

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

MOTIVATION AND ATTITUDE AMONG KITCHEN STAFF IN SHSS IN
THE KWAWU EAST DISTRICT

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DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE INSTITUTE FOR
DEVELOPMENT STUDIES OF THE FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES,
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST, IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR AWARD OF MASTER OF ARTS DEGREE IN
HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

NOVEMBER 2014

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this dissertation is the result of my own original work and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

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Signature:..... Date:.....

Supervisor's Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the dissertation were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of dissertation laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

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ABSTRACT

The study set out to examine the motivation and attitude towards work among kitchen staff in senior high schools (SHSs) within the Kwawu East District. Specifically, it involved an examination of the motivational needs of the staff, the strategies used to motivate kitchen staff and the factors influencing job attitudes of staff. A cross-sectional design was adopted to survey 42 kitchen staff and seven school Principals. Interview schedules were used to collect data from the kitchen staff and interview guides were used to elicit data from the Principals. The data were analysed using descriptive statistics, such as means, medians, frequencies, and percentages. Chi-square tests with their associated p-values were used to test for the statistical significance of the association between the study variables. The qualitative data were discussed on thematic areas of the objectives.

The study found that the motivational needs of the kitchen staff was mostly on the increment of their salary. Other needs concerned their job security, career progression, benefits and training. However, none of the needs of the staff had been fulfilled by the school management. Good social relations, good supervision, interest and job security reinforced positive attitudes among the staff, where as negative work attitudes among the kitchen staff were underlain by low salary, lack of in-service training, lack of retirement benefits, low recognition of efforts, and monotony of work. The study recommends that kitchen staff and school Principals should formal complaints to the Directorate and solicit funds for the salaries, replacement of kitchen ware, training of kitchen staff, as well as improving the working environment of the kitchen.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my gratitude to my supervisor, Dr. Oheneba Akyeampong of the Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management, University of Cape Coast, for his guidance and encouragement throughout this work. I also wish to thank the Principals and all the kitchen staff of the SHSs in the Kwawu East District for their support and participation in the survey.

DEDICATION

To my wife, for her encouragement and support

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the study

The human resource capacity of firms has been established as one major, if not the fundamental, underlying factor of organisational success. The cognitive and physical capacity of human resource is known to be influenced by several proximate and remote factors that gradually lay a pattern of approach to work for each individual employee. These influences, aimed at directing the morale of the worker, may inclusively relate to on-site management practices, conditions of work, remuneration, competition, self interest in job description, and opportunities the work poses for career growth and personal development (Meyer & Becker, 2004).

Kreitner (1995) identifies these as factors of employee motivation and defines motivational factors as psychological influences that facilitate a cognitive process aimed at giving employee behaviour purpose and direction. Bainbridge (2010) broadly categorises motivational factors as either intrinsic or extrinsic. It is emphasised that intrinsic motivational factors exist within the individual and are driven by an interest or enjoyment in the task itself. Extrinsic factors, on the other hand, are explained to be external to the individual employee. They are aimed at influencing the morale of the employee to work towards external goals.

According to Steel and Konig (2007), each motivational factor has its own peculiar influence, and each individual may respond differently to such influences. However, generally, Saari and Judge (2004) maintain that employees are motivated when provided with, among other things, good

conditions of work, meritocratic compensation, alignment of employee interest with job description and business objective, as well as opportunities for career and personal development.

Employees' contentment with the conditions of their job, such as salary, benefits or co-worker relationship, has also been identified to be closely related to employee morale, attitudes towards work, and employee performance (Heller, 2002). Employees' contentment commonly termed as job satisfaction, is the favourableness or unfavourableness with which an employee views his/her work (Saari & Judge, 2004). It is a collection of positive and/or negative feelings that an individual holds towards his/her job.

Job satisfaction expresses the amount of agreement between the employee's expectation of the job and the rewards that the job provides. Kreitner (1995) maintains that properly motivated employees are more likely to express satisfaction towards their occupations. In Judge, Locke and Durham's (1997) analysis, satisfied employees are more likely to form pro-organisational objective attitudes and also perform better than poorly motivated and unsatisfied workers. Spector (1997) therefore emphasises that a high level of job satisfaction equals positive attitudes towards the job and vice versa.

Specific components of job satisfaction that are identified to encourage positive attitudes toward work include satisfaction with pay, promotion, supervision, and co-workers. Job satisfaction is however noted to be exposed to dispositional influences, cultural influences, and work situation influences, which in turn may influence employee attitudes (Saari & Judge, 2004).

In general terms, Murray (1995) states that an attitude is a hypothetical construct that represents an individual's degree of like or dislike for something. Attitudes are therefore judgments (Reiss, 2004). It is emphasised that attitudes are generally positive or negative views of a person, place, thing, or event. However, individuals can also be conflicted or ambivalent towards an object. Such individuals are seen to simultaneously possess both positive and negative attitudes towards the item in question.

According to Taylor et al. (2001), most attitudes are the result of either direct experience or observational learning from the environment, which is a proposal of the Affect, Behaviour, and Cognition (ABC) model. The affective component is an emotional response that expresses an individual's degree of preference for an entity. The behavioural intention, on the other hand, is a verbal indication or typical behavioural tendency of an individual, whereas the cognitive component is an evaluation of the entity that constitutes an individual's beliefs about the object. Saari and Erez (2003) emphasise that it is an intention to behave in a certain way toward something. Reiss (2004) indicates that, in most cases, it is the behavioural component that is closely related to job performance.

Aoyagi-Usui, Vinken and Kuribayashi (2003) assert that attitudes are characterised in three ways. First, they tend to persist unless something is done to change them. Second, attitudes can fall anywhere along a continuum from favourable to very unfavourable. Third, attitudes are directed toward some object about which a person has feelings and beliefs.

Saari and Erez (2002) maintain that attitudes are functional in four ways. First, they often help people to adjust to their work environment.

Second attitudes help employees to retain their dignity and self-image. Attitudes also provide individuals with a basis for expressing their values and also provide standards and frames of reference that allow employees to perceive and understand their work environment.

According to Taylor, Siwar and Ali (2001), attitudes are measured through attitude surveys that provide valuable information on the feedback on how employees perceive their working conditions. South (1990), Ramayah et al. (2001), Kinicki et al. (2002) and Fields (2013) indicated that the commonest job satisfaction measurement tools include Job Descriptive index or the Minnesota satisfaction questionnaire. Employee attitude measurement scales can also be developed on specific constructs that seek to measure employee motivation, job satisfaction, and resultant attitudes. These construct are determined based on the conditions of service within particular job settings.

Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) maintain that the programme theory underlying motivational strategies for many organisational setups aims at improving the morale of employees in order to encourage job satisfaction and maintain positive work attitudes for higher performance. This subsequently leads to the attainment of intermediate organisational objectives as well as long-term goals. This logic model has driven many organisations to target motivational strategies at specific groups of workers seen as keen to the achievement of organisational goals.

