and expectations that they believe will be satisfied by their jobs as explained by Maslow's esteem and self-actualization needs, Alderfer's Growth need, Herzberg's opportunity for advancement and personal growth, McClelland's power and achievement needs, Vroom's

valence and Locke and Latham's self-efficacy and goal commitment. Where these expectations are not met, the tendency is for the individuals to relapse into a kind of docile mode expressed through carefree attitudes.

Taylor's differential piece-rate plan was developed to enable the apportionment of appropriate wages and bonuses based on set standards rather than by a profit sharing plan. His exception principle allowed for the setting of major tasks and targets by management with rewards for achieving them and penalties (including removal) for not meeting the standards (Laxmikanth, 2005). In Nigeria, the piece-rate plan is not applicable especially in the public sector as most employee remunerations are done monthly. However, overtime, unproductive workers are laid off based on proof of irresponsible behavior, etc. while the hardworking staffs get verbal commendations and positive appraisals from superiors sometimes. These favourable or unfavourable outcomes of behaviour are those which Skinner described as the positive or negative reinforcers in his Reinforcement theory capable of eliciting the desired behaviour among employees in organizations. The criticism of Skinner's theory for making employees overly dependent on extrinsic reinforcers for motivation, though not proven by research (Stoltz and Bolger, 2014), is however not applicable to the Plateau state civil service because of the principle of anonymity that guides the conduct of government business and discourages individual responsibility for actions.

In further determining the factors believed to be contributing to the staffs' lackadaisical attitude to work, the interviewees in response to Question 6, placed significant emphasis on insufficient pay and irregular pay schedules (27.3%), putting them at the top of the list. This was followed by other reasons like a lack of motivation (21.2%), lack of commitment (15.2%), management failures and indiscipline (12.1% each), and lack of supervision and corruption with

6.1% each. The reasons relating to pay and incentives were deemed to be cogent in the face of the persistent poverty and strain brought on by the prevalent inflation and the economic woes of the country. The respondents stated that the lack of motivation and consequent lack of commitment arise from the diminished hopes of the employees in the ‘future’ of the job and the apparent inability of the management to effectively steer the affairs of the Plateau state civil service. Though Herzberg, Vroom and McClelland assess the work itself as constituting a motivator, where the future of the work appears bleak because of intervening factors beyond the workers sphere of control, motivation diminishes.

A respondent in the GL 10-13 cadre had a lot to say in his explanation of the lack of managerial innovation. He described it as *‘characterized by a lack of clarity of responsibilities that arises from the staff not having clear schedules of duty; gross indiscipline resulting in inadequate supervision and misbehaviour among the lower level staff; and negligence and dereliction of duty from not knowing exactly what rules to abide by since the codes of conduct that should guide workers is an abstract thing’*. Another respondent decried the failures of management as related to not organizing training programmes for staff thereby making them unable to align their aspirations with the already virtually unfamiliar objectives of the civil service. These issues with managerial ineptitude reflect the company policy and administration and quality of supervision which Herzberg listed among his hygiene factors that should exist before motivation can take place.

Corruption was also highlighted as one of the factors responsible for the laxity among staff. 76.2% of the respondents in reaction to Question 3 evaluated it as a potent factor that overrides merit and threatens the possibility of an individual actually actualizing his career goals. This is more so when the system rewards mediocrity, irresponsibility, partisanship and ‘loyalty’

of staff with undue and undeserved promotions, favours, benefits, and so on. By frustrating the merit principle, it promotes what Riggs' (1961) described under the ascriptive criteria as a situation where an individual assumes a position based on his parentage, race, religion or other criteria of identity other than capacity and the requisite ability to undertake designated responsibilities.

Another problem of lack of motivation, commitment and the failures of management was highlighted in Question 8 when the respondents were asked if the provision of basic amenities like housing, portable water, electricity, good healthcare, etc. will boost their motivation to work. A resounding 'Yes' vote came from a majority 85.7% of the respondents. The researcher was reminded of the era when low-cost staff housing estates complete with the relevant facilities, were provided by the government for staff at both the state and federal government levels. Today, these are no longer in existence because the houses were sold out to private individuals, leaving staff to meet these needs on their own with their already meager salaries. The National Health Insurance Scheme(NHIS) was established by the General Abdulsalmi Abubakar-led military regime on the 10th of May under Decree No. 35 of 1999, 'for the purpose of providing health insurance which shall entitle insured persons and their dependents the benefit of prescribed good quality and cost effective health services' (NHIS Decree 35, 1999). Although just focusing on only one of the essential services, it is expected to bring some respite to the staff of the civil service, those in Plateau state inclusive. Unfortunately however, the staff of the Plateau state civil service stated that they were yet to start enjoying the scheme as the benefits had been restricted to staff of the federal civil service and the federal parastatals. A respondent speaking on this regretted that the state governments have not implemented the pension scheme because '*...anytime there is a new invention, the states are sidelined as if we at the state level*

are not as important as the federal civil servants...' Others decried the fact that they have to pay for virtually every essential service in the face of the government's failure to control the rising inflation or implement policies and projects like the provision of steady electricity, to make life easier.

The same 'problem' applies to the Pension fund administration run by the National Pension Commission established by the Pension Reform Act of 2004. The staff of the Plateau state civil service also lamented that they, like other state civil services, were yet to benefit from the pension scheme which had also been restricted to the federal civil service staff. A respondent captured the grim realities of the delay in the implementation of the scheme at the state level thus, *'...that is why you see that when the workers retire, they don't even last because there is no guarantee of pension and then later they are sick, hungry and just die like that before the pension arrives!...*' The influence of 'politics' and an overbearing centre were some other factors lamented as frustrating the implementation of policies across board and deny the employees their benefits.

In response to Question 10 which assessed the quality of interpersonal relations between the staff of the Plateau state civil service, 33.3% of the staff stated that there was need for an improvement in the way employees related with each other especially where situations required the joint attention of superiors and subordinates. 38.1% of the respondents agreed that there is an appreciable level of cordiality among the staff. The researcher was able to corroborate this fact based on observations in the course of the surveys. However, two respondents from among the 38.1% gave instances and further elaborations as to how threats to the level of cordiality could come about. One mentioned situations in which the subordinates took the niceness of the superiors for granted and over-stepped their boundaries. The other claimed that some of the male

superiors tended to exhibit untoward behavior especially with female staff thereby leading to strained relationships in the office particularly when their advances were rebuffed. On the practice of witch-hunting especially of subordinates reflected in Question 11, there were varying answers though a 33.3% majority agreed that there were instances to that effect. Another 28.6% claimed that instances were few and far between.

Despite a few incidences depicting indiscretion on the part of some of the superiors including those mentioned above, 57.1% of the respondents on Question 16 alluded to the fact that most of the superiors are committed to the growth and development of the civil service. 33.3% were of the opinion that what is obtainable among the top bureaucrats cannot be fully described as commitment because at their level, 'commitment' was relative and influenced by a range of factors cutting across 'loyalty' to the government of the day, favours and the benefits to be gained from the 'loyalty' and sycophancy, the interests to be protected, and so on.

The respondents were asked in Question 18 to evaluate the extent to which the factors discussed so far affect employee input and output in the Plateau State civil service particularly as they elucidated the major postulations of the motivation theories being assessed. A sounding majority of 76.2% held that their motivation to work was greatly affected by these factors. A staff on Grade Level 14 even went on to explain that the factors discussed were reflective of virtually all that an individual requires from his work based on Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs noting that what is obtainable in the service falls far below their expectations '*...but what can we do? It is still better than nothing...*'

6.2.2 Is there a probable influence of the non-administrative criteria within Nigeria's public administrative ecology, inadequately captured by the Western-oriented organizational motivation theories and the series of administrative reforms, on employee motivation?

'Non-administrative criteria' describe phenomena which are not administrative in character. Riggs (1961), the originator of the concept, defined them as those unofficial considerations that may naturally be economic, social, political, cultural, and so on, or that may overlap. It is a feature of the '*Sala*' in prismatic societies that explains how certain unofficial factors within the society have a corresponding influence on the official factors and environment. As such, what is defined as economic is very influenced by non-economic considerations; the political by non-political, etc. These non-administrative criteria can therefore be described as potent factors with the capacity to impose particularistic obligations on the public administrators and interfere with goal attainment by diverting officials from the use of their labour to accomplish an organization's presumed policies or goals (Riggs, 1961). From Riggs' (1961) analyses, these non-administrative criteria can be described as existing within the socio-cultural environments of the developing prismatic societies.

Duncan (1972), Hall(1972), Kast and Rosenzweig (1974), Neghandi(1975) and Luthans and Stewart (1977) listed the general environmental contingency variables as encompassing the cultural, technological, social, demographic, legal, economic, political and ecological. They affect the organization indirectly and provide the context within which relevant and specific factors that affect organizations directly, find expression. In relating Riggs' view to these environmental variables, we see a possibility of a cocktail of underlying non-administrative criteria in the public administrative ecology of prismatic societies. They may consist of the

factors which Duncan (1972) and the other contingency scholars view as the 'indirect' bases on which administrative factors like employee motivation and organizational effectiveness find expression in Nigeria's public sector, the Plateau state civil service inclusive.

For this research, two of the hypotheses were developed based on research question two in relation to these environmental contingency factors or non-administrative criteria. They were tested to determine:

- a. The influence of Nigeria's socio-cultural environment,
- b. The presence of non-administrative criteria in the socio-cultural environment and
- c. The effect of the ethno-religious crises, the Boko Haram insurgency and the attacks by the Fulani herdsmen on employee motivation in the Plateau state civil service.

Hypothesis two was analyzed to determine the possibility that the non-administrative criteria which are the high point of the research, exist within the socio-cultural environment of Nigeria's public administration. The results revealed a significant, positive relationship, $r(339) = .299, p < .05$ with correlation significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). This proved that the socio-cultural environment of Nigeria's public administration and the non-administrative criteria existent within it are strongly associated with employee motivation and performance. On the interview schedule, Questions 6, 12, 13, 19, 20, 21, 23 and 24 were constructed to enable the determination of a relationship between the socio-cultural environment of Nigeria's public administration and employee motivation and performance. Questions 14, 15, 17, 19, 22, 25 and 26 on the other hand, were constructed to assess the potency of some of the more prevalent non-administrative criteria within the socio-cultural environment in influencing employee motivation in the Plateau state civil service.

Sharma et al (2011) assessed the human factor in public administration as the product of his society which defines the social values, ethos and traditions that he imbibes before he joins the public service. The point of view and attitude he acquires and develops within the social milieu considerably shape his decisions in the public service. Koontz et al (1983) described the social environment as encompassing the attitudes, desires, expectations, degrees of intelligence and education, beliefs and customs of people in a given group or society. At times, these groups represent the social strata or classes into which the society has been divided and can be identified by their expectations, characteristics and values. Ramesh and Augusto (1984) asserted that the presence of these class structures influence the society's mores, attitude towards change or reforms, religion, language, kinship groups like family or tribe, factors like means of transport and communication, terms of social mobility, etc. which inadvertently affect public administration.

The strength of these relationships was also a reason given besides cordial interpersonal relations evaluated in Question 10, for the presence of cliques within the civil service. A 76.2% majority of the respondents, in answer to Question 12, asserted that cordiality and interpersonal relations among staff encourage the growth of cliques. Although they claimed that the members of the cliques may be bonded by other factors beyond the official contexts like tribe, membership of cooperative or religious societies, political parties, etc. In response to Question 13 as to the influence of clique membership on the reactions of workers to the civil service being stronger than the fact that they were civil servants, 57.1% representing the majority replied in the affirmative. Apparently, cliques cannot be out of place in human existence because of the roles played by interpersonal relationships at different levels. The researcher observed that the staff tended to connect more with colleagues from their own ethnic group with the same linguistic

affiliations. This fact was further buttressed by a Grade Level 13 officer who said, ‘....*you cannot take out cliques from the service or anywhere you find large groups of people....For some of us, we started work on the same day and have grown together over the years so we are definitely bound to watch out for ourselves. Also, some of us are from the same local government areas and tribes which is even worse, so we can’t avoid it...*’ Some proof of these came from the observations of the researcher on the strength of interpersonal relations among staff. Firstly, the relationships tended to be familial either where there were clear age-related gaps with the older aged civil servants representing ‘parent-figures’ or sometimes when they were familiar with several family members of the younger colleagues. To an extent, these relationships also determined the context of loyalty and the affiliations among staff. In such cases, greetings went beyond the periphery and took forms like ‘How are you? What of Mama? How is Baba?’ etc. especially when they were both from the same ethnic group.

An 85.7% majority in response to Question 14 asserted that ‘class struggles’ and cliques exist among the top brass of the Plateau State civil service which a female respondent described as being ‘*on another level*’. Riggs (1961) in explaining the features of prismatic heterogeneity cloned the term, ‘*clects*’, from clans and sects based on a combination of their characteristics. These groups, aside the use of modern associational methods of organization while retaining traditional diffuse and particularistic goals, place the national or communal interests of their members above the general interests of business. The evaluation of these ‘*clects*’ by Pradeep and Etakula (2009) gave a more modern insight to their mode of operation including their interactions especially where a resource appears to be at stake. They described the ‘*clects*’ as diverse ethnic, religious and racial groups in society that exist simultaneously and based on relatively hostile interactions with each other.