Within the educational setup, motivation of teachers has taken the fore front. This is evident from the proliferation of literature on teacher motivation and pro-teaching attitude formation (Ponec & Brock, 2000). Other workers,

such as campus security, janitors, and kitchen staff in the educational setup are generally neglected for the fact that they may not be directly related to the goal of improving students' grades and performance, which represent the foremost objective of educational institutions.

The importance of kitchen staff to the formal educational system in Ghana has been emphasised, following the institution of the school feeding programme in 2005 (Dobgevi, 2009). Nutrition has been identified as an important component of child education. This is because the right nutrition for the student child is acclaimed to improve cognitive development. The attitude of kitchen staff towards work can therefore be directly related to the cognitive development of the student child, which in turn is the student's fundamental need for learning. It is, however, suggested that within schools in Ghana, staff other than teachers and administrative staff are poorly motivated. What then is the condition of job satisfaction among kitchen staff and what are their attitudes towards work? The study draws on empirical analysis from the Kwawu East District to answer these pertinent questions.

Statement of the problem

A logic model deduced from the literature on employee behaviour suggests that motivation affects job satisfaction, which in turn influences attitudes towards work. Attitudes on the other hand influence job performance and ultimately organisational objective and goals (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

Within the formal educational sector, motivation of teachers is prioritised because they are directly involved in classroom performance

(Thompson & McNamara, 1997). The situation is not different in Ghana. This is manifested in the fact that increment in pay and general employment conditions within the educational set up have often centred on teachers' concerns, with little regard for other workers within the educational sector (Dobgevi, 2009).

The kitchen staff in SHSs in the Kwawu East District, like many other kitchen staff in SHSs in Ghana are poorly motivated, yet they are expected to maintain positive attitudes towards work. However, several indications in literature suggest that poorly motivated staff will tend to have lower morale and are more likely to exhibit negative attitudes towards work and perform poorer than highly motivated staff (Saari & Erez, 2002). The study therefore draws on empirical evidence from schools in the Kwawu East District to explore the motivational strategies for other sectoral workers within school premises, with focus on kitchen staff, and how their attitudes towards work are affected.

Objectives of the study

The general objective of the study is to examine the morale and attitude towards work among kitchen staff in senior high schools (SHSs) within the Kwawu East District.

Specifically, the study sought to:

1. Explore the motivational needs of kitchen staff of SHSs in the district;
2. Examine the motivational strategies for kitchen staff of SHSs in the district;

3. Examine the factors that influence the attitudes of kitchen staff towards their occupational responsibilities
4. Make recommendations on improving morale and attitudes towards work among kitchen staff

Research questions

The following research questions directed the study:

1. What are the motivational needs of kitchen staff of senior high schools?
2. How are kitchen staff of senior high schools motivated within their responsibilities?
3. What factors influence attitudes of kitchen staff towards their occupational responsibilities?

Significance of the study

The study will provide insight into the motivational needs of kitchen staff of SHSs and the motivational strategies implemented to fulfil these needs and to improve their morale. This will be of particular importance to school administrators. It can serve as a guide to develop motivational policies for kitchen staff or modify and improve on existing ones.

The study will also serve as a guide towards influencing employee attitudes and improving morale of staff for higher performance. It can also serve as an academic reference material to instigate further research into the area of motivation of other workers within the formal educational set up.

Scope of the study

The study was conducted for school staff within the Kwawu East District. The study was however limited to kitchen staff within senior high schools within the district. The focus was on the morale and attitude towards work among cooks. The study also covered the heads of SHSs that were captured in the survey.

Organisation of the study

The write up is divided into five chapters. Chapter One is the introductory chapter and covers the background of the study, problem statement, objectives, research questions, significance, scope, and organisation of the study. Chapter Two deals with the review of theories and concepts which are related to the study. It also presents empirical studies and a conceptual framework for analysing employee morale and attitude towards work.

Chapter Three focuses on research methodology. This includes the study area, data collection, study population, sample size and sampling procedure. It also covers description and administration of the research instruments (i.e. questionnaire and structured interview guide). Chapter Four focuses on data analysis and presentation. Chapter Five gives the summary of the major findings, conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter deals with theoretical and conceptual issues related to staff motivation and attitudes. The chapter discusses motivation theories to explain the fundamental factors of morale in relation to occupational duties. It also employs Jones' (1982) theory of attitude formation and change to explain functional attitudes in an occupational setting. Empirical studies about staff morale and attitudes towards work are also reviewed. Theories, concepts, and empirical studies are synthesised in a conceptual framework developed at the end of the chapter.

Motivation theories

Attitudes towards work can be explained by the worker's sense of satisfaction with the job and his/her motivation towards occupational responsibilities. Theories of job satisfaction attempt to explain job satisfaction by looking at how well the job meets one's expectation and values. Adams' (1963) Equity Theory and Vroom's (1964) Expectation theory have become the most prominent theories. Equity Theory suggests that people perceive their job as a series of inputs and outcomes. Inputs are factors such as experience, ability, and effort, while outcomes include things like salary, recognition, and opportunity. Based on one's inputs, such as effort, experience, education, and competence, one can compare outcomes, such as salary levels, recognition, and other rewards such as employee benefits.

The equity theory is based on the premise that employee morale, resulting in attitudes, is a direct result of individuals' perceptions of how fairly they are treated in comparison to others. Employees are de-motivated by perceived imbalances in their outcome-input ratio relative to others. De-motivation manifests in negative attitudes, such as chronic lateness, lethargic approaches to problem solving, and towards work. In other words, people feel satisfied at work when the input or contribution to a job and the resulting outcome are commensurate to that of their co-workers. According to Milkovich and Newman (1990), this social equity is not limited to others within the same workplace, and the equity comparisons often reach into other organisations that are viewed as similar places of employment.

Vroom's (1964) Expectancy Theory is similar in that it addresses the interaction between personal and workplace variables; however, it also incorporates the element of workers' expectations. The essence of this theory is that if workers put forth more effort and perform better at work, then they will be compensated accordingly. The theory argues that the direction of occupational attitudes depends on the strength of an expectation that the act will be followed by a given outcome and on the attractiveness of that outcome to the individual (Robbins, 1993). Thus, when expectations are met, positive attitudes are formed. On the other hand, negative attitudes are more likely to be developed in the face of unfulfilled expectations. Therefore, attitudes towards work can be described as a combined function of the fulfilment of the individual's perception that effort will lead to performance and of the fulfilment that the expected outcomes may result from the performance (Reiss, 2004).

For example, discrepancies that occur between expected compensation and actual outcome lead to dissatisfaction. If employees receive less than they expect or otherwise feel as if they have been treated unfairly, then they may be de-moralised, dissatisfied with their jobs, and negative attitudes may be formed. Conversely, overcompensation may also lead to result in the feeling of superiority and actually decrease the efforts of employees (Carrell & Dittrich, 1978).

According to Lawler (1971), the compensation does not have to be monetary, but pay is typically the most visible and most easily modified element of outcome. Salary also has significance beyond monetary value and the potential to acquire material items. Gruneberg (1979) notes that it is also an indication of personal achievement, organisational status, and recognition. Other forms of compensation may include the tendency of the job to be challenging, the ability of the job to sustain interest, and the compatibility of the job with personal goals and values (Steel & Konig, 2007).

Vroom's theory also goes one step further to incorporate an individual's personal decision-making at the workplace. Vroom (1982) explains that employees will form attitudes about a task based on their perceived ability to carry out the task and earn fair compensation. The theory bases this assertion on a three-variable equation for scientifically determining job satisfaction. Expectancy is the first variable, and this is the individual's perception of how well he or she can carry out the given task. Instrumentality is the second variable of the equation, and this refers to the individual's confidence that he or she will be compensated fairly for performing the task.

Valence is the third variable, which considers the value of the expected reward to the employee.

In Vroom's (1954) formula, each variable is given a probability value, and when all three factors are high, workers will be more satisfied and have more motivation. If any of the factors are low, work performance will be low, employee motivation will decline, and negative attitudes towards work will be formed.

Theory of attitude formation and change

The theory of attitude formation and change developed by Jones (1968) aims to find out why people think the way they do and how do they change their minds. In the fundamental sense, the theory aims to answer the question: why do people hold particular attitudes? According to the theory, any attitude is a hypothetical or latent variable rather than an immediately observable variable. Green (1953) asserts that the concept of attitudes does not refer to one specific act or response of an individual, but it is an abstraction from a large number of related acts or responses. For example, if individual A has a less favourable attitude towards occupational duties than individual B, it means that A's words and deeds are consistently less favourable to the job than B's words and deeds. It can be concluded that there is an underlying attitude which mediates between the stimuli, such as employee motivation, and the response, that is the formation of positive attitudes towards work.

The theory asserts that attitudes are characterised by response co-variation. In this respect, attitudes are identified as enduring syndrome of response consistent with a set of social objects. For example, if society

perceives perseverance and alertness as positive attitudes towards work, complacency and dullness will be seen as negative attitudes towards occupations (Nabi, Moyer & Byrne, 2007). If society felt otherwise about perseverance and alertness, complacency and dullness would go unnoticed.

Opinion is, according to Loewenstein (2007), the verbal expression of an attitude. Therefore, opinion seeking is one method of identifying peoples' attitudes. However, it is not always easy to interpret an opinion since the underlying attitude is often subtle. The theory, however, attempts to explain attitudes from a functional perspective.

The functional approach to attitudes

The theory cites two streams of thought regarding peoples' attitudes: one which minimises peoples' rational powers and the other which invokes rationality (Tesser, 1993). The theory further asserts that at the psychological level the reasons for holding onto or for changing attitudes are found in the functions they perform for the individual. The functions are those of adjustment, ego-defense, value expression, and knowledge.

The adjustive function

This category embraces those attitudes which are utilitarian in origin and intent. Higgins (1996) indicates that the utilitarian function exists in the fact that adjustive attitudes can be used to reinforce values that encourage high performance. Thus, often the object is some tangible benefit, and in other cases, these attitudes are affective associations based upon previous experience. For example, poor attitudes towards work may be related to some

past experience of low salary (Higgins, 1996). It follows from the nature of the adjustive function of attitudes that the clarity, consistency, and nearness of rewards and punishments as they relate to the individual's attitudes and goals are important factors in the acquiring of new utilitarian attitudes (Lowenstein, 2007). This must be taken into account in shaping new habits.

One approach to changing attitudes based on adjustive functions is through fear appeals or threats (Jones, 1968). Fear appeals must be linked to delineated courses of action if attitude change is desired. However, when a relatively high level of fear is induced by warnings presented in a persuasive communication, the recipients will become motivated to develop psychological resistances to the communicator's arguments, conclusions, and recommendations (Higgins, 2006).

The ego-defensive function

This is where attitudes proceed from within the person, and the objects and situation to which they are attached are merely convenient outlets for their expression. Cialdini and Goldstein (2004) give the example of employees who project hostility to a minority in order to protect themselves from feelings of inferiority. One common type of ego-defensive function is transference where an attitude adopted towards an object is not based on the reality of the situation. These ego-defensive attitudes stem basically from internal conflicts. One of the difficulties of ego-defensive attitudes is that the usual procedures for changing attitudes and behaviour may not cause the individual to modify, but may force him to reinforce his defenses, causing him to cling tenaciously to his emotionally held belief (Cialdini, 2008).

Among the procedures for attempting to change attitudes, Nabi, Moyer-Guse and Byrne (2007) include invoking punishments and rewards. According to Reiss (2004), rewards are more emphasised by behaviourist theorists. For example, positive attitudes towards work can be re-enforced and encouraged among other workers by offering recognition for a good job done (Cialdini, 2008).

The value-expressive function

These attitudes have the function of giving positive expression to central values and to the type of person individuals conceive themselves to be. Employees, for instance, may think of themselves as a hard worker and may be led to seek challenging tasks and persevere at completing them (Reiss, 2004). Cialdini (2008) asserts that these attitudes may have a double function. They may be a confirmation of self-identity and they may also help to mould the self-image of an individual.

The theory mentions two conditions which are relevant in changing value-expressive attitudes. The first is some degree of dissatisfaction with one's self-image or its associated values, which opens the way to fundamental attitude change. This is closely allied to the hypothesis that a person of low self-esteem tends to be more open to change from a person of high self-esteem. Secondly, dissatisfaction can be aroused in an individual when job duties conflict with personal values. The foregoing discussion suggests that individuals' attitudes can be moulded by identifying the respective function of their attitude and applying the appropriate attitudinal change strategy.

The concept of motivation

According to Dams (2001), the concept of motivation is characterised by the abundance of different theoretical frameworks and models that make it difficult to define motivation. Cohen (2003) therefore asserts that, most workers define motivation in their own terms, such that individual conceptualisations of motivation overlap only a little. However, there are some general operational definitions of the concept.

Vroom (1964) proposes that the concept of motivation has to do with the choices made by persons among alternative forms of voluntary activity. Locke and Latham (1990) and Clark (1998) operationalise work motivation as the direction, effort, and persistence of behaviour. Pinder (1998), on the other hand, conceptualises motivation as a set of energetic forces that originate both within, as well as beyond an individual's being, to initiate work-related behaviour, and to determine its form, direction, intensity and duration. From these perspectives, Brockner and Higgins (2001) ask a fundamental question about motivation, which relates to how these energetic forces can be channelled effectively towards improved employee performance and the achievement of organisational goals. They concluded that, it would require the identification of individual motivational needs and determining how to satisfy those needs for job satisfaction.