Puri (1985) noted that ‘the administrator’s responsiveness and decision making cannot be considered in isolation from the tremendous influence of his social background, values and attitudes and the kind of people in society with whom he identifies himself’. Findings revealed that the influence on clique membership was more from ethnic cleavages than from staff cadre in the service. The point of interest in these cliques is the purposes to which they are geared or the extent to which the cliques attain a level of potency that may become negative or capable of undermining productivity in the civil service. This results from its development into a tool of expression and negotiations in the hands of a select group of civil servants whose visions may be inimical to the goals and objectives of the Plateau State Civil Service. Riggs had also noted the capacity of these primary groups to influence and rise to importance over the secondary type associations (Riggs, 1961) such that the political and administrative agencies are better understood as ‘*cleets*’ rather than as primary or secondary groups. This buttresses Mukoro’s (2005) views of selfish, tribal, ethnic and clan allegiance as a ‘virtue’ that binds within the Nigerian polity, cankerworms that are groomed by the ruling elite and grow to subsequently unsettle public administration by skewing policy making and implementation.

The respondents were asked in Question 15, to assess the loyalty of their superiors to the civil service. An overwhelming 95.2% majority affirmed that some superiors tended to protect personal, ethnic or other interests even when these did not tally with or advance the goals of the civil service. Several respondents lamented that these superiors came across as untouchable even though they were assessed as relatively committed on the whole. Question 17 queried the presence of sacred cows among staff and a 76.2% majority attested that there were actually civil servants in that category. This view was reflected by Mukoro (2005) who described the politico-administrative typology in Nigeria as one in which the government officials and public servants

have formed themselves into cabals that derive their powers from the agency of the state. Riggs on the other hand had assessed the political and administrative agencies of the prismatic societies as '*clects*' formidable enough to influence and rise to importance over the secondary type associations especially in the organizational sphere (Riggs, 1961).

In response to Question 19, a 76.2% majority agreed that there were instances where the actions of administrators had been swayed by group, familial or communal interests as against full compliance to the dictates of the civil service rules. One respondent elaborated further saying, '*...we have that a lot. Ah, it's not easy now, especially when one works in his home state and among his own people...*' Another also retorted, '*...Yes, can't you see that we have a lot of civil servants with traditional titles? This is not supposed to be. It is the outcome of the loyalty to their people and the reason why they will continue to bend the rules to the detriment of the civil service!...*' Hota (1984), Mukoro (2005) and Elaigwu (2011) noted that a major feature of the socio-cultural environment of Nigeria's public administration is reflected in the co-existence of the traditional and modern ways of doing things. Elaigwu (2011) evaluated the public service, government and private sector as having an intricate interweave with traditional rulership as a consequence of the wild craving for traditional legitimacy among elites in urban societies in Nigeria. The result is the modernization of the traditional institutions and a traditionalization of the modern sector that expands the span of influence of the 'traditional rulers' within the modern sector such that they wield power across both the traditional and bureaucratic elite circles (Hota, 1984; Elaigwu, 2011). Today the illiterate, archaic traditional institution boasts of a crop of seasoned, enlightened and accomplished serving and retired public servants interested in traditional rulership positions.

Question 20, closely relating to Question 19 was this time more directly put to the respondents. It elicited responses pertaining instances in which they had been personally confronted with situations or experiences where loyalty to group (family, friend or community) had superseded their loyalty to the civil service and a 52.4% majority answered in the affirmative. Respondents were also asked in Question 24 whether cultural or traditional beliefs within particular areas of the state affected the decisions taken concerning them in terms of developmental projects, etc. There were missing values of 28.6% but 19% affirmed that this was the case while 23.8% gave a conditional 'Yes' answer explaining that ideally, all land belong to the state and government decisions supersede all traditions. However over the years, the decisions made by the government have been influenced by situations like the incidences of conflict especially where the decisions pertained to areas with a Hausa-Fulani majority and where certain requests are made by revered or first class traditional rulers. Another 23.8% answered in the negative basing their responses on the fact that government business, administration and the provision of developmental projects were not in any way influenced by tradition and other related sentiments.

Several respondents linked these questions to Question 26 which sought to assess the extent to which the distribution of essential services (road networks, boreholes, cottage hospitals, etc.) across the state by the government was equitably carried out. There were missing values for 28.6% of the respondents. Of the rest, 42.8% representing the majority stated that there was no fairness at all in the exercises because both governors of the state in the period under review practiced systems of social exclusion. To begin with, the majority of the developmental projects were executed by contractors who were either relatives of the governors or their stooges and as if this was not one slap too many, the projects were concentrated within their own local

government areas of origin and those of their closest allies to the near-neglect of the rest of the state. Although in the case of Governor Jang, his Jos South local government area of origin is one of the two that make up the metropolitan section of the state and so it was privy to several developmental projects. These among other reasons were touted as fuelling tensions that snowballed into some of the major crises experienced in the state in 2001, 2008 and 2010.

In fact, in the twilight of the tenure of Governor Jonah David Jang (2007-2015), all eyes were on him to declare his chosen candidate and successor to the seat. True to type, he attempted to impose a candidate from his own ward in the Plateau North Senatorial District again rather than go with the general consensus that the next governor must come from the Plateau Southern Senatorial zone which was yet to produce a governor in the state (Alao and Sadiq, 2014) in this fourth republic. Incidences as these bordering on god-fatherism, cronyism, nepotism, favouritism, partisanship and other forms of corruption have thrived in the state from 1999 when Nigeria embraced democracy up until the period under review and to date.

Politics in Nigeria, though appearing to be guided by the rules is in reality, bereft of decorum and patriotism. This trend, a connotation of Riggs' formalism that highlights the differences between procedure and practice, plays out at the centre, directly or indirectly influencing politics at the periphery. It bears heavily on the capacity of the public administration at all levels to function optimally. Loyalties are displaced, leading to the frustration or strangulation of purpose-specific policy formulation and implementation processes either as a result of incompetence, grievance or shoddiness arising from lack of effective supervision. The domino effect is the sacrifice of the social, economic and political good of the people to the whims and caprices of a 'chosen few' who operate as the cabal which Riggs described as the 'intelligentsia' (Riggs, 1961).

Riggs (1961) had noted the existence of such influences in his discourse on the ‘overlapping’ feature and the importance of non-administrative criteria in the administration of prismatic societies where he highlighted the persistence of primary organizations. These take the forms of strong family ties, the presence and pressures of ‘*clects*’, district of origin, ‘old school tie’, province-mates that create incompatibilities between administrative and ‘family’ codes. They create problems of nepotism by the imposition of particularistic obligations on the administrator in several ways including in the selective recruitment and allocation of benefits.

Furthermore, loyalties to family, language, religion, caste or ethnic group diminish the commitment of the individual to the national political system and heighten the potentialities for political unrest and instability as social dissensions escalate and political decision making becomes difficult. These factors have been deeply ingrained in the Nigerian society and tend to affect the equilibrium. Currently, the political appointments being made by the new President Muhammadu Buhari who was elected into office in 2015 (though outside the period of the study) have been adjudged as lopsided with 80% of the appointees comprised of the Hausa-Fulani stock from the northern part of Nigeria (Abdulmalik, 2015; Gyang, 2016) to the exclusion of most of the other regions of the country. Consequently, there have been comments to the effect that the President should take the constitutionally prescribed federal character principle into consideration in the course of making appointments to avoid heating up the polity.

Several other variables were included for evaluation during the interview in the bid to effectively examine the trends that can be subsumed under the non-administrative criteria. On the criticism quoted in Stoltz and Bolger (2014) that extrinsic reinforcers constitute bribery and not behaviour modifiers, Question 21 of the interview schedule was structured to determine whether gifts were offered to staff in the course of their administrative duties and to enable the evaluation

of the potency of these extrinsic reinforcers or ‘gifts’ on employee motivation. 85.7% of the respondents admitted that gifts were sometimes offered by individuals and corporate bodies in the course of carrying out designated responsibilities. The respondents were then asked to assess the practice of gift-giving by individuals or corporate bodies to facilitate or express appreciation for jobs done. 47.6% of the respondents representing a majority were of the opinion that the gifts could not be described as bribes mainly because they were unsolicited and so could not be expected to affect the administrative processes to be followed in the discharge of their responsibilities.

This stance picks a hole in the unproven criticism quoted in Stoltz and Bolger (2014) that an exposure to extrinsic reinforcers creates a level of dependency which results in the desired behavior being halted when the reinforcement is removed. Rather, it further tallies with the position that the assumption of a gift as a bribe can only hold true if the use of rewards was illicitly intended to corrupt the conduct of the individual. However, a respondent held that ‘...*it is in our culture to give gifts so they cannot be called bribes. Though the Bible says a gift destroys the heart, it (the gift) can only be bad if it is given to make one bend the rules...*’ 23.8% of the respondents claimed that the gifts can be regarded as bribes if they were not given corporately to the departments but were given to particular individuals thereby increasing the tendency of the officials in receipt of such ‘gifts’ to have their sense of judgment tainted in favour of the givers. This tallies with the essence of reinforcement as posited by Skinner (1938) is the encouragement of behaviors that benefit both the individual and the organization therefore attempts at behaviour modification should be geared towards maintaining the desired behaviour. In discussing corruption, the giving of gifts to enhance service delivery was discussed both as ‘facilitating payments’ (www.corruptie.org) and as ‘necessary corruption’ ([261](http://www.business-anti-</p></div><div data-bbox=)

corruption.com) since such payments were driven by the need to speed up procedures or services that are actually within the ambits of the law. However, Van Duyne (2001) held that if such payments are done in secret, it can be described as a corrupt practice.

In Question 22, respondents were asked if there were incidences relating to fetishism and the practice of voodoo or witchcraft among colleagues. The majority (42.8%) replied in the negative while 28.6% affirmed that there were situations which they had encountered or heard of that could not be explained by ordinary human reasoning or wished away. However, the responses obtained from the questionnaires as per the belief in their colleagues engagement in fetishism differed perhaps since the respondents had the leverage of anonymity unlike the interviewees. The results from the questionnaires showed a total of 71.1% in the affirmative, based on a simple percentage analysis where 33.7% strongly agreed and 37.4% agreed that this was a significant contending factor within the workplace.

For Question 23 which assessed whether it was okay for women to be breadwinners, there were missing values of 28.6% though 33.3% said it was okay. A respondent explained that except for the Berom ethnic group, most of the other ethnic groups in Plateau state do not subscribe to the woman as a breadwinner. This flows from the belief that it is almost impossible to bring a breadwinning woman under the control of her husband. Another 23.8% stated that ideally, the woman should not be a breadwinner but with the exigencies created by the economic situation in the country, the rise in the trend had become inevitable. On the cultural acceptability of the woman as the breadwinner, there were still missing values of 28.6% but a 57.1% majority stated that it was against the dictates of their cultural orientations. Based on the questionnaire responses in Section E however, a combined majority of 46.7% disagreed (31.2% disagreeing and 15.5% strongly disagreeing) with the notion that men alone should be

breadwinners irrespective of the dictates of culture. Yankelovich (1974) had assessed the work ethos of western societies as having four distinct characteristics, one of which is the concept of the breadwinner and the 'real man' where the principal breadwinner whether male or female is the 'real man'. He explained that in Africa, the man is the breadwinner and the type of work performed by the husbands traditionally conferred a social status on themen and their families. Being a man therefore entailed being a good provider for the family. In this context, a respondent explained that this desire to cope with responsibilities explained the moonlighting trend among the workers that inadvertently affected the employees commitment to work and output quality.

Hypothesis three was structured to reflect insecurity and ethno-religious crises which are also a major component of the non-administrative criteria in the socio-cultural environment of the Plateau state civil service employees as captured in research question two. However, it was tested differently to enable the evaluation of the extent of its impact in redefining the socio-political landscape, in determining the current level of socio-economic development in Plateau state as a whole and in influencing employee motivation in the state civil service. The results of the test of the hypothesis showed a significant and positive relationship, $r(337) = .219, p < .05$ with a strong, positive two-tailed significance at a 0.01 level on the parametric and nonparametric analyses. The correlation was strong, indicating that the high incidence of ethno-religious crises, the Boko Haram insurgency and the attacks by the Fulani herdsmen have significantly affected output and productivity in the Plateau State Civil Service. The scatter-plot representing the bi-variate analysis also showed a significant cluster implying that these crises and conflicts adversely affected the employees' motivation to work.

Questions 27 to 36 on the interview schedule were constructed to enable the evaluation of this research question with regard to the impact, context and influence of the ethno-religious

conflicts and insurgent crises on productivity in the Plateau state civil service. The responses were overwhelmingly evidential to the fact that conflicts of varying degrees were undeniably recurrent decimals in the political and socio-economic landscape of Plateau state within the time frame chosen for this research. This further goes to show how the conflicts, also components of the non-administrative criteria in the socio-cultural environment, constitute unofficial but potent determinants of the course of direction of political and socio-economic decision making processes in the state.

The conflicts were subjected to assessments from various perspectives and perceptions including the extent of the direct or indirect impact they had on the respondents in their individual or collective capacities. As gleaned from the literature reviewed in chapter three, it is noteworthy that in the past decade and a half or more, Plateau State has been the theatre of several conflagrations with tribal, ethno-religious and socio-political undertones. Elaigwu (2010) contended that in a multi-religious society like Nigeria, there are convenient matrimones between religion and politics with the one legitimizing the other in processes that can over time result in serious and enduring conflicts. Tom (2012) in his discourse further expanded this by noting that in Nigeria, three things are intertwined - religion, politics and ethnicity - and the three are unfortunately beclouded by corruption, poverty and insecurity. These indices are reflected in the opinion of 52.4% (reflecting the majority) of the respondents to Question 31. They held that the political crises arose from tussles between the dominant Berom, Anaguta, Afizere (BAA) and mainly the Hausa-Fulani ethnic 'settler' groups especially in Jos North local government area over territory and key political and traditional positions. The respondents explained that there were also other ethnic groups that had come to settle in Jos years ago for socio-economic reasons

and had no interest in engaging in politicking for elective positions. They therefore did not pose any threats or problems unlike the Hausa-Fulani ethnic group.

The opinion of 23.4% of the respondents is that the Boko Haram insurgent and Fulani pastoralist attacks are unprovoked (Question 29), rather, they are merely acting out a script for the frustrated Hausa-Fulani ethnic group using Islam as a common ground. On the other hand, a 52.4% majority acquiesced to the opinion that the conflicts result from provocations driven solely by the zeal for political relevance and territorial expansion that affect both the indigenes and the settlers. The grouse is that despite their (Hausa-Fulani) numerical majority in the Jos North local government area which is the heart of Jos, the capital city of Plateau state, they are only accorded 'settler' status. This brings a strong sense of insecurity that is fuelled by being unable to easily influence the goings-on in the designated political area. The general contention is that the settlers, aggrieved by their inability to attain the much sought after political power, chose to go to any length to push for their desires while the indigenes were provoked to retaliation by the affront of the 'settlers' to whom they had accorded privileges, with the payback being an extensive loss of lives and property on the part of the indigenes.

Marx in his discourse on conflict posited that conflicts arise from the unequal access to material resources by competing groups in society (Umoh, 2013). This buttresses the opinion of Tom (2012) on the role of corruption, poverty and insecurity as the key pivots on which conflicts in Nigeria thrive. The conflicts can be further explained by Brown's (1964) theory of economic defendability which holds that the defense of a resource – in this case, power – has costs such as energy expenditure, risk of injury or priority access to the resource. Territorial behavior therefore arises when the benefits are greater than the costs. From the responses, it was evident that there were dissensions as per the best way to qualify the conflicts though most of the evidence

revealed that these conflicts were exacerbated by power differentials (Umoh, 2013) and agitations over claims to the ownership of Jos. Fwatshak (2007) noted that this competition and the resultant tension and conflicts since 1991 have accounted for the metamorphosis of Plateau state into a nightmare for both tourists and citizens.

For a 52.2% majority responding to Question 28, whatever the reasons adduced for the conflicts, the fallouts always have a ripple effect. Besides the main parties to the conflict, there is always the probability of unconcerned, uninvolved community members and individual actors being caught up in the mayhem leading to an unnecessary loss of human capital. The volatility of Jos, the state capital arises from several mitigating risk factors like power, land, etc. that inadvertently raise the propensity for aggrieved groups to resort to violence in pushing home their demands or reacting to perceived grievances. A glaring example of this is the recent murder in Bokkos local government area, of a first class traditional chief, his wife, son and driver by suspected Fulani herdsmen on the 18th of July, 2016. This has brought home the ever-present apprehension that the relative peace being enjoyed in the state might well be defined as pseudo peace. With this perspective on the peace, virtually all the communities in the state especially the Christian-dominated ones within or with close proximity to the Berom, Afizere and Anaguta (BAA) areas, remain susceptible to attacks by the Fulani herdsmen though some areas within the state are more prone to conflicts than others.

Despite the losses attributable to the insurgent attacks, most of the respondents (61.9%) in assessing the conflicts (Question 32) still held that the crises in Jos cannot be totally attributable to the Boko Haram insurgency because Boko Haram is a relatively new phenomenon on the political landscape of Plateau state. Insurgency is seen by most, mainly indigenes, as a booster thriving on the back of the foundation laid from decades before and more recently since

the conflicts of 1994 in the drive for the islamization of Plateau state and the quest for political power and relevance for the overzealous Hausa-Fulani ethnic group. In recent times also, apart from the terrorist activities of the Boko Haram group, several communities in the hinterlands of the state have been at the brunt of vicious attacks by nameless, faceless, clandestine groups believed to be comprised of Fulani herdsmen and pastoralists. The general contention on these Fulani groups by the indigenes and natives of Plateau state is that they are ‘settlers’ and even more derogatory, ‘passers-by’ that are either competing for territories for their herds of cattle, engaging in a jihad with an Islamist agenda or avenging the loss of their relatives and cattle to the natives in previous ethno-religious conflicts (Crisis Group Reports, 2012). A significant 71.4% of the respondents in assessing this perspective on the conflicts in Question 30 are in agreement with this notion.

For other political analysts, Boko Haram is more a symptom of the crises in Nigeria’s nation-building (Adibe, 2012). Chris Ngwodo suggested that Boko Haram is not a cause but a symptom and an effect of decades of failed government and elite delinquency finally ripening into social chaos (Burt, 2015). Obi (2008) quoted in Umoh (2016), argued that the crisis was triggered by a massive de-Nigerianization process, with several individuals and groups retreating into primordial identities where they seek to construct meaning as they feel let down by the Nigerian state. In this view, those withdrawing from the Nigeria project instinctively see the state as an enemy and attack it by using whatever means at their disposal.

The activities of these dissident Hausa-Fulani and the insurgent Boko Haram groups can be likened to the ‘dissatisfied intelligentsia’ and ‘counter-elite’ groups which Riggs (1961) described under the heterogeneity characteristic of prismatic societies. In response to their unsuccessful search for membership of the elite groups, they have leveraged on their capacity to

transform diffuse tensions into organized revolutionary movements and revolts to make sections of the country ungovernable and virtually inhabitable to the chagrin of the governments at both state and federal levels.

The Hausa-Fulani ethnic group has been engaged in an age-long battle for political relevance and hegemony in Plateau state and the Jos North local government area in particular. Every attempt at dialoguing, imposition of a chairman through military might as was the case in 1994, using their numerical strength to achieve their desire through voting en masse, etc. have been met with a frustrating brick wall that is a constant reminder of their identity and status as ‘settlers’. These identity crises are evaluated by political analysts as a manifest outcome of the underlying latent failure of the Nigerian government to address ambiguities in the 1999 constitution. The address/palliatives should include clearly defining and stipulating the rights and privileges of groups deemed to be occupying the status of ‘indigene’ or ‘settler’. This gap is one contentious issue behind the spate of local violence in the country and particularly in the Middle-Belt region (Crisis Group Report, 2006). The ethno-religious colouration and the Hausa-Fulani angle to the story has been the bane of the power resource struggle, underlying virtually all the crises, unrests and attacks in the state. A cursory evaluation of the impact of the crises shows that the conflicts are more intense in the areas occupied primarily by the BAA ethnic groups. These ethnic groups are domiciled in the vicinities that epitomize the administrative and traditional seats of power in the state. However in several instances, as the conflicts escalate, the intensity is felt amongst other ethnic groups in the hinterland as local government areas farther away from the Jos metropolis get drawn into the fray.

In evaluating the direct impact of the Jos crises on the respondents in Question 33, 76.2% of the respondents stated that they had been directly affected. While one lady recalled that since the

2008 crises, she had not set eyes on her niece who had been resident with her, a second had not seen her husband since the 2001 crises to the extent that her daughter for whom she was pregnant at the time only takes succour in the pictorial memorabilia she was able to preserve. Another woman stated that her father had been missing since the 2001 crises. For all of them, there has been no closure yet as they are still hopeful that there will be some news or bodies recovered to enable them find closure. A senior staff on Grade Level 16 lamented the loss of his 4-bedroom apartment situated in Dogon Karfe, an area dominated by Hausa Muslim residents. The building was completely razed down in the 2008 Jos crises which started as a political conflict that soon spiraled into an ethno-religious conflagration as has been the case with most of the crises in the state. This loss made him a squatter for about three months with his family and belongings spread out in various homes of friends and family and reversed him to the status of 'tenant' once again. He also lamented that he was already in the twilight of his career as a civil servant and may never be able to save up enough to build a home for himself and his family.

In response to Question 34 on the indirect impact of the crises, an 81.8% majority noted that they had experienced the indirect fallouts of the Jos crises and the attacks by the marauding Fulani herdsmen. Many had lost friends, colleagues, community members, business places, etc. A respondent from Riyom local government area (one of the four Berom ethnic group dominated areas) lamented that to date her community is deserted because of the attacks by the Fulani. In her words, *'...in fact, nobody, not even domestic animals live in the village anymore because of the extent of destruction and the fear that those Fulani may return.... yet our people keep looking for solutions from those of us that work for government. It is sad because nobody in government really listens and there is really nothing tangible that we can do to help with the cost of living plus our personal responsibilities...'*

While a 38.1% majority in response to Question 35 agreed that the governmental efforts at stemming the crises and its effects on the polity are tangible, 33.3% of the respondents which included most of those affected in one way or the other disagreed, citing numerous reasons. Their dissensions arose from the gross neglect for the physical, social and economic aspects of human security and uni-directional focus on traditional security in terms of the safeguard of lives and property; from the government doing nothing to cushion the losses of homes and property incurred during the crises; and from the fact that the government did nothing to identify the bodies found, rather they were hastily given mass burials perhaps contributing to the fact that some people are still unaccounted for to date, etc. Irrespective of these standpoints, a 66.7% majority in responding to Question 36 gave kudos to the government when evaluating how the extent to which the efforts towards ending the crises with regard to making the state safe encourage input at work. They noted that the most glaring was that normalcy had returned to the state while tensions and threats related to proneness to crises are greatly reduced but in other aspects like protection and response at periods of attacks, the security measures were grossly insufficient and below par as the government efforts still left much to be desired. Whichever best describes the situation, it remains that there has been a colossal loss of lives and property overtime and perhaps in perpetuity as lives were still lost to reprisal attacks by some youth from the affected communities (Vanguard Newspaper, 2012). They are those who had taken their security into their hands in response to the perceived inability of the government forces to effectively tackle the menace. This analogy tallies with the results of the test of the hypothesis and the overwhelming 95.2% majority response to Question 27 which proved that the ethno-religious crises, the Boko Haram insurgency and the attacks by marauding Fulani herdsmen significantly contributed to the low productivity levels of the Plateau state civil servants.

Question 25 on the interview schedule was structured to assess the notion that organizational socialization has affected the potency of the socio-cultural orientations in determining certain behaviour exhibited by the staff within their immediate-work-environment. Shepard and Hougland (1978) posited that the contingency theory does not ignore the possibility of change in organizations but most research into human behaviour particularly in organizational settings, upheld that it is static. They pointed out this research flaw noting that human behaviour must be assessed as resulting from individual differences. Pointers to the non-static characteristic of human behavior are reflected in the content of organizational strategies like the motivational tools proposed by the motivation theories, etc. These are normally formulated on the basis of the human behaviour observed as arising from individual differences present in the organization at a particular time. In their discourse on the 'complex man' and 'complex organization' approaches, Shepard and Hougland (1978) upheld that most research on the 'complex man' approach have focused on the effects of job design on workers satisfaction without any latitude that over time, organizational members too can change in response to traits learned from organizational socialization. They posited that room must be made for attitudinal change as a function of the different characteristics that the individuals may acquire from organizational experiences. This fact arises from the individual and organizational characteristics that interact to produce observable effects (Indik, 1968).

Consequently, Shepard and Hougland (1978) stated that organizational programs must be broad-based enough to take into consideration, the fact that individual workers do not share the same perceptions and thought patterns. Their view reflected the observation by Goldthorpe (1966) that the worker's interpretation of the work situation and not the work itself influences the work related attitudes and behaviour. However, research in this area has been inconclusive as a

result of the inability of contingency researchers to properly define the 'background' factors capable of altering the worker's reaction to organizational situations (Shepard and Hougland, 1978). This inability is one of the gaps which this research focused on filling by highlighting the potency and complicity of Riggs non-administrative criteria both as contingency factors and as relevant in the determination of the reactions of employees to situations in organizations.

In the responses to the question of organizational socialization on the interview schedule, there were missing values representing 28.6% but 47.6% majority affirmed that they had been re-socialized by their experiences on the job. The questionnaire responses based on a simple percentage showed that 74.7% of the respondents agreed (12.0% strongly agreed and 62.7% agreed) that organizational socialization had indeed taken place and affected some of their socio-cultural perceptions. 81.9% of the questionnaire respondents had also affirmed (25.9% strongly agreed and 56.0% agreed) that as a result of this socialization, everybody got the same treatment across board with no special treatment for individuals from their indigenous areas of origin. For 77.2% of the respondents (19.1% strongly agreeing and 58.1% agreeing), the influence of work, modernity, etc. that came with this socialization also watered down the effects of their cultural value orientations on their attitude to the immediate-work-environment.

Despite these views, the influence of Riggs' *'cleets'* and the non-administrative criteria on employee motivation and the immediate-work-environment of the Plateau state civil service cannot be underscored. 39.9% of the respondents representing the majority (6.1% strongly agreeing and 33.8% agreeing) held that family, friends, community members, etc. still got special considerations and favours where the conduct of their administrative duties were concerned. 36.5% of the respondents disagreed (28.9% disagreed and 7.6% strongly disagreed), claiming to have become insulated against the influences of the primary and secondary groups in

their socio-cultural environment. Also, 73.5% of the respondents (18.4% strongly agreeing and 55.1% agreeing) noted that cultural beliefs and the socio-cultural environment were a very potent determinant of the attitude and commitment of the civil servants to their work. A 70.9% majority of the respondents (21.6% strongly agreeing and 49.3% agreeing) opined that some of the socio-cultural beliefs held by ethnic groups within the state needed to be scrapped because they were not in tandem with the ethics of modernity and administrative practice expected within the civil service. This position was touted by 49.3% of the respondents to the open-ended question, as one of the major prerequisites to be adopted if the civil service is to be properly revamped and steered into a position that enables it achieve the objectives for which it was set up.