Meyer and Becker (2004) classify motivational needs into intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic motivational needs are driven by an interest or enjoyment in the task itself, and exist within the individual. When intrinsically motivated, Reiss (2004) asserts that, a person is moved to act for the fun or challenge entailed rather than because of external prods, pressures, or rewards. From this

perspective motivation is said to be an organised pattern of personal goals, emotional arousal, and personal beliefs, functioning as an interdependent triumvirate, influencing and being influenced (Droar, 2006).

Reiss (2004) emphasises that intrinsic needs are intangible and they appeal to an employee's affective characteristics. Internal needs of the employee may include the need for empowerment, autonomy, self-achievement and the need to bond or socialise with employees (Nohria, 2008). It may also include the need for the job to reinforce the employee's personal beliefs and the employees' interest in the job.

Meyer and Becker (2004) assert that determining an employee's intrinsic needs requires ascertaining what affective constituents of the employee's job that is most important to him/her most. However, such needs are difficult, if not impossible, to quantify and they are often not objectively verifiable. For example, it is difficult to measure the level or quantity of autonomy that an employee desires. Similarly, one's level of interest in the job and the level of congruence between personal belief and job description that would satisfy an employee may be impossible to quantify. However, identifying and fulfilling intrinsic needs is important to sustain interest, commitment, and loyalty of employees (Miles & Kilinger, 2011).

Herzberg (1959) asserts that job satisfaction results from fulfilling and employee's intrinsic needs. On the other hand, satisfying extrinsic needs may keep the employee working for the firm, but will not necessarily mean that the employee is satisfied. However, Miner (2003) contends that, extrinsic needs are as important as intrinsic needs, because extrinsic motivators appeal to the employee's psychology through factors, which are induced from outside the

individual. Moreover, Ryan and Deci (2000) also indicate that most of the activities people do are not, strictly speaking, intrinsically motivated, because intrinsic motivation is often curtailed by social demands and roles that require individuals to assume responsibility for non-intrinsically interesting tasks.

Extrinsic motivational needs may include the employees' need for fairness, personal growth and experience, higher salaries, recognition, acceptance, career progression, and affiliation (Robbins & Judge, 2007). The response to extrinsic motivators may however, be determined by some intrinsic factors, such as psychological appeal for money, the competitiveness of the individual, and personal preference for social relations (Steel & Konig, 2007). Thus, an individual with strong appeal for money will be highly motivated by an increase in remuneration, while an employee who solicits recognition will be highly motivated by some acknowledgement by management (Thompson & Phua, 2012).

Identifying motivational needs of employees

Dams (2001) observes that most motivational theorists agree that motivation has three dimensions, namely; direction, effort, and persistence. The association of individual factors to direction, effort, and persistence determines the motivation of the individual. According to Toode et al. (2011), there are specific activities that can be employed to identify the direction, effort, and persistence of an employee in relation to the various factors of motivation.

Broussard and Garrison (2004) argue that motivational needs are frequently elicited using either self-report measures or rating scales. Such

measurement instruments usually include questions organised under several subscales, such as interest, attributions, self-perception and self-efficacy, preference for challenge, curiosity, mastery orientation, persistence, and enjoyment of learning (Deci et al., 1999; Gottfried, 1990; Lange & Adler, 1997; Miller & Meece, 1997).

Lai (2011) adds that there are instances where focus group discussions are held through informal meetings with employees, managers and other stakeholder groups. This process is often a semi-structured discussion, which is typically led by a facilitator who follows an outline and records employees' suggestions. Lai (2011) establishes that focus group discussions provide management with an opportunity to network and build relationships with employees and also to better understand their attitudes and opinions.

Strategies for motivating employees

According to Nohria et al. (2008), getting people to do their best at work, even in trying circumstances, is one of managers' most enduring and slippery challenges. Nelson (2008) therefore maintains that, managers need to understand the psychological underpinnings of a motivated workforce, because motivation is a concept which deals with the psyche or morale of employees. From this perspective, Nohria et al. (2008) indicate that motivation of staff is underscored by the drive to acquire, bond, comprehend and defend.

The drive to acquire describes the employees' need to gain some kind of reward for the effort they put into their work (Nohria et al., 2008). The rewards may be in the form of remuneration, promotion, recognition, fulfilment of an interest, achievement of goal, or some fringe benefits. This

reinforces Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory that, employees expect some reward for their jobs done. Randolph and Kemery (2011) maintain that, employees experience delight when this need or drive is fulfilled, but they are demoralised when it is thwarted.

The drive to acquire is, however, relative to each employee and also relative to what other employees are gaining on the job (Nohria et al., 2008). Thompson and Phua (2012) explain that, employees often compare their rewards with what other employees of the same or similar grade are gaining in the same company or in other organisations. This thinking is underscored by Adam's (1963) equity theory, which proposes that, employees become satisfied and also maintain positive attitudes towards work when they perceive some fairness in the reward system of the firm. On the other hand, employees may be demoralised when they are of the perception that their efforts are not being proportionately rewarded or some employees are given undue recognition.

The strategy to satisfy employees' drive to acquire is therefore, through commensurate rewards for employee performance. Wright (2003), for example, found that financial and other material rewards like bonuses, overtime pay, gift coupons, and hampers are often highly motivational for employees. Employees may also be motivated if they can establish a positive relationship between their efforts invested and their subsequent pay, but insubstantial increase in pay and benefits can be highly de-motivating (Whittington & Evans, 2005).

Rewards can also take the form of promotion and career development for staff. According to Cervone et al. (2008), encouraging the employee to put

a career plan together and working together to help the employee to fulfil the plan, through promotions, can motivate the employee to cooperate towards the achievement of organisational goals. On the other hand, Jones (2008) found that, inadequate opportunity for employee promotion and unfair promoting decisions are de-motivating. These factors often contribute to poor performance as well as an indifferent attitude towards job performance and organisational goal attainment.

Employees may see promotion as some form of recognition for their performance (Daniel & Metcalf, 2005). At lower levels, recognition may occur in the forms of praise, commendations and other overt gestures of acknowledge of achievement in the presence of the employee's colleagues. Cohen (2003) however, cautions that not all forms of recognition may have the desired effects on employees. For example, flattery, resulting from too frequent praises, has the capacity to dilute the desired impact of praise. Miner (2003) therefore, suggests that recognition must be directed towards specific activities rather than the general performance of the employee. Simataa (2008) adds that a good way to motivate employees through recognition is to stress on how the specific activity has contributed towards organisational goals, especially in unanticipated ways.

The strategy to motivate employees must also be informed by the employees' drive to bond (Nohria et al., 2008). According to Nohria et al. (2008), the drive to bond, when met, is associated with strong positive emotions like love and caring and, when not, with negative ones like loneliness and dejection. The drive to bond accounts for the enormous boost in motivation when employees feel proud of belonging to the organisation and for

their loss of morale when the institution betrays them (Lai, 2011). It also explains why employees find it hard to break out of divisional or functional groups, because they become attached to their closest cohorts.

The most effective way to fulfil the drive to bond is to create a culture that promotes teamwork, collaboration, openness and friendship (Nohria et al., 2008). This focuses on engendering a strong sense of camaraderie among the employees and making them aware of the effects of their individual and combined efforts. Bonding with senior colleagues, supervisors and auditors, as well as building a cordial relationship with colleagues of the same rank can be motivating, as the employee feels that he/she is in the midst of friends (Randolph & Kemery, 2011). According to Veluri (2009), this approach is targeted towards employee loyalty and commitment to the job. For example, Nohria et al. (2008) attribute the success of Wegmans supermarket chain in the United Kingdom to the familial tone of business, which has been established by the owners. Employees from Wegmans supermarket routinely reported that management cares about them and that they care about one another, which is evidenced in highly coordinated teamwork.

The drive to comprehend, in the workplace, accounts for the desire to make meaningful contribution to the overall organisational goals (Nohria et al., 2008). Nohria et al. (2008) described the motivational needs of employees in terms of the drive to comprehend, which generally refers to the employees' need to understand the worth of their jobs; to have their abilities used efficiently; and to obtain a challenging job. In this context, Steel and Konig (2007) establishes that, employees are motivated by jobs that challenge them and enable them to grow and learn, and they are demoralised by those that

seem to be monotonous. Therefore, talented employees who feel trapped often leave their companies to find new challenges elsewhere. According to Nohria et al. (2008), the drive to comprehend is best addressed by designing jobs that are meaningful, interesting, challenging and that have distinct and important roles in the organisation. Cervone et al. (2008) also emphasised that employees are also strongly motivated by overcoming challenges, hitting targets, and being stretched as an individual. On the contrary, undemanding work could lead to boredom and frustration, while the lack of targets is likely to de-motivate employees.

Murphy (2009) notes that, being able to achieve targets often boosts employees' morale, but, in order to create the sense of achievement, targets set should give the employee something to strive for. Management should, however, know the abilities of each employee in order to set objectives that capitalise on their strengths and also encourage them to overcome their weaknesses (Bainbridge, 2010). This is because setting unrealistic targets can lead to the fear of failure, and of possible criticism and in the case of failure the employee could lose his/her self-confidence.

The drive to defend refers to employees' need to defend their status at their jobs, through job security and attaining fairness in recognition. Fulfilling the drive to defend leads to feelings of security and confidence; not fulfilling it produces strong negative emotions like fear and resentment (Nohria et al., 2008; Whittington & Evans, 2005). Siders et al. (2001) noted that employees are often motivated by the security of their jobs and their positions. According to Brockner and Higgins (2001), a sense of job security can be created by inculcating longer-term job contracts and prospects in business relations and

being honest and up-front when long-term job security is unlikely. Yulk and Becker (2006) also emphasised that, building trust by being just and transparent in granting rewards, assignments and other forms of recognition can reinforce the employee's sense of security.

Kanfer and Ackerman (2000) also maintain that ensuring comfort in the workplace also appeals to employees. Similarly, pleasant working environment is more likely to be motivating than risky and unpleasant working environment. Some jobs are inherently risky, but management's efforts to reduce accidents associated with the job and enforcing safety measures at the workplace can build up the morale of employees (Thomas, 2004). The work environment must support the type of work and the targets that are to be achieved. For example, there should be adequate tools and work equipments that are required for each specified area of the job. In absence of these employees may find the work more tedious than necessary and may be demoralised by the extra effort that they must put into the work because management has failed to provide them with the necessary tools.

Factors that influence attitudes

Employees have attitudes or viewpoints about many aspects of their jobs, their careers, and their organisations, but the most focal employee attitude is job satisfaction (Locke & Latham, 1990). Job satisfaction also influences the morale of workers, as Lund (2003) established that satisfied workers are motivated towards high productivity. Thus, Cohen (2003) maintains that motivation and attitudes are intricately linked through job satisfaction.

According to Judge and Kammeyer-Mueller (2012), a job attitude is a set of evaluations of one's job that constitute one's feelings toward, beliefs about, and attachment to one's job. They also differentiated between general attitude and job attitude on the basis that, general attitudes are psychological tendencies to favour or disfavour a person, place, or an action, whereas job attitudes are derived from the evaluation of one's job. The term 'job' involves one's current position, one's work or one's occupation, and one's employer (Schleicher et al., 2004). However, the employee's attitude towards his/her work does not necessarily have to be equal with one's attitudes towards his/her employer, and these two factors often diverge.

Overall job attitude can be conceptualised in two ways. On the one hand, Harrison et al. (2006) defines it as a composite of objective cognitive assessments of specific job facets, such as pay, conditions, opportunities and other aspects of a particular job, whereas Thompson and Phua (2012) conceptualise job attitude as a general subjective feeling about a job. Thus, when an employee evaluates his/her job, our jobs, affective and cognitive components are involved.

According to Riketta (2008), job attitudes are manifestations of internal unobservable motivational forces. What the employee feels inside is therefore transmitted into actions and attitudes towards work and job performance. Bainbridge (2010) therefore suggests that motivation, and by extension attitudes, of employees can be influenced through several variables. Among these variables are competition in the workplace, opportunities for personal growth and development, personal interest, level of activity,

commercial outlook, achievement, status, and affiliation with co-workers. These are essentially examples of the factors that affect employee motivation.

Judge, Bono and Locke (2000) on the other hand, classified the factors that influence job attitudes into dispositional influences, cultural influences and work situation influences. Dispositional influences result from the natural inclination of the worker to behave in a certain manner. The argument made is that individual temperaments and personality traits, such as extraversion, agreeableness, emotional stability, aggressiveness and conscientiousness, are often manifested in job attitudes (Judge, et al., 2000). Judge and Bono (2001) also found that a key personality trait, core self-evaluation, correlates with employee job attitudes. They also found that the most important situational effect on job attitude is the perception of the job itself, and it is linked to the core self-evaluation.

Yusuf and Metiboba (2012) assert that, organisations cannot directly impact employee personality, but firms can use sound selection methods and also adopt practices to match employees' personality with their jobs to ensure that people are selected and placed into jobs, which are most appropriate for them. This, in turn, will help enhance their job satisfaction and create positive job attitudes among them.

In terms of other influences on employee attitudes, there is also a small, but growing body of research on the influences of culture on employee attitudes and job satisfaction. Hofstede (1980) conducted research on employee attitude data in 67 countries and found that four cross-cultural dimensions influence work attitudes. The dimensions included individualism-

collectivism, uncertainty avoidance versus risk taking, power distance, or the extent to which power is unequally distributed, and achievement orientation.