Numerous characteristics of the socio-cultural environment of Nigeria's public administration were also suggested as values that need to be abrogated for a new course of progress and success to be charted for the civil service. These were discussed under themes and a few others were treated individually. At the top of the list were gender discrimination and suppression of women. It was described by 38.2% of the interview respondents as predicated on the socio-culture and is a dominant feature at home, work and in employment. From the data, it took the forms of a dearth of support for girl-child education, the institution of the doctrine of *'purdah'* (a practice in Islam whereby the women can neither be seen nor heard) and the uncanny imposition of the 'glass ceiling' which for respondents is multifaceted. Administratively, it reflects in the partiality in the ascription of roles, positions and responsibilities as well as the outright acts of insubordination and sexual harassments from their male colleagues within the civil service to the use of only women as cleaners in the secretariat, on the major roads in the metropolis, etc.

Socio-culturally, other manifestations of this sexism and the relegation of women are listed as evidenced by their exclusion from decision making and the inheritance of property from either their fathers or husbands in the home front, the maltreatment of widows and the institution of sadistic widowhood rites. It also extends to the practice of inheriting the wives of deceased relatives or the neglect of a divorced wife and sometimes the children from the union. Some of the respondents also highlighted instances where the culture of communities placed restrictions barring women and children from eating particular meals while others enforced female circumcision (female genital mutilation). The impacts of these on motivation stemmed from what 7.7% of the respondents described as the failures of the government to effectively legislate against cultures that made women second class citizens. The worst case scenario was the affront by the Jonah Jang-led (2007-2015) administration which was described as officially furthering the attacks on women's rights. It inadvertently legalized the gender discrimination in the state with the ban placed on the wearing of trousers by women to any government establishment in Jos, the state capital.

The next dominant feature of the socio-cultural environment of the Plateau state civil service gleaned from the responses to the open-ended question and having a 29.0% rating was tribalism and actions tending toward tribal supremacy. This trend of tribal supremacy occurs where leaders tend to hype their own areas of origin and is a major feature of politics in the state and indeed the nation in general that unwittingly promotes favouritism. Under the Joshua Dariye-led administration (1999-2007), there were accusations of the concentration of developmental projects in his Bokkos local government area of origin. In fact, besides the contracts awarded to his cronies and the road networks, etc. which appeared to be constructed with mainly the comfort of his allies in consideration, the Plateau State University is to date also situated in Bokkos local

government area. With the election of Governor Jang, the university was temporarily shut down. Critics reasoned that this action reflected political undertones and raised fears that it was going to be scrapped because the governor also directed that all the bona fide students of the state university be absorbed into the University of Jos which is a federal government-owned institution in the state.

There were complaints of pronounced social exclusion of most of the other ethnic groups by the Jang-led administration. Jonah Jang was of Berom extract but from Jos South local government area, one of the four local government areas with the Berom as the dominant indigenous ethnic group. He was the first Berom governor ever in the history of Plateau state and his rule was viewed by most Berom as a payback for the years that the ethnic group had suffered extreme political relegation despite playing hosts to the political, administrative and traditional seats of power in the state. His administration was fraught with complaints of attempts at instituting tribal/ethnic supremacy of the Berom over other ethnic groups thereby breeding ethnic disharmony even between them and other ethnic groups including the Christian dominated ones. The attacks by the Fulani herdsmen and the Hausa-Fulani groups were also described as targeted at the overwhelming extent of the social exclusion particularly with the imposition of his blood relatives (both brothers), as the Gbong Gwom Jos (Jacob Gyang Buba) and the Jos North local government area chairman (Timothy Buba) respectively. The latter action was a major reason for the 2008 crises in the state that resulted in a bloodbath in which several lives and property were lost (BBC News, 2008; Rice, 2008; HRW, 2013).

Brazen acts of nepotism, god-fatherism, etc. such as described above were described by 11.2% of the respondents as greatly affecting their work in the civil service. Some of them described it as a situation in which certain offices in the civil service were run as the private

property of certain individuals. Jonah Jang for instance, in the manner characteristic of most African leaders, appointed his first son as a commissioner in his cabinet. 6.6% of the respondents also decried the favouritism playing out as a result of these acts and the implications held for the merit principle thereby negatively affecting their zeal and commitment to work. These amongst other underlying issues like religious intolerance and differences were also described by 9.8% of the respondents as fanning the embers of tribalism and ethnic cleavages which were already cankerworms in the state politics. It also encouraged people from the 'sidelined' ethnic groups to develop stronger bonds among themselves in a bid to either cope or determine strategies for boosting the relevance of their indigenous groups. The extent to which these cleavages were prominent as noted by 4.6% of the respondents, was reflected by actions like the use of the vernacular in the workplace, the convening of ethnic group meetings in the workplace, and so on.

Bribery and corruption were listed by 8.6% of the respondents as contributing to the inability of the civil service to perform optimally. This was described severally as including acts of forgery, diversion of funds, and so on occasioned by the prevailing socio-economic situation in the country, pressures brought on the civil servants by the quota system, community interests, family groups, etc. to meet pressing needs. 2.3% of the respondents even attributed some of the cases of corruption and the diversion of funds to the obnoxious pressures arising from high bride prices and the cost of traditional marriages and weddings of the children and wards of the civil servants. Other vices listed by 17.8% of the respondents as prevalent in the socio-culture of the Plateau state civil service employees included pilfering, indiscipline and irresponsibility, absenteeism, dishonesty, drunkenness, filthiness, habitual lateness to work, working half days for inconsequential or no reasons at all, rumor mongering, attending private, community or other

ceremonies to the detriment of their work, moonlighting that entails engaging in other profit-oriented socio-economic activities that do not relate to their jobs with the civil service, and so on. With regard to other cultural values into which individuals are socialized, 3.9% of the respondents decried the cultural norm that upheld the notion of men as breadwinners. Religion and other related practices were also highlighted by 22.4% of the respondents as affecting the attitude of some colleagues to work. In summary, they stated that the practice of witchcraft, juju, idol worship, traditional rites and other forms of traditional religious worship were a dominant and potent feature of the socio-culture of virtually all the ethnic groups whose influence in the civil service needed to be checkmated.

Schein (1965) had described individuals as complex and different from one another and that this characteristic is reflected even in their work places. He explained the reactions of an individual to situations within the organization as filtered through his prior perceptions acquired through the attitudes, beliefs, norms and values into which he had been socialized in the non-work settings external to the organization. The discourse on the influence of the society and culture on the behaviour and mannerisms of the administrator as an individual was also contributed to by several comparative public administration scholars like Gaus (1947), Dahl (1947), Riggs (1961), Heady (1966) and a host of others.

Shepard and Hougland (1978) in describing their 'complex organization' perspective explained that individual response to a given structural arrangement varies according to the appropriateness of that arrangement. This position was supported by a research finding which indicated that responses to organizational structure and processes (including job design) vary by or are contingent on individual characteristics (Nemiroff and Ford, 1977). The findings also showed that individuals have different characteristics and orientations acquired before joining

the organizations and so tend to respond favourably to aspects of the job or organization that have a degree of 'fit' or compatibility with them. This view might suffice in explaining the influence of the public administrative ecology on employees' actions and interactions with the values of the Plateau state civil service. They concluded with the observation that contingency perspectives have provided valuable additions to organizational theory by considering a number of individual, organizational and environmental variables though these have not been thoroughly integrated. Their suggestions were that such integration be enhanced by considering the possibility of change in the individual's orientation over time and the effects of organizational and environmental contexts on the moderating effects of individual differences (Shepard and Hougland, 1978). In line with this view, Katz (1964) argued that to avoid incompatibility and achieve 'fit', an organization should integrate an attractive model of its ideals with the personal values of its members in its socialization process.

6.2.3 Will checkmating the factors extraneous to the individual and the immediate workplace environment but inherent in the workers socio-cultural environments significantly influence their output quality?

The objective of reforms in any public service is to get it to function as efficiently and effectively as possible. The reform process must always be such that aims at building a public service that is performance and result-oriented, customer driven, investor friendly, professional, technologically sensitive, accountable, fostering partnerships with all stakeholders and committed to a continuous improvement in government business and the enhancement of overall national productivity (Ikeliwu, 2011).

The civil service in Nigeria has undergone a series of reforms since its inception during the colonial era but to date it has not been able to perform up to the standards expected of it (Ikoiwak and Nze, 1989; Olaopa, 2012). There have been at least fourteen notable reforms of the civil service under commissions headed by non-Nigerians and Nigerians alike. However, the bulk of these reports focused more on salaries, wages and conditions of service than on the more fundamental, structural and attitudinal challenges of the civil service (Salisu, 2001). This research also highlights this gap. Its focus is on effecting positive attitudinal changes in the employees from the perspective of taking into cognizance, the influence of their outside-work-environments and the non-administrative criteria inherent within Nigeria's public administrative ecology.

Hypothesis four was tested to determine the extent to which the efficacy of the administrative reforms in engendering bureaucratic efficiency and effectiveness and influencing output quality in the Plateau State Civil Service can be enhanced by taking cognizance of the non-administrative criteria present in the workers socio-cultural environment. The results showed a strong correlation significant at the 0.01 level, between the administrative and non-administrative criteria implying that there is a significant and positive relationship between both variables and the employee motivators, $r(343) = .299, p < .05$. In essence, both influence employee motivation in one way or the other and so reforms will be more strategic if they always reflect a combination of both factors. However, the non-administrative criteria were more strongly associated with employee motivation and work performance ($M = 163.37, SD = 25.42$) than the administrative criteria ($M = 32.40, SD = 6.10$). On the interview schedule also, Questions 9 and 37 allowed for the brief evaluation of previous reforms and for suggestions to be made in respect of what subsequent reforms should take into consideration or be comprised of.

For Question 9, respondents were asked to suggest reasons why the goals of the civil service have remained unattainable despite numerous reform efforts. In the majority was 24.3% with the position that the reforms have over the years remained substandard and a great departure from the realities on ground in terms of the human, institutional, infrastructural, cultural, etc. facilities and logistics available for handling the process from the formulation to the implementation stage. The question was one which seemed to hit most of the civil servants at their sore spots especially those on Grade Levels 14-16, who had a lot to say and whose views are quoted here. It is noteworthy that only the male staff felt free enough to open up on the issues but refused to have the interviews recorded. For others, the recording had to be halted midway and the interviews finished by handwritten notes in order to make them more comfortable and willing to express themselves. Most of the female respondents replied blandly that more could be done to enhance the quality of reforms.

TABLE 6.1: Responses on Substandard Reforms (Question 9)

Respondents Gender and Years of Service (Names are not included for confidentiality purposes)	Responses on Problems of Reforms as per Substandard Reforms
Respondent 1 Years of service: 26-30 Gender: Male	<i>'Reforms? Hmmm...the problem is that there is a lot of eye-service in the civil service. People think of themselves first. Even if they formulate good policies, they may not be implemented or properly implemented because it may close the 'tap' and affect the goodies that they are enjoying from the rot in this system.'</i>
Respondent 1 Years of service: 26-30 Gender: Male	<i>'...what reforms? Are those reforms? Something that a few people will sit down and call their friends together to come and chop money, people that do not know what is happening in the civil service in general not to talk of in the states? Whatever they do is for themselves not us here because after everything, we are still sidelined.' This commentary was also a pointer to the effect of</i>

	<i>corrupt practices on the quality of our policies, strategies and reforms.</i>
Respondent 1 Years of service: 21-25 Gender: Male	<i>'...most of the people formulating the reforms are square pegs in round holes...at this rate, we will not get anywhere'.</i>
Respondent 1 Years of service: 26-30 Gender: Male	<i>'...those asked to formulate the reform policies are not professional bureaucrats. They have no idea what the civil service rules say not to talk of how to apply them, yet they call themselves technocrats. That is why the bulky papers will continue to sit on the shelves and gather dust'.</i>
Respondent 1 Years of service: 26-30 Gender: Male	<i>'...what is obtainable in practice is a far cry from what is designed as policies. They only know how to copy, copy and copy from what the developed countries are doing. In reality, those things hardly work for us because our country is different...they call it developing or whatever. Nobody comes around to interview the staffs who are on ground on the job. Nobody makes any findings on what is actually happening currently, that is, the current happenings. Nobody asks us for ideas so we have adopted the "siddon look" approach. Anyhow the government lays her bed is how she will lie on it'.</i>
Respondent 1 Years of service: 21-25 Gender: Male	<i>'the world is a global village now, so for Nigeria to be able to get functional reform policies to move her civil service forward, the government must be ready to hear from the grassroots both within and outside the civil service because everybody matters. After all, what matters to community A may not even concern B. Also, they too feel the weight when things don't go the way they should'.</i>
Respondent 1 Years of service: 26-30 Gender: Male	<i>'...how can a country that calls herself the Giant of Africa with her multicultural, multiethnic, multi-religious, multi-everything expect to have a set of reforms that is applicable across board for all the states? The world is constantly changing so Nigeria has to follow suit and change. Look at all the crises in Jos over the years yet</i>

	<i>some states do not even experience as little as a peaceful demonstration and the government expects the same laws to work for state A and state B...? We are watching’.</i>
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Source: Field Survey 2016 (Compiled by the author)

Some of these comments to the researcher, revealed a deep-seated animosity on the part of some of the workers towards the authorities and the government. There were also several comments to the effect that a lot needed to be done about the reform process if quality reforms are to be churned out and goals achieved.