Hofstede (1980) found that the United States was high on individualism, low on power distance, and high on risk taking, whereas Mexico was high on collectivism, high on power distance, and low on risk taking. The implication was that employees in the US had more competitive and risk taking attitudes. Kyuhan and Chinsung (1997) also found that the Korean culture of commitment influenced attitudes towards turnover. In another study, Sikorska-Simmons (2006) found that, among the dimensions of organisational culture, perceptions of teamwork had the strongest influence on satisfaction with co-workers, and perceptions of organisational morale had the strongest influence on job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

The work situation also matters in terms of job satisfaction and organisation impact (Saari, 2000). Contrary to some commonly held practitioner beliefs, Saari and Schneider (2001) argue that, the most notable situational influence on job satisfaction is the nature of the work itself, which is often referred to as the “intrinsic job characteristics”. Judge and Church (2000) found that, generally, the nature of the work itself generally emerges as the most important job facet. Other studies affirm that, of all the major job satisfaction areas, satisfaction with the nature of the work it-self, which includes job challenge, autonomy, variety, and scope, best predicts overall job satisfaction, as well as other important outcomes like employee retention (Parisi & Weiner, 1999; Weiner, 2000).

Weiss (2002) argues that, well-designed compensation programs or effective supervision are also important, but they must influence job

satisfaction by ensuring work is as interesting and challenging as possible. Thus, Meyer and Becker (2004) suggest that, in order to understand what causes people to be satisfied with their jobs the nature of the work itself should be one major focus of practitioners.

Measurement of employee attitudes

Understanding job attitudes also requires the measurement of attitudes of employees. This is often done through employee attitude survey measures, which are notably, the Job Descriptive Index (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969) and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss et al., 1967; Weiss, 2002). The Job Descriptive Index assesses satisfaction with pay, promotion, co-workers, supervision, and the work itself. The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire has the advantage of versatility of long and short forms, and also with faceted and overall measures (Saari, 2000).

In practice, organisations often wish to obtain a more detailed assessment of employee attitudes and/or customise their surveys to assess issues unique to their firm (Saari & Erez, 2002). There are two additional issues with measuring employee attitudes that have been researched and provide potentially useful knowledge for practitioners. First, measures of attitudes can be faceted, whereby they measure various dimensions of the job. It can also measure a single, overall feeling toward the job. An example of a global measure is “Overall, how satisfied are you with your job?” If a measure is facet-based, over-all job attitude is typically defined as a sum of the facets (Saari & Schneider, 2001).

Scarpello and Campbell (1983) found that individual questions about various aspects of the job did not correlate well with a global measure of overall job satisfaction or attitude. However, if one uses job attitude facet scores, based on groups of questions on the same facet or dimension rather than individual questions, to predict an independent measure of overall job attitude, the relationship is considerably higher. Judge and Hulin (1993) noted that, job attitude facets are sufficiently related to suggest that they are measuring a common construct, which is overall job attitude.

Based on the research reviewed, there is support for measuring job satisfaction with either a global satisfaction question or by summing scores on various aspects of the job. Therefore, in terms of practice, by measuring facets of job satisfaction, organisations can obtain a complete picture of their specific strengths and weaknesses related to employee job satisfaction and use those facet scores for an overall satisfaction measure, or they can reliably use overall satisfaction questions for that purpose.

Conceptual framework for motivation and attitudes of staff

The conceptual framework (Figure 1) suggests that attitudes towards work are generated from motivational needs and factors that are instituted to satisfy those needs. Workers take up employment in the effort to satisfy some intrinsic and extrinsic motivational needs. These may include internal needs such as satisfying one's interest to do a particular type of job, seeking to overcome an occupational challenge in order to feel a sense of accomplishment, or to reinforce personal values through some type of occupation.

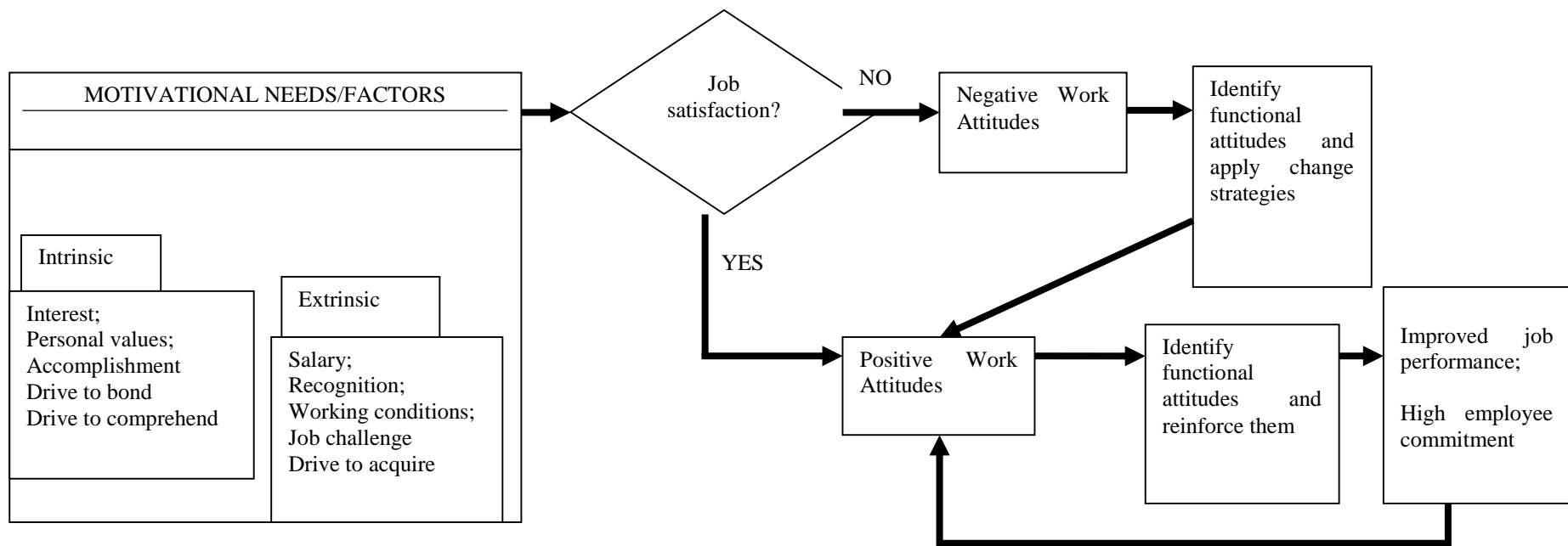


Figure 1: Conceptual framework for attitude towards work

Source: Adopted from Vroom, 1964; Reiss, 2004; Nohria et al., 2008

Motivation may also include external needs such as earning income or salary, earning other rewards and compensation, or gaining recognition or some social status. Employers are expected to provide some motivational fulfilment to employees that are expected to give employees a sense of satisfaction on the job. If motivational techniques lead to job satisfaction, employees are likely to develop positive attitudes towards work. This will manifest in alertness to problem solving, high morale, sustained interest in the job, and in some cases, the motivation of other workers by the employees.