Ahmad (1970) asserted that contrary to the industrialized societies where the bureaucrats are tools for the advancement of the society, in the developing countries, they are the masters. Riggs (1961) in his Prismatic model, described situations as these as occurring within the ‘Sala’ administrative office where rationality is ignored, political policies are neither purpose-specific, clearly designed nor well-adjusted to the capabilities of the administrative system. Furthermore, the laws are not clearly interpreted or adapted to practical realities (Sharma, et al. 2011). This view agrees in part with Eisenstadt (1963) who assessed the administrative and bureaucratic structures of most developing countries as largely characterized by imitative rather than indigenous patterns of administration. As a result, what they are in form is derived from what is obtainable in the developed countries while the practical realities are a great departure from the ‘norm’.

Riggs (1980) further assessed the bureaucracy in the developing countries as contradictory in practice thereby promoting the formulation of public policies but blocking their implementation simply because their expediency interests clash with their programmatic goals. This leads to a ‘catch-22’ or double-bind situation in which the performance of their administrative functions is restricted to the corrective actions not being against themselves or

challenging their abuse of power. Pye (1965) in his review of Riggs work stated that within transitional societies, people carry on as they do because of the payoffs and not because of any lingering 'hold of tradition'. As such, much change cannot be expected in terms of 'development' and 'modernization' as long as people, who can do something about it, will be hurt more than helped by such 'development'. In essence, they carry out their administrative functions of policy formulation but the performance of their political functions is to the extent that they are not taking the corrective actions against themselves or challenging their abuse of power.

The next in line was staff irresponsibility at 16.2%. This was put down to lack of commitment, ineptitude, carelessness on the job, lack of adequate training and supervision, overall slothfulness, and so on. This can easily be described by Taylor (1911) as a function of the 'systematic soldiering phenomenon' which he explained as practiced by workmen to keep the supervisor's expectation of work performance at lower levels. Taylor suggested that the remedy for this malaise lay in the application of scientific techniques including functional foremanship where the worker has at least eight specialized supervisors to whom he is accountable as against a system of single foremanship.

Though third in line with 13.5%, insufficient pay came up again as one of the factors in reform failures. All of the respondents who mooted this point explained that they were unpaid (a backlog of salaries for about eight months was pending at the time), underpaid (in comparison with the inflation rates and cost of living) and so under-motivated. They explained that it was going to be an uphill task to secure staff commitment to efficiency and effectiveness in the circumstance. A female staff on Grade Level 10 explained it figuratively, '*...if the legs are weak, no matter how fast the upper body thinks it can run, it will not go anywhere*'. As such, the

relevance of pay to the workers cannot be over-emphasized especially in a society like Nigeria where poverty is endemic and nothing appears to be done to change the situation and improve the collective socio-economic status of the workers. Taylor, Weber and Simon's 'economic man' therefore suffices as a good explanation for the emphasis on pay by the average worker in prismatic societies like Nigeria.

Corruption came in fourth with 10.8%. It was assessed as the bottom-line of all of the problems of not just the Plateau state civil service but also Nigeria in general. Corruption in Nigeria has been described by innumerable scholars as endemic and as eating deep into the nation's fabric. Riggs (1961) described it as encompassing unofficial income which constitutes an economic consideration capable of interfering with goal attainment by diverting officials from the use of their labour to accomplish the organization's presumed policies. A respondent, in attempting to bring home the extent to which this fact is unassailable, provided a comprehensive insight. He summed it up by saying, '*...the underlying, overlying and most intricate problem of the civil service is corruption because it is reflected in everything that is a problem of the service whether in the use of non-professionals for the reform process in order to give friends something to do, non-payment of salaries and allowances as due, staff using official hours for personal business, favouring colleagues from the same ethnic group, sexual harassment, not sending staff on training and self-development courses, not spending the allocated funds for office infrastructure, promoting or employing the wrong people, etc...*'

Inadequately trained staff with an 8.1% rating was also listed among the problems of the reforms. The respondents who raised this point claimed that increasingly, most employments of the staff in the Plateau state civil service did not take the needs of the civil service into consideration and this was detrimental to the quality of administration. Some of those employed

did not have the requisite qualifications for the offices they were expected to man. This fact is made worse by the lack of training or any other form of staff development to align the staff with the goals of the civil service. As a consequence, the staff are unable to understand and effectively implement the reform provisions. This problem can be understood as a function of Riggs attainment criterion which lies between the 'ascriptive' and the achievement criteria. It explains formalism and the procedures for the evaluation of indeterminate qualities through prescribed examinations sometimes on processes that are not clearly defined. In this case, individuals attain positions for which they may be unqualified but are bestowed because of success in the examinations (Riggs, 1961).

Riggs (1961) in describing the attainment criterion explained that most of the staff have acquired knowledge or possess degrees in studies which have no direct bearing to their future careers. Many staff have acquired knowledge or degrees in disciplines which have no direct bearing to their future careers in the civil service. This is occasioned by the levels of poverty and unemployment in the country that have resulted in a rising desperation that makes people want to settle for just any job to make ends meet. Many times they get employed on jobs in which they have absolutely no zeal, training, qualifications or experience thereby jeopardizing the stability and productivity of the organization. This is against the principles of the achievement criterion which relies on an individual's capacity and ability to achieve the goals set (Riggs, 1961).

A respondent further explained that the expectation is that these individuals will learn on the job like bankers who are sent on intensive training programmes in the banks training schools. However, the scenario is different in that the civil servants these days hardly go for training and staff development programmes and as such, the on-the-job experiences are inadequate to ensure that they become seasoned administrators, very versed in the conduct of government business.

The boomerang effect of this can be felt in the quality of decisions, reforms and strategies churned out which have no technocratic or specialized contents because the ‘administrators’ saddled with the responsibilities of policy formulation are not seasoned. Sadly, this has been the case with Nigeria’s civil service and has reverberated throughout the civil services in the states.

Other reasons given for the failure of the reforms were lack of infrastructure, lack of motivation, poor conditions of service, lack of policy continuity and the docility of management with a 5.4% rating each. The poor conditions of service and lack of motivation were assessed by the respondents as extensions of the problems of insufficient pay and the lack of training. The docility of management was blamed for the apparent lack of direction, the infrastructural and institutional decay and the failure to ensure effective human capital management. A respondent in the 26-30 years of service bracket described the lack of policy continuity as a major hindrance to the effective reformation of the civil service. He explained it as, ‘...coming in different forms engendered by political instability, cliques and sycophancy especially when there is a change of government either at the state or federal levels. The new government always brings in new sets of people and ideas.....everyone wants to impress the government that employs him and immediately discards the policies on ground even if they are very workable...it is sad because a lot of money just gets wasted, yet no real change...’ Peters (1984) explained that political instability and the lack of policy continuity are prevalent and arise from frequent changes in government and a dearth of patriotism, national loyalty and commitment. These sentiments against the government or her representatives are strengthened by the perceived inability of the reforms to elicit tangible change and progress that the workers can identify with.

The responses to Question 37 on other factors to be taken into consideration in boosting staff commitment to the goals of the Plateau State civil service had non-administrative and administrative characteristics with the latter closely mirroring the responses obtained in Question 9 above on the hindrances to effective reforms. Again, payment of salaries topped the list at 35.0% followed by the payment of bonuses and incentives with 17.5%. Eschewing corruption and better work environment in terms of logistics and infrastructure were each suggested by 12.5% of the respondents. 10.0% of the respondents touted the need for effective motivation, 7.5% for staff development while strict supervision and inadequate staffing each had a 2.5% response rating each. On the issue of strict supervision, staff claimed that the oversight functions both by the civil service commission and by immediate individual supervisors needed to be stepped up to prevent staff 'misbehaving' on duty. Cases of inadequate staffing were however few and far between, limited to particular units or departments that required particular skills and technical knowhow. The efficacy of pay, bonuses and incentives as motivators cannot be underscored in the face of the priority given to them by the respondents at every opportune instance. The respondents explained that ascribing this level of importance to monetary rewards is inevitable in the light of the personal and other responsibilities they have to shoulder, crushing poverty, unemployment, rising inflation, and other maladies which pervade the society.

Corruption is another recurring decimal which has eaten so deep into the fabric of the nation and today constitutes a very integral part of the socio-culture. So much has been said both nationally and internationally about the level of corruption in Nigeria yet only so little is really done to curtail its menace. Obi (2008) lamented the effects of corruption in Nigeria noting that it is reflected in how those entrusted with husbanding the country's resources steal it blind; how law enforcement officers turn the other way when offered a little inducement; how organized

labour, including university lecturers, go on prolonged strikes on a whim; how students resort to cultism and examination malpractices, and how workers drag their feet, refuse to put in their best and engage in moonlighting and other secondary jobs or activities other than that for which an individual is known. Incidentally, it is a fact which a 95.2% majority of the respondents acknowledged in answer to Question 4, as a dominant trend amongst their colleagues that is a result of the insufficiency and prolonged delays of payment associated with the staff salaries, etc. A respondent even stated that colleagues were increasingly more committed to their personal businesses which appeared to hold more promise, than they were to their jobs with the civil service. This further implies dire consequences for the future of the civil service as the government's machinery for the formulation and implementation of developmental policies and programmes.

Nigeria under the last administration led by Dr. Goodluck Ebele Jonathan is a case in point in understanding how individuals loot the nation's treasury blind. The latest most notable of the stranglehold of cabals on the developmental policies of government is the recently uncovered 'Dasukigate'. It involved the overwhelming embezzlement of public funds perpetrated through the office of his National Security Adviser and other cronies in the much-publicized \$2.1 billion US Dollar arms deal. These funds meant to be utilized to purchase arms for prospecting the war on terror and to counter the insurgency led by the dreaded Boko Haram group in Nigeria's North-East region is unfortunately alleged to have become largesse for personal aggrandizement in the hands of a select few. Also, many of Nigeria's oil wells are the private property of individuals. As a result, the income generated from these wells goes to the purses of these individuals while a considerable percentage of Nigerians wallow in abject poverty with about 100 million Nigerians living below poverty line (Nwabughio, 2015). This

is asides the fact that the economy of the nation has taken a downturn with glaring threats of recession (Eze-Kanu, 2016).

6.3 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Several respondents suggested that improving the ‘administrative criteria’ within the immediate-work-environment will to a large extent positively impact on the influence of most of the non-administrative criteria on their output. Jucius (1979) in his analysis evaluated motivation as entailing the weighing of situations to determine the needs of the workers and possible motivators. He went further to state that motivation can be best achieved through designing a set of motivators, selecting and applying the motivators as required and as target-specific as possible and finally determining the effectiveness of each motivator based on the quality of feedback. The approach of Jucius (1979) to motivation is more encompassing than most views on motivation. It does not necessarily take for granted that specific motivators including those listed within the content and process motivation theories will suffice in motivating workers. Neither does he see the motivators as a one-stop solution to enhancing the efforts of employees. Rather, he suggested the evaluation of situations, employee needs and possible motivators before a set of motivators can be designed as well as ensuring quality feedback in order to enable the determination of the level of effectiveness of the motivators.

Working in an organization entails a process that borders on human behaviour which includes decision-making as to what works and what should or should not constitute a part of the activities in the organization. To this end, ensuring that the average administrator-cum-decision-maker is equipped to rise above distractive indices in the conduct of this responsibility is a major step in the right direction. Esman in his criticism quoted by Peng (2008), stated that most

research within the ecological approach are based on intuition and '*a priori*' assumptions that point out behavioural limitations rather than emphasize problem-solving. Riggs may have focused more on behavioural limitations than on problem solving in his discourse, however, his exposition has shed light on numerous influences on behaviour which if checkmated can bring about the desired behaviour among employees in organizations including the Plateau state civil service.

Negandhi and Reimann (1972) noted that cross-cultural studies on contingency theory had been conducted by Meade (1967), Meade and Whittaker (1967), Harbison and Myers (1959), etc. with focus on India. Their findings had proved that the socio-cultural variables exert considerable influence on the organizational structure of industries in developing countries with threats to their effectiveness heightened by their being operated as decentralized structures. They stressed that the difficulty in operationalizing the socio-cultural environmental variables and contextualizing their impact on organizations narrowed the focus of their studies to the impact of decentralization on organizational effectiveness of firms thereby leaving gaps in contingency research with regard to the impact of socio-cultural factors on organizations (Negandhi and Reimann, 1972).

The inability of scholars to adequately conceptualise and operationalise the environmental variables impinging on the performance of workers in organizations may also be responsible for the failures of the Udoji Civil Service Reform Commission of 1972 to proffer remedies in that light. The commission had successfully pointed out that environmental and cultural factors affected the public sector workers productivity but its recommendations were only limited to improved salaries and staff training and development. By evaluating the non-administrative criteria which Riggs (1961) described as existing in the public administrative

ecologies of prismatic (transitional) societies, this research has further given verve to the position that the influence of the environmental factors on organizational behavior cannot be understated. These were listed by contingency scholars like Duncan (1972), Hall (1972), Kast and Rosenzweig (1974), Neghandi (1975) and Luthans and Stewart (1977) as encompassing the cultural, technological, social, demographic, legal, economic, political and ecological. In this instance, the research questions, hypotheses and objectives entailed evaluating certain socio-cultural factors deemed prevalent in Nigeria's public administrative ecology and responsible for the manifest inability of the country to move from its status as a developing country over the years. Many of the factors were assessed to determine the extent of their impact on one key administrative concept, 'employee motivation', without which many organizations will be unable to achieve the goals of efficiency and effectiveness in service delivery.