On the other hand, if motivational techniques fail to satisfy employees' expectations, or nothing is done to motivate employees for higher performance, it may result in lethargy and indifference towards work, disinterest in work, low morale, and poor performance. These are essentially, manifestations of poor attitude towards work.

The conceptual framework suggests that the functional areas of negative attitudes can be identified and altered through the application of theorised strategies. This is expected to lead to the formation of positive attitudes among workers. The functional areas of these positive attitudes can be identified and reinforced for improved performance, morale boost, job satisfaction and general positive attitudes towards work.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter discusses the study area, research design, study population, sample size, and sampling procedures. The pre-test, methods and instruments for data collection, and data analysis techniques are also discussed in this chapter.

Study area

Kwahu East District with its capital, Abetifi forms part of the new districts and municipalities created in 2005. The District comprises eight Town/Area Councils and eighteen Electoral Areas with about 435 settlements. There are six education administrative circuits that serve as units for monitoring educational institutions in the district. The district is endowed with all the levels of education except Polytechnic.

The Kwawu East District Assembly (2012) indicates that there are 188 educational institutions in the district. Primary schools dominate with 76 schools compared with 60 pre-schools and 40 junior secondary schools. There are seven senior high schools and two technical/vocational schools in the district. There are three tertiary institutions in the district comprising one private university, one teacher training college and one pastoral institution.

Enrolment in the 60 kindergartens in the District stood at 4,697 by the year 2012. At the primary school level there are a total of 11,373 pupils and a total of 4,084 pupils in the JHSs. The total number of students in the SHS was 5,049 by

2012. All SHSs in the District are public institutions with boarding facilities, including beds and feeding paid by students as part of their school and user facility fees. The provision of food within these schools is engineered by the schools' permanently employed kitchen staff (Kwawu East District Assembly, 2012).

Averagely, the Kwawu East District Assembly (2012) reported that there are about six kitchen personnel in each school who perform different activities. First, there are the matron and the assistant, whose main responsibilities are with kitchen administrative works and general supervision. They are also responsible for keeping inventory of kitchen supplies. There is also the rest of kitchen staff who perform multiple functions. They are cooks and at the same time dish washers, cleaners, and water fetchers, which conform to the standards of Ghana Education Service.

Research design

The study adopted descriptive and cross-sectional designs. A descriptive design was used because the study sought to ultimately describe the attitude towards work among kitchen staff in senior high schools within the Kwawu East District. According to Babbie (2007), the purpose of descriptive research designs is to describe a phenomenon or type of subject with respect to its prevalence and status quo.

Cross-sectional design was adopted because the study sought to collect data concerning attitudes and morale of kitchen staff as it prevails at one-point in

time. According to Levin (2006), cross-sectional study is employed for studies covering relatively short periods. It is therefore a quick way to ascertain existing conditions of a particular phenomenon, especially through field surveys. It may however not cover adequate data on previously existing situations and it is not a recommended option for making predictions and introducing interventions. The study however, included both quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection and analysis.

Target population

The study population targeted all kitchen staff of senior high schools in the Kwawu East District. According to Kwawu East District Assembly (2012) there are a total of 42 employees working the kitchens of all the senior high schools (SHSs) in the District. The study population also included the Principals of the seven SHSs within the District.

Sample size and sampling procedure

The study included all the 42 kitchen staff of the SHSs. Thus, the study conducted a census of the population. This is because attitudes and morale are individual attributes and the reaction to motivators varies from one individual to the other. The study therefore sought the overall, as well as the individual attitudes towards their work. Among administrative staff of the school, the study also purposively sampled the seven Principal of the SHSs. Purposive sampling was used because Principals are entrusted with human management

responsibilities of the schools, among which is motivation of staff. They are therefore assumed to be endowed with knowledge about motivational practices for kitchen staff in their respective schools.

Sources of data

The study used both primary and secondary data. Primary data on motivational concerns, including strategies to motivate kitchen staff and the specific practices involved were sought from Principals of the SHSs. This was triangulated by seeking similar data from the kitchen staff. Data on the reaction to motivational stimuli and the attitude towards work among cooks were also sought from the kitchen staff.

Secondary data for the study included records of official concerns raised by kitchen staff with regards to working conditions, including remuneration, safety, other rewards and bonuses, promotions, and career development opportunities and training. Secondary data from relevant literature concerning motivation of workers and attitudes towards work were also included in the study.

Instruments for data collection

Unstructured interview guides were used to solicit data from school Principals. Interview schedules were used to solicit data from the kitchen. Interview guides were used in order to gain in depth discussion on the motivational practices for kitchen staff in the respective schools. They were also

unstructured to allow for probing and to follow up with questions arising from responses given.

Structured interview schedules were also employed to elicit data from the kitchen staff. This instrument was employed because the kitchen staff are assumed to be less literate and may find the interpretation of items on a questionnaire challenging. The items in the interview schedule were made up of open-ended and closed-ended questions, which were sectioned based on the objectives of the study. The first section collected data on the demographic data of the kitchen staff. The subsequent sections covered the motivational needs of the staff, the motivational strategies for the staff, and the factors influencing their attitudes of the staff.

Pre-test

The pre-test for the study was conducted in two selected SHSs in the Kwawu-South District. This is because SHSs in the Kwawu-South and Kwawu-East Districts share similarities in the mix of students' sex, kitchen staff employed, and administrative authority. They are both regulated by Ghana Education Service and as such some policy issues are assumed to be similar. Based on these assertions, the study assumes that the Kwawu-South District was appropriate to test the instruments for data collection. The pre-test was done in order to detect problems in the instruments and also to test for the suitability of the instruments to address the objectives of the study. The pre-test revealed some difficulties in the understanding the context of some of the items in the interview

schedule. These items were thus, restructured to convey the intended meaning to the respondents. Some of the open ended questions were also converted into closed-ended questions using the responses given by the respondents as the possible answer options.

Ethical issues

The research sought a letter of introduction from the Institute for Development Studies, University of Cape Coast. This was sent to the administration of the schools in the District in order to gain their consent and to acquire permission to conduct the study. The researcher made sure to explain the purpose of the study to all participants and only included them in the study based on their informed consent. The respondents were assured of their confidentiality.

Fieldwork

The fieldwork was conducted from 2nd to 29nd August, 2013. A total number of 42 kitchen staff and seven headmasters were covered in the fieldwork. The interviews were conducted during the working hours of the kitchen staff. The researcher paid subsequent visits to the premises to conduct rescheduled interviews with the respondents. During these visits, the schools heads that were available for interviewing were also interviewed.

Field challenges

A major challenge was getting the respondents to make time for the interviews within the time scheduled. Some of the interviews had to be rebooked several times before the respondents were able to participate in the study. Some of the headmasters refused to personally participate in the study and thus some of the data from school heads could not be accessed.