The findings revealed that these factors as encapsulated by Riggs in his non-administrative criteria greatly influenced the employees. There were affirmations to the effect that some of the actions and interactions of the Plateau State civil service employees within their immediate-work-environment were to a large extent contingent on variables inherent in their outside-work-environments. Riggs had described the prismatic society as having three basic features - heterogeneity, formalism and overlapping - which may vary depending on the prismatic societies in question. Though no comparison was made between Nigeria and any other prismatic society in the instant research, Riggs' position was reflected in the findings which revealed that there were indeed factors inherent in Nigeria's public administrative ecology that should be reckoned with in the determination or design of administrative matters. The findings upheld the views of Dahl (1947), Gaus (1947), Riggs (1961), Singh (1983), Ramesh and Augusto (1984), Sharma et al (2011), and a host of others, that administration is indeed culture-bound and

must be structured to reflect and fit into the ecology within which it is expected to function. They further proved that though the motivators proffered by the content and process motivation theories suffice to a large extent in explaining motivation in most organizations, they are not wholly tenable in describing employee motivation in the public administrative ecologies of prismatic societies.

This approach to problem-solving that entails the conceptualization of a perceived problem and the development of strategies and solutions based on the context of the problem is the mainstay of the contingency theory. On this basis, it queries the universal applicability of the principles of administration in the presence of various factors present in the diverse national ecologies of public administration and organizations.

CHAPTER SEVEN:

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.0 INTRODUCTION

The basis of contingency theory as upheld by Namboodiri, et al (1975) is, that the relationship between two variables has the capacity to predict the quality of a third variable. Though discounted by Schoonhoven (1981), that position can be likened to the instant research which is assuming that the relationship between the ecology of Nigeria's public administration and employee motivation has the capacity to predict the quality of a third variable, productivity. In this light, the research evaluated the role of the socio-cultural environmental contingency factors - Riggs (1961) 'non-administrative criteria' inclusive - in the motivation of public sector employees in prismatic societies. Deriving from these, measures that should contribute to the content of public service administrative reforms and employee motivation strategies were developed. By this, further research into the applicability of 'best practices' in policy making and implementation in all sectors of the economies of developing countries like Nigeria, is encouraged.

7.1 SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS

The research participants were comprised of staff drawn from across the Grade Levels 6 to 16 thereby representing the lower middle, middle and upper middle classes of bureaucrats in the Plateau state civil service. In the process of collating the data for analyses, it was realized that the majority of the questionnaire respondents were those in the group of staff who had spent a minimum of 21 to 25 years on the job. For the interviews also, the majority of the respondents had spent 26 to 30 years while the second majority was comprised of those who had spent 21 to

25 years. Besides the plus which this information adds to the quality of data collected with the implication being that the respondents can be described as appreciably knowledgeable or familiar with the subject matter, it also serves to further enhance the extent of validity of the data collected.

The following are the findings derived from the analyses of data collected via the questionnaire and interview schedules and interpreted in Chapter Six:

- The study provided an insight into the dominant factors responsible for Nigeria's inability to attain expected levels of development despite a series of reforms and national development plans.
- The administrative and non-administrative criteria have become so intertwined because of their interactions and interrelationship overtime to the extent that according each a separate identity poses a difficulty.
- The influence of environmental factors on organizational behaviour cannot be underscored. Certain factors that exist within the socio-cultural environment prove that Nigeria is a country undergoing a social transformation process. These factors have developed a degree of potency over the years that qualifies them as latent factors whose impact on the lives of her public service employees manifest in the dysfunctional qualities inherent within her public sector. Based on this premise, it is deducible that the ecology of Nigeria's public administration is an influence on employee motivation in the Plateau State civil service.
- The characteristics of a prismatic society like Nigeria after the colonial era do not uphold the separation of politics from administration like those of the developed countries which Ahmad (1970) noted as emphasizing bureaucrat-focused reforms, training, checks on

maladministration, etc. He further stressed that for such measures as are upheld in the developed countries to prove effective in developing countries, their politics must be reformed. This advice will go a long way in appreciating and ameliorating the Nigerian situation.

- As upheld by comparative public administration scholars like Dahl (1947), Gaus (1947), Riggs (1961), Singh (1983), Ramesh and Augusto (1984), Sharma et al (2011), and a host of others, administration is indeed culture-bound. It must therefore be structured to reflect and fit into the ecology within which it is expected to function.
- For a multiethnic, multicultural society like Nigeria, the non-administrative criteria listed by Riggs (1961) to encompass the social, political, economic, etc. should also be expanded to take cognizance of the religious criteria since items like witchcraft and other traditional practices were raised by respondents as affecting their commitment to work.
- Though the motivators proffered by the content and process motivation theories suffice to a large extent in explaining motivation in most organizations, they are not wholly tenable in describing employee motivation in the public administrative ecologies of prismatic societies.

7.2 CONCLUSION

The instant research has addressed certain gaps by going beyond the environmental factors listed by the contingency theorists and the divergent views on motivators listed by the content and process motivation theories which focus mainly on scenarios that tend to occur more within the employees immediate-work-environment. The findings from the data analyzed strongly indicate the presence of anomalies within Nigeria's public administrative ecology that

have the capacity to impinge on the ability of her public administration to play its part in the achievement of both organizational and national development goals. The findings also prove that the Nigerian civil service is in bad shape as a result of numerous causal factors that have affected it over the years. The thrust of this research hinged on the broadening of the factors to accommodate those extraneous factors that directly rub off on her employees who are the engine-room without whom the wheels of progress of Nigeria's public administration may be unable to turn.

Waldo (1948) in his work, 'The Administrative state', attacked the notion of unchanging principles of administration noting that cultural factors could make public administration on one part of the globe quite a different animal from public administration on the other part. Heady (1966) also argued along the same lines as Dahl (1947) and Waldo (1948) noting that the existing administrative systems, models, doctrines and practices can be enhanced to ensure quality and wholesome applicability if they can be restructured to accommodate the dynamics of the various socio-cultural settings within which they may be expected to operate, the impact of globalization, etc. Furthermore, that '...the comparative perspective will become more prominent, enriching general public administration by widening the horizon of interest in such a way that an understanding of one's own national system of administration will be enhanced by placing it in a cross-cultural setting'.

These views exhibit cognizance of the fact that cultures and practices form an integral part and directly or indirectly affect the ecology and quality of public administration. It is noteworthy also that the public administrative ecologies of the developing 'imitating' nations are lacking in the human, material and institutional capacity to actually replicate or implement the ideas. Besides this, other maladies tug at the core of the public administrations of developing

societies further frustrating the attempts towards making meaningful advancements. These maladies for most pundits (Riggs, 1961; Sharkansky, 1978; Hota, 1984) and analysts (Amuwo, 1996; Mukoro, 2005) derive their source from and are draped in the garb of corruption, an overriding malady which bears administrative and non-administrative colourations and influences both.

Juxtaposing some of the inherent cultures and workplace patterns of a developing nation like Nigeria with the provisions of the theories may beg slight modifications that hopefully, will further enhance the quality of integration of the workforce with workplace dynamics. In the same manner the ‘principles of administration’ were castigated for failing in universal applicability, so do the findings of this research provide a basis for a limitation of the extent to which the major organizational motivation theories can be applied to motivation within the region. This conclusion further upholds the basic tenets of the contingency theory on the fact that there can be no ‘one-best-way’ in administration.

7.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

In determining the appropriate steps to take in enhancing the quality and checkmating the influence of the outside-work-environment in which the average Nigerian public sector worker is expected to function, the strategies must be contextually derived. They must take cognizance of the factors already militating against the progress of the public sector organizations. An economist, Vera Songwe, noted that every African country must determine measures that reflect its own characteristics in developing a way out of the quagmire of corruption and bad governance (Sandner, 2016).

Corruption is blamed as the main endemic and underlying cause of the failures of leadership and bad governance in African nations which incidentally make up the majority of the lists drawn up by Transparency International (2015), a global anti-corruption watchdog. The recent actions taken by Tanzania's President John Magufuli in confronting the monster of corruption headlong should serve as a beacon of light to his counterparts in the other corruption-riddled African nations. He is currently following up on his campaign promises and has made a very visible mark in this fight in just 100 days in office. He has cut costs through curtailing frivolous expenses on trips by government officials, unnecessary celebrations, cutting down his cabinet size, etc. thereby reducing public expenditure as well as rebuilding the trust and confidence of the Western world in investing in the Tanzanian economy (Muvunyi, 2016). In fact in following President Magufuli's footsteps, the Ghanaian government has also banned its ministers from flying first class (Sandner, 2016). President Magufuli's anti-corruption drive has led to the suspension, sack and institution of administrative actions against incompetent and corrupt officials and public servants in order to put public offices in order and restore discipline and ethics in public administration (Tanzania Daily News, 2016).

A strategy adopted in the Gambia, another African country, that is resplendent of the government's efforts to take cognizance of its socio-culture in developing strategies for boosting public sector output, is the extension of the Saturday and Sunday weekends to weekends that begin on Fridays. The President at the time, Yahya Jammeh, explained that this was to enable the public sectors workers 'devote more time to prayers, social activities and agriculture-going back to the land and grow what we eat and eat what we grow, for a healthy and wealthy nation' (BBC News, 2013). Much as this move was denounced by critics because of the implications it has for

the economy, there is no denying the fact that it stems from an evaluation of socio-cultural values which are held dear.

Another ingenious strategy this time by the incumbent Governor Samuel Ortom of Benue state, Nigeria, is the declaration of the Fridays from the 10th of June, 2016 to the end of July, 2016, work-free days to enable public servants work on their farms. The move according to him is necessary ‘to enable as many workers as possible to produce food to feed their families in the current economic downturn which has made the regular payment of salaries a major challenge’ (Premiumtimes, 2016). In this action and the reason proffered, several socio-cultural factors highlighted in the findings are encapsulated. It raises the point that the regular payment of staff salaries is a major headache in the public sector. It also points to the unstable economic situation, poverty, etc. that public sector workers and the nation in general grapple with. Also, it buttresses the fact that the staff have had to engage in other activities to keep body and soul together though in this case, they have received an administrative fiat that takes away its definition as a clandestine action. However, the trend is bound to continue when the time legitimately allowed elapses except there is a miraculous turnaround of the socio-economic, etc. situation of the country.

From the findings of the research and the conclusions drawn, a multi-faceted approach is adopted in proffering the recommendations. It considered the responsibilities of the major stakeholders in the conduct of government business towards tackling the compendium of factors hampering employee motivation in the Plateau state civil service.

7.3.1 For the Nigerian Government:

1 The administrative reforms must derive from indigenous content and be considerate of the socio-cultural values that thrive in the society and determine the character of the individual. Institutions like the criminal justice system must be strengthened to boost the confidence of both national and international investors in the stability of the economy and the security of their funds. The focus of the Buhari administration should be extended to the plugging of other loopholes to check corruption instead of centering only on investigations into past excesses in exercises that come across to the public as vendetta against perceived foes. Oil wells that have been domiciled in private coffers should be reverted to government ownership to challenge the trend of ‘conspicuous consumption’ (Veblen, 1899) that benefits a few to the detriment of the majority of the population and stalls the economy. Reforms must therefore be constantly forward-looking and not only dependent on outdated procedures to ensure that new laws reflecting contemporary practice and exigencies are instituted.

2 The Nigerian government must look inward to reinvigorate the ailing civil service by developing target specific home-grown strategies reflective of Nigeria’s status as a society undergoing a process of social transformation. There must be a departure from the practice of theorizing and adopting utopian strategies which do not capture the realities on ground. The fallout of this has been a loss of fluidity in the running of the civil service as the administrative reforms have ended up as impracticable square pegs in round holes, unable to achieve a harmonious dovetail of their noble objectives with the human, material and infrastructural logistics on ground. The contingency theorists describe this as a process concerned with achieving harmony or ‘fits’ between organizations and their environments. The design of the company is tailored to accommodate the sources of environmental

uncertainties faced by the organization so that the organization is able to handle the uncertainties effectively and efficiently;

- 3 By drawing from the wealth of experience of its seasoned administrators and professionals within the service, there should be a SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats) analysis that takes cognizance of the on-the-spot observations of the immediate staff of the civil service across board. This analysis should not be left in the hands of ‘technocrats’ and ‘consultants’ who are external to the service and have no inkling of what the actual running of the civil service entails;
- 4 Effective capacity-building, policy monitoring, evaluation and project management schedules must be strategically developed to guide the tact teams put together to oversee the reform process from the formulation to the implementation and feedback stages. The cycle of non- or partial implementation of reform recommendations must be ended so that the reform processes cease to be seen as a gimmick or exercise in futility by the civil servants. The policy processes must be put through rigorous evaluations from inception to conclusion and attention paid to its most minute aspects and components. Besides the cost of the processes in terms of man and material, this will enhance the faith of the civil servants in the reforms as actually intended for the betterment of their careers within the system.
- 5 The ‘revalidation’ of the pay package of the Nigerian workers to reflect the prevailing economic circumstances, ensure better standards of living and the fulfilment of responsibilities, and encourage greater commitment to work without the distractions that engaging in other income-generating activities can bring. The research findings showed that good pay and income is an integral part of the motivation of the civil servants. As such, staff pay must reflect the ever-increasing costs of living so that they are not enticed by corrupt

practices in any form. Also whatever staff welfare and development packages are accruable to any staff must be made available and accessible as when due;

- 6 There is a need for a career-based bureaucracy that negates the 'importance' of political spoils as described by Mukoro (2005), Amuwo (1996) and Riggs (1961). Public office should be made as unattractive as possible to discourage the notion that it is a means of aggrandizement and poverty alleviation. This way, family, friends, community and other primary groups will be discouraged from putting undue pressure on the public servant through bogus expectations. Public servants and government officials must be barred from frivolities like sending their wards and children abroad to school or from seeking medical attention abroad. This will encourage a commitment to the provision of facilities and giving the available one the necessary boost to meet the needs of the society. This should take the form of the re-professionalization of the public administration such that the political, bureaucratic and traditional elite groups are clearly separated and their roles properly delineated within the country.

There should be an overhaul and amendment of the civil service rules and procedures to expunge the bad phrases, clauses and the attendant indiscipline and disregard for the codes of conduct. The individuals who constitute the old class of civil servants and can be described as cogs in the wheels of progress of the civil service should be phased out of the system while those who remain should not be treated as sacred cows. To make this effective, there must be an abrogation of Riggs' formalism where theory and practice are on parallel lines and those who run afoul of the regulations should be used as scapegoats to serve as a deterrent to others.

This practice of constitutionalism and adherence to the rule of law that is wholly and not selectively binding on all groups within society will diminish the potency of actions within the bureaucracy and other governmental establishments that come to be tainted by corruption, injustice, nepotism, etc. Checks in the form of effective legislation must be put in place to stem the tide of corrupt practices and indiscipline in whatever form they present. It will further enhance government's commitment to transparent, accountable leadership with the economic, social, political and cultural security of its citizens and sustainable development as its main focus.

Efforts at a nationwide socio-political education and reorientation may also be necessary to instil a sense of national loyalty and patriotism and change the general notion of public office as a means of aggrandisement;

- 7 There should be a good spread and better oversight of far-reaching developmental projects across the nation including to the hinterland to ensure social inclusion. This also takes the burden of developmental efforts off the hands of a select few who may take advantage of the failures of governance to score cheap political points or fan the embers of partisanship, sectarianism and other tensions arising from socio-political and ethno-religious cleavages;
- 8 The Social Movement theory describes the continuing presence of terrorism within the state as the response for confronting the unstructured situations which occur where there is a form of institutional or structural breakdown such as rapid social change, special events, disaster, etc. (Turner, 1983). In this case, the failure of the government to provide the amenities required for basic survival of citizens within the state has driven them to such vices as terrorist activities. Hence, the Nigerian government should as a major referent for security and counter terrorism, address the fundamental underlying causes of the malaise in the

society such as the thriving poverty, unemployment, illiteracy, unresolved tensions and conflicts, religious disharmony, insecurity, the depletion of cultural values, bad politicking (Tambuwal, 2016), social injustice and corruption that make Nigeria a fertile ground for terrorism.

- 9 The acts of terror perpetrated in Nigeria in general and Plateau state in particular by the Boko Haram and the Fulani herdsmen have laid waste to homes, market places, schools, worship centres and other places of interest. The government in response to this should engage in a sort of Post-terrorism Policy as a form of damage control, rehabilitation as well as for rebuilding the state. This strategy should include the reconstruction of homes, market places as well as the reconstruction and implementation of more potent reconciliation and peace building measures with regard to the Fulani pastoralist herdsmen and their host communities.

7.3.2 For the Plateau State Civil Service:

1. Corruption and other vices inherent within the service that challenge the merit principle must be tackled headlong with proper investigation and appropriate measures. The staff at all levels must be duly informed on the dire consequences of these actions and must be confident in the management's ability to ensure their well-being. The fate of staff should not be left to the whims and caprices of superiors. Errant staff must be made to bear the full consequence of their actions that will also serve as a deterrent to further occurrences.
2. Codes of conduct and standards for implementing and achieving professionalism in the service must be upheld. Tribalism or other activities that promote sectarianism in the service must be eschewed in order to achieve development that wears a human face, is all inclusive, harmonizes the groups in the society irrespective of ethnic grouping or other colourations and carries the entire state along.

7.3.3 For the academia:

1. The need for expert and informed development and recommendation of purpose-specific, home-grown strategies that are cognizant of indigenous content in every field of specialization to policy makers and implementers rather than the copycatting that has characterized our strategies from theory to practice. A Commentary quoted in Mngomezulu (2012) states that, ‘...it is the duty of any university community to study, carry out research, publish and propagate all possible aspects of African art, culture, history and other subjects in the humanities instead of leaving these to people from abroad...’ Many times, subjects considered indispensable in the academic curricula of foreign universities have little or no bearings to the immediate needs of African societies (Mngomezulu, 2012).
2. A re-evaluation of the major motivation theories and other administrative principles to reflect the non-administrative social, economic, political, technological or cultural factors that abound in the Nigerian public sector workers environment with the capacity to affect productivity. The thorough integration of the individual, organizational and environmental variables, the underlying non-administrative criteria inclusive, will enhance the content and quality of personnel policies in both public and private sector organizations.
3. The assessment of the ecological factors as threats to the achievement of the sustainable development goals and human security in developing/prismatic societies.

7.3.4 For other stakeholders:

1. Immediate appropriate steps must be taken to identify and prosecute perpetrators of violence, in Jos and other parts of the country.

2. The traditional, religious and political elite at the local, state and federal levels must also consistently shun the ethno-religious sentiments and sectarianism that are the bane of most of the conflicts in order to reduce the dangerous link between ethnic belonging and the desire for access to resources, power and security if inter-communal violence is to end (Dakar, 2012).

7.5 CONTRIBUTIONS TO KNOWLEDGE

Based on the findings, the research has:

1. Highlighted the potency of Riggs' non-administrative criteria in determining administrative and organizational output by proving that some administrative principles may need to be reviewed to reflect global, human and social dynamics that challenge their universal applicability.
2. Shown that Riggs' Fused-Prismatic-Diffracted/Refracted Model, when put in the right perspective, suffices as a model or theory for the analysis of administrative phenomena. Peng's (2008) analysis of the model as 'abstract' may therefore have derived from his inability to adequately comprehend the potency of the non-administrative criteria described in Riggs' model as a result of their non-existence within the public administrative ecology to which he is accustomed.
3. Revealed gaps in the motivation and contingency theories in that they do not reckon with non-administrative criteria as phenomena on which organizational efficiency and administrative behaviour can be hinged.
4. Recognized the influence of the components of the ecology of public administration (economic, political, socio-cultural, etc. environments), which Riggs described as non-

administrative criteria on the public administrator in a developing country like Nigeria. These factors affect the mindset and attitude of the average public sector worker and in turn underlie his motivation, willingness or decision to work/exert effort or not. As a consequence, national development is threatened and the ability to achieve the minimum acceptable indices of development, compromised.

5. Shed light on some characteristics of Nigeria's public administrative ecology which future civil service administrative reform strategies should take into consideration in order to ensure target-specificity.

7.4 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Based on the findings of the instant research and the growing need to strengthen comparative analyses in public administration in the face of rapid globalization and societal dynamics, the following suggestions for further investigation have been made:

- **The conduct of a similar research on the effect of ecological factors on the employees of the public service of another developing/prismatic country:** This will enable a proper verification and improve the generalizability of the findings of this research particularly if many of the factors captured as non-administrative criteria exist in the developing country in question.
- **The conduct of an investigation into the impact of ecological factors on employee motivation in the private sector of a developing/prismatic country:** The instant research only took cognizance of the public sector in Nigeria in evaluating the influence of the public administrative ecology on employee motivation. This leaves a gap for imperative research into the possible influence of the ecology on the administrative

criteria in the private sector. Reasons for this abound because to begin with, the private sectors are domiciled within prismatic societies with their employees automatically exposed to likely socio-cultural variables. Also, the research is behavioural with concerns for the impact of external influences on behaviour patterns in organizations. Furthermore, the activities of organizations in the public and private sectors are performance-driven, tailored towards the ultimate goal of socio-economic development. Despite the formulation of optimum policies and target-oriented strategies, the actual implementation can only be engineered by the human capital in the organizations whether public or private. As a consequence, factors that pose a threat to the stability and output capacity of the human capital must be determined and effectively curtailed to ensure that to the best extent possible, they are not in any way encumbered in the discharge of their duties.

- **The identification and comparison of another administrative variable with ecological factors:** Riggs in his argument for ecological research in public administration stated that there must be the identification of critical variables and the demonstration of administrative items to enable the determination of plausible patterns of correlation. Further research in the field of comparative public administration should therefore stem from this premise.

7.5 CLOSING STATEMENT

Sichalwe (2010) noted that a theory may be utilized in a study with the objective of testing or verifying it rather than for developing it. In the case of this research, the utility of the theories served both purposes in that the findings both verified the positions of the theories and exposed areas through which they can be further developed.

The research was able to achieve its original purpose of evaluating the impact of ecological factors in the socio-cultural environment of Nigeria's public administration on employee motivation in the Plateau State civil service. The research findings proved that the motivators posited by the content and process theories are applicable and contribute to motivating the employees though aspects involving sufficient pay, bonuses and staff development have not been given priority by the government and the civil service top management. As per the core of the research, it also proved that the Plateau state civil service of today is affected by the effects of underlying non-administrative criteria that have evolved to assume administrative identities. This position resulted from the virtually nonexistent demarcation between the administrative and non-administrative components of prismatic societies like Nigeria.

Dahl (1947) suggested that '...the study of public administration must inevitably become a much more broadly based discipline, resting not on narrowly defined knowledge of techniques and processes, but rather extending to the varying historical, sociological, economic and other conditioning factors...' In the same vein, Riggs (1980) applied Maslow's position that "what an individual needs most may not be what every other person needs most" to administrative development. By this, he asserted that no particular need is universally uppermost in the minds of decision makers and as such, what is urgently needed in one society is not necessarily the same as what other societies need. Riggs further analyzed the environments of societies as undergoing constant processes of change which inadvertently affect their hierarchy of needs and the choices they make through their politico-administrative apparatuses.

Riggs also opined that the traditional principles of public administration which were tailored to meet the needs of the Western industrialized countries, notably the USA, within the

ecological parameters of their own environments, have limited relevance to the problems of most developing countries. As such, a practice deemed necessary and workable in a society at a given time may actually be unnecessary and unworkable in another society. His perspective gains more ground when juxtaposed with the positions of other scholars in the field of comparative public administration and with the propositions of the contingency theory on the fallacy of the 'one-best-way'. Riggs' (1961) position supports the notion of the instant research which holds that the content and process organizational motivation theories are not all-encompassing enough in explaining employee motivation since they do not adequately take cognizance of the phenomena which he classified as 'non-administrative criteria'. These criteria characteristic of prismatic societies like Nigeria, are capable of defining an individual's mental configuration and inadvertently, his capacity and output. The research findings further back the argument of Hambrick and Mason (1984) for a general 'upper echelons theory' beyond the contingency theory that emphasizes the influence of the values and perceptions of top managers on organizational strategy and effectiveness (Ginsberg and Venkatraman, 1985).

These stances emphasize the importance of developing home-grown administrative principles, policies and strategies that are cognizant of and largely adapted to our indigenous content. The most likely implication of this will be the ready checkmate of the norms of copycatting and importation of 'best practices' that pervade our system and for which we lack the requisite human, material, institutional and technological wherewithal.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A:

QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Respondent,

I am a PhD student of the School of Social Sciences, College of Humanities, University of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. I am researching into the assumption that apart from the usual tools of motivation like increased salaries, rewards, promotion, etc., other socio-cultural factors within Nigeria's public administrative environment possibly influence employee motivation in the Plateau State Civil Service.

The title of my research is, **'THE ECOLOGY OF NIGERIA'S PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION IN THE PLATEAU STATE CIVIL SERVICE (2004-2014)'**.

Your honest, sincere and prompt response will enable me achieve this and will be highly appreciated.

Please be informed that you have the right to participate, not to participate or to stop participating in the research.

I assure you that all information given here will be treated with utmost confidentiality.

Thank you very much for your kind cooperation.

Nanji R. Umoh (Mrs.)

Researcher.

SECTION A: BIODATA

1. Age: 18-25 Yrs () 26-35 Yrs () 36-45 Yrs () 46-55 Yrs () 56-65 Yrs () Above 65 Yrs ()
2. Sex: Male () Female ()
3. Local Government Area of Origin:
4. Tribe/Ethnic Group:
5. Ministry:
6. Grade Level: 6-9 () 10-13 () 14-17 ()
7. Years of Service: 1-5 () 6-10 () 11-15 () 16-20 () 21-25 () 26-30 () 30-35 ()
8. Educational Qualification: Primary () Secondary () Polytechnic () University () Others ()

QUESTIONNAIRE KEY: STRONGLY AGREE (SA), AGREE (A), NEUTRAL (N), DISAGREE (D), STRONGLY DISAGREE (SD)

SECTION B: TO CHECK THE EFFECTIVENESS OF MOTIVATORS POSITED BY THE CONTENT AND PROCESS ORGANIZATIONAL MOTIVATION THEORIES.

S/N	STATEMENTS	RESPONSES				
		SA	A	N	D	SD
1	My job pays well					
2	My pay enables me meet my basic needs of food, shelter, etc.					
3	My job affords me a good quality work life in terms of benefits, achievement, etc.					
4	Higher pay will make me put in more efforts and work better.					
5	A major advantage of my job is the job security that comes with it.					
6	The conditions of service in the civil service are favourable.					
7	My pay is good.					
8	My attitude to work is because I like my work environment.					
9	My work environment is cordial, not too officious and rigid.					
10	My work content, responsibilities and pay can be compared with what I know about private sector workers.					

11	My work gives me a sense of security about the future.					
12	I compare my responsibilities at work and my pay with those of others in similar organizations.					
13	Comparisons with others and my findings have encouraged my attachment to my present job.					
14	Apart from good pay, the work gives me self esteem.					
15	I love my job.					
16	Through my job, I can actualize my dreams of getting to the top and being the best I can in my career.					
17	I put in much effort at my work yet I do not appear to have much to show for it.					
18	My work is just okay, not fantastic but better than nothing.					
19	My work gives me a feeling of belongingness.					
20	I enjoy quality supervision and guidance from my superiors.					
21	My bosses and superiors treat me as one of their own.					
22	My relationship with fellow staff at all levels is cordial and gives me a feeling of having a family at work.					
23	My colleagues and I cover up for one another where possible to prevent trouble with our bosses and the authorities.					
24	My work affords me the kind of respect I desire from colleagues, friends and family.					
25	When I have more responsibilities I am motivated to work harder and do my best.					
26	The more challenging my job is in terms of innovativeness and ideas, the better I feel about my work.					
27	I get feedback from my superiors on the quality of my work and output.					
28	When a co-worker is reprimanded or punished for wrongdoing, I am discouraged from engaging in any form of misdemeanour.					
29	Awards and privileges for productivity extended to me or others motivate me to put in my best.					
30	The achievement of goals I set for myself gives me greater fulfillment than the achievement of the overall goals of the civil service.					
31	My job gives me a sense of fulfillment.					

SECTION C: TO CHECK THE INFLUENCE OF SOME ADMINISTRATIVE CRITERIA PRESENT WITHIN NIGERIA’S PUBLIC ADMINISTRATIVE ENVIRONMENT ON THE MOTIVATION OF EMPLOYEES OF THE PLATEAU STATE CIVIL SERVICE.

S/N	STATEMENTS	RESPONSES				
		SA	A	N	D	SD
1	Some of the policies and ideas implemented by the civil service are copied from the examples of more developed countries.					
2	Sometimes the civil service lacks the institutional and infrastructural capacity to implement the policies and ideas.					
3	The civil service/administrative reforms have significantly improved the way things are done and the output in the civil service.					
4	The civil service reforms over the years have helped improve the quality of my work.					
5	The offices have the necessary equipment to enable the civil servants function optimally and at their best.					
6	The facilities in the Plateau State Civil Service need an upgrade to more modern facilities.					
7	The civil service will do better if it is handled like the private sector in every respect.					
8	Some civil servants are nonchalant about their work with the civil service.					
9	Incidences of disciplinary actions and queries are not common in the Plateau State civil service.					
10	My salary and entitlements come as and when due.					
11	Promotions come as and when due.					
12	The introduction of pension fund administrators has reduced the sufferings of retirees.					

SECTION D: TO CHECK THE INFLUENCE OF THE NON-ADMINISTRATIVE CRITERIA PRESENT WITHIN THE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATIVE ENVIRONMENT ON THE MOTIVATION OF EMPLOYEES OF THE PLATEAU STATE CIVIL SERVICE.

S/N	STATEMENTS	RESPONSES				
		SA	A	N	D	SD
1	Avoiding poverty and socio-economic reasons like better meeting my needs, caring for dependants, etc., are some of the reasons why I decided to work and earn more.					
2	I am viewed differently and with more respect among my peers, friends, family and community members because I work with the civil service.					

3	Staying home to farm will equally have afforded me the necessary income to cater to my needs and responsibilities adequately.					
4	A good percentage of workers I know are also working and engaging in non-farming activities and jobs for the same reasons.					
5	My work content, responsibilities and pay can be compared with what is obtainable in the more developed countries.					
6	I am motivated to work as hard as I can because I am the breadwinner of my home.					
7	I have a lot of familial responsibilities despite not being the breadwinner of my home.					
8	I have other dependants apart from my nuclear family that I am responsible for.					
9	My extended family forms a major part of my schedule of financial responsibilities.					
10	Some community members who are not direct family members look up to me to help solve some of their financial problems.					
11	I am viewed differently by my friends, family and community members because I work for the government.					
12	The attitude of my family towards my job enhances my motivation to work.					
13	My community is not very developed.					
14	I am one of the most educated workers from my community.					
15	I am like the 'eye' of my community.					
16	I know of some individuals who are seen as the 'eyes' of their communities.					
17	People see the 'eyes' of the community as capable of bringing 'development' to their areas because they are educated and exposed.					
18	I am expected to do a lot for the members of my community because of my level of education and exposure.					
19	Engaging in politics and holding positions in government are seen primarily as for the betterment of a person, his immediate and extended family and his constituency than for the good of the nation.					
20	A woman/wife can be the breadwinner without being the head of the home.					
21	With exposure and education, cultures now see nothing wrong with the wife being the breadwinner of the home.					
22	In my community and culture, it is okay for the wife to be the head of the home because she is the breadwinner.					
23	Relationships between the older and young colleagues at					

	work are more of parent/child than superior and subordinates even where the older staff are subordinate to the younger ones.					
24	Loyalty to family, friends and community members can influence some administrative decisions taken by the civil servants within the civil service.					
25	Sometimes, cultural and traditional beliefs in an area can affect the decisions and actions taken in the Plateau State civil service.					
26	Some of the civil servants engage in 'juju' for reasons like getting favours, promotion, and other things they desire within the Plateau State civil service.					
27	I am likely to do more to resolve issues when they pertain to people or groups (friends, family, group or community members) that I am connected or affiliated to.					
28	The civil servants are not patriotic as a result of perceived injustice, nepotism and corruption.					
29	Tribalism, ethnic and religious sentiments affect the zeal of the civil servants to put in their best.					
30	Colleagues are not trusting of one another especially when they are not from the same local government area.					
31	Civil servants are more likely to relate and work better with colleagues from the same ethnic group or local government area.					
32	The loyalty of the civil servants lies more with their local government areas of origin than to the state government.					
33	Some senior civil servants are also holders of traditional titles.					
34	The senior bureaucrats (bureaucratic elite) behave like demi-gods (small gods).					
35	Some civil servants are treated like sacred cows that is, they are feared and appear to be above the law.					
36	Civil servants receive 'gifts' from individuals and corporate bodies to facilitate the performance of the administrative duties concerning them.					
37	Sometimes I see these 'gifts' as bribes.					
38	There is a lot of witch-hunting of subordinates by the higher level civil servants.					
39	The relationships and communication between superiors and subordinates need to be improved.					
40	The inability of the government to effectively tackle insecurity, Boko Haram and other ethno-religious crises affects the attitude of the civil servants to work.					
41	These security challenges instill fear and demotivate the civil servants thereby affecting their attitude to work.					
42	My community is one of those affected by the constant					

	crisis in Plateau State.					
43	You have been directly affected by the ethno-religious crisis in the state in terms of loss of lives and property.					
44	The crises and conflicts in the state result from contests between Fulani herdsmen/cattle rearers and the natives over land.					
45	The government has done a lot to handle the crises and clashes in the state.					
46	This affects my motivation to work.					
47	I have lost members of my community to the conflicts.					
48	Many times, the conflicts are unprovoked.					
49	These conflicts have more religious colourations than ethnic colourations.					
50	The crises are mainly a general Boko-Haram problem.					
51	The crises are mainly between the indigenes and settlers.					
52	My community is at risk of constant attacks or conflicts.					
53	I do not feel like putting in my best at work because I feel that the government has failed me.					
54	With the way the Plateau state civil service is structured and run, it can promote development despite the diverse cultures, traditions, etc. that it has to cope with in the State.					
55	The delivery of essential social services by the government is free and fair.					
56	It reflects the socio-cultural diversity of the state without undue focus on particular local government areas.					
57	Improved living standards and the availability of basic necessities (portable water, health services, electricity, security, decent housing, etc) will boost employee motivation.					
58	Employment within the civil service does not effectively reflect the ethno-religious and socio-cultural diversity of the state so some groups are more favoured than others.					
59	Employment, promotion, and certain administrative decisions are not always based on the prescribed rules, procedures, regulations and merit.					
60	Many times the incidences are handled without totally following the laid down disciplinary principles because of interpersonal relationships between staff.					
61	Most misconducts and misdemeanors are resolved in ways that are not likely to threaten the job security of the individual.					
62	Disciplinary actions in the Plateau State civil service are sometimes used to witch-hunt people					
63	My job is stable, I have no fear of sudden retrenchment.					
64	The civil service in Plateau State is affected by many					

	external factors like the ‘Nigerian factor’, ‘politics’, ‘corruption’, ‘favouritism’ etc.					
65	I believe that these factors in No. 64 above appear to be the trend in most government offices in Nigeria generally.					
66	Working in the public service will be better and more productive if the procedures and codes of conduct are followed.					
67	Sometimes, on Fridays not much work is done compared to the other work days (Mondays to Thursdays).					
68	Other factors not captured here affect my motivation to work. Please state them:					
A	Encouraging factors: _____, _____, _____;					
B	Discouraging factors: _____, _____.					

SECTION E: TO CHECK THE POSSIBLE EFFECTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL SOCIALIZATION ON THE WORKERS PERCEPTIONS AND SOCIO-CULTURAL ORIENTATIONS.

S/N	STATEMENTS	RESPONSES				
		SA	A	N	D	SD
1	What happens in the civil service does not always conform to the civil service rules so I have adopted the style that since I am in ‘Rome’, I will behave as a ‘Roman’.					
2	My experiences at work have enabled me change some of the views and beliefs I had as a result of my culture, upbringing and society.					
3	Since I started working in the civil service, I do not treat people from my area differently or specially, everybody gets the same treatment.					
4	My socio-cultural value orientations no longer affect my work with the civil service.					
5	I still believe that the breadwinner of a home must be a man.					
6	My family, friends and community members may still get special considerations where the conduct of my administrative duties is concerned.					
7	Some of our cultural beliefs need to be scrapped or stopped because they do not tally with modern trends of work in the civil service.					
8	This is necessary because the socio-culture and beliefs sometimes affect the attitude of some civil servants to					

	work.					
A	Examples of these socio-cultural values that should change include _____, _____, _____, _____.					

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR KIND COOPERATION!!

APPENDIX B:

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Will only better pay and conditions of service enhance your output and productivity in the civil service?
2. Are promotions, awards, bonuses and so on always on merit in the civil service?
3. Do you feel that when you put in your best, others who do much less reap the benefits because of corruption?
4. Do some civil service staffs engage in other activities that divert their attention and affect their commitment to the goals of the civil service because they need to make ends meet?
5. Are you influenced to excel and do your best because your mates/colleagues are excelling or because you have a duty to?
6. What factors would you say are responsible for the lackadaisical attitude of staff in the civil service?
7. Will you agree that some staff are not motivated to put in their best because they see a general laxity among staff in the civil service?
8. Will the provision of basic amenities like electricity, good health care, security, comfortable housing, portable water, etc. boost the civil servants motivation to work?
9. Despite the numerous reforms to better the quality of output in the civil service, not much has been achieved. What can you say is responsible for the state of affairs? _____, _____, _____, _____.
10. In the state civil service, will you say that the relationship between the superiors and their subordinates is cordial?
11. Are there cases of witch-hunting of civil servants in the civil service?
12. Do the civil servants have cliques (small groups of friends-kamanna mu ne) among themselves that they are somehow more loyal to than to the goals of the civil service?
13. Are colleagues more likely to react to the civil service rules, authorities, etc. as members of these cliques than as ordinary civil servants?
14. Are there class struggles and cliques among the top administrators in the civil service?
15. Are some superiors more loyal to some ideologies and sentiments that do not tally with or advance the goals of the civil service simply because they have personal, ethnic, tribal or other interests to protect?
16. Do you evaluate the top civil servants as very committed to the growth and development of the civil service?
17. Do you agree that some staff of the civil service are treated as sacred cows?
18. Do these or other factors affect your input and output at work?

19. Will you agree that sometimes the actions of administrators are affected by outside influence like loyalty to culture, family, friends, or community members so that they do not follow the civil service rules to the letter?
20. Are there times when you need to balance the expectations of your culture, family, friends or community association members with what the civil service expects from you?
21. Are gifts given in appreciation by individuals or corporate bodies to civil servants for assistance or to facilitate their administrative duties? Will you say that these gifts are bribes?
22. Do you have instances where colleagues claim that other colleagues within the civil service are engaging in juju, voodoo or witchcraft for one reason or the other?
23. Is it okay for a woman to be the breadwinner in the home? Does your culture allow it?
24. Do certain cultural and traditional beliefs within particular areas affect the decisions taken in the civil service concerning those areas?
25. Has working in the civil service changed your perceptions on some of your cultural values such that they do not and/or no longer affect your work.
26. Does the distribution of essential services by the government fairly reflect the socio-cultural diversity of the state?
27. Do insecurity and other ethno-religious conflicts affect your attitude to work in the civil service?
28. Is your community at risk of constant attacks or conflicts?
29. Do you think that these conflicts are mainly unprovoked?
30. Will you say that the crises are between the Fulani herdsmen/cattle rearers and the natives?
31. Will you say that the conflicts are between the indigenes and settlers?
32. Do you think the conflicts are just a reflection of the general Boko Haram issues?
33. Have you been directly affected by the crises in the state in terms of loss of lives and property?
34. Have you lost members of your community in any of these conflicts?
35. Do you think that the government has done enough to checkmate or handle the crises and conflicts in the state?
36. Does the effort of the government towards ending the crises in the state encourage you to put in your best at work?
37. What other factors affect your mindset or can be taken into consideration in encouraging staff commitment to the goals of the Plateau State Civil Service?