Data analysis and presentation

Descriptive statistical tools from the version 16 of Statistical Package for Service Solution (SPSS) were used to analyse issues such as demographic data of respondents, and other specific concerns related to work motivation and attitudes among the kitchen staff. Relationship between the respondents' job and demographic conditions and their attitudes towards work was tested for significance using Chi-square tests. Differences in motivational needs, as well as in the common motivational strategies were analysed using appropriate statistical tools from SPSS. The results of the quantitative data were presented in tables, charts, and figures. Policy issues and decisions related to motivations of kitchen staff in SHSs within the Kwawu East District were discussed. The qualitative data gathered from the headmasters were analysed as discussions in support of the quantitative data.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter presents the results and discussion of the study in relation to morale and attitude towards work among kitchen staff in senior high schools (SHSs) within the Kwawu East District. The results of statistical significance and practical implications of the results are presented and discussed in relation to the specific objectives. The study covered 42 kitchen staff from seven SHSs. Four Headmasters were also covered as key informants for the study. The first section of the analysis presents the demographic characteristics of the respondents, while the subsequent sections focus on the specific objectives of the study.

Demographic characteristics of respondents

The study provided demographic characteristics, with regards to sex, age, educational attainment, rank and length of service of the respondents. These variables were studied in order to provide the context within which the study was conducted, in order to allow for replication of the study and any comparison of the results to similar studies. The variables, which were captured under the demographic characteristics of the respondents, were also important for differentiating between responses, since aggregated responses may exclude some pertinent isolated concerns.

The sex and ages of the respondents were first examined, as shown in Table 1. It was shown that there were 38 females, comprising 90.5 percent and the

respondents, while the males formed 9.5 percent of the total number of kitchen staff. This showed that, mostly the kitchen staff were females. This may be underscored by occupational stereotypes that encourage females to seek jobs, such as kitchen duties, that are culturally seen as more female suited.

Table 1: Sex of respondents by age distribution

Age years	Sex		Total
	Male	Female	
20-29	4(100.0)	7(18.4)	11(26.2)
30-39	0(0.0)	22(57.9)	22(52.4)
40-49	0(0.0)	7(18.4)	7(16.7)
50-59	0(0.0)	2(5.3)	2(4.2)
Total	4(100.0)	38(100.0)	42(100.0)

Source: Field survey, 2013

The study also found that, 52.4 percent of the respondents within the ages of 30 to 39 years. However, the disaggregated responses indicated that all the male respondents were within the age group of 20-29 years. However, the females were mostly found within an older age group of 30-39 years.

The ranks and the educational characteristics of the respondents were also examined. It was found that 33.3 percent of the respondents were senior staff, whereas 66.7 percent were of junior rank. From Figure 2, it is shown that exactly half of the number of respondents had basic education as their highest educational level and 11.9 percent had no formal education. This suggested that, most of the

kitchen staff in the schools had low levels of educational attainment. In the disaggregated results, it was found that, the majority of the junior staff had only basic education, where as 64.3 percent of the senior staff had technical training or diplomas. In addition, 35.7 percent of the senior staff had attained first degrees in their various fields of study.

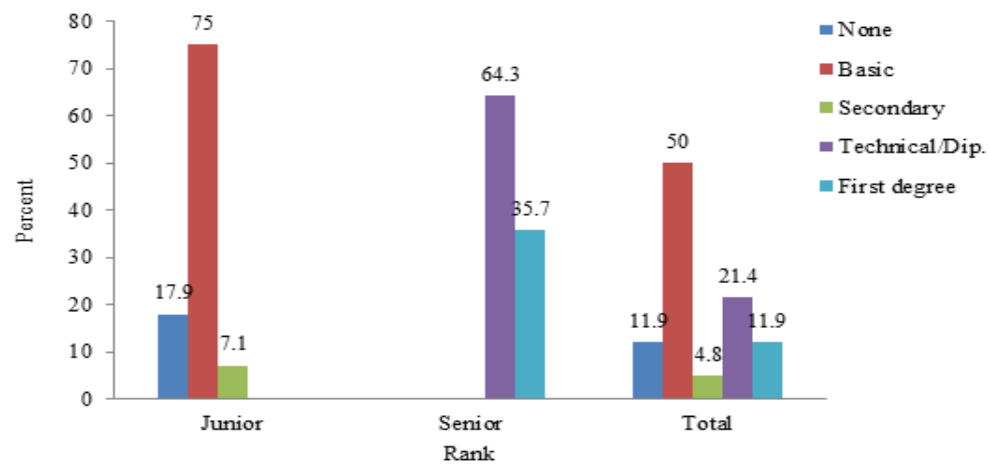


Figure 2: Rank of respondent by educational attainment

Source: Field survey, 2013

The results thus, indicated that generally, the senior staff had higher educational qualifications. This also suggested that educational attainment was important to the hiring and job placement of kitchen staff in the various institutions. This only confirms the standards of GES, whereby educational attainment is a necessary component for hiring.

The study provided a summary statistics of the length of service of the respondents as shown in Table 2. The skewness statistics (0.728) for the overall length of service indicated that the distribution was not statistically normal. This

conclusion was drawn from Pallant’s (2005) assertion that a skewness of ± 0.05 is allowed as normal. According to Pallant’s nonparametric statistical analysis is most appropriate, and the medians are a better representative of averages for data which is not normally distributed.

Overall, it was found that the respondents have served between two and 16 years at their various schools, with an average of six years. In the disaggregated results, it was found that the junior staff had a median term of service of five years, whereas a median of 7.5 years was reported for the senior staff. This indicated that the senior staff generally had served longer than their junior counterparts. The results showed that difference between the years of service of the senior and junior staff was statistically significant at an alpha of 0.05 (Mann-Whitney = 118.000; $z = -2.094$; $p\text{-value} = 0.036$). The implication was that, generally senior kitchen staff in SHSs within Kwawu East District had longer experience on their current jobs.

Table 2: Tenureship of the kitchen staff

Rank	n	Min	Max	Mean	Median	Mode	Skewness
Junior	28	2	16	6.53	5.00	4.00	1.066
Senior	14	5	11	7.93	7.50	7.00	0.212
Overall	42	2	16	7.00	6.00	4.00	0.728

Mann-Whitney U = 118.000; $z = -2.094$; $p\text{-value} = 0.036$

Source: Field survey, 2013

The occupational characteristics of the respondents were also examined in terms of their job description. The analysis is based on the premise that the motivational needs may be different for respondents with different job responsibilities. It was found that most of the respondents had multiple responsibilities. Thus, multiple response frequencies were used to analyse the results. From Figure 3, it was found that, cooking (26.7%) was the most prominent task of the kitchen staff. This was done by only the junior staff (36.4%). Next to this was washing (21.3%), which was also the responsibility of only the junior staff (29.1%). The major responsibility of the senior staff was supervision (60%), but other responsibilities of the senior staff included inventory management (9.5%) and keeping of financial accounts and records of the kitchen (9.5%).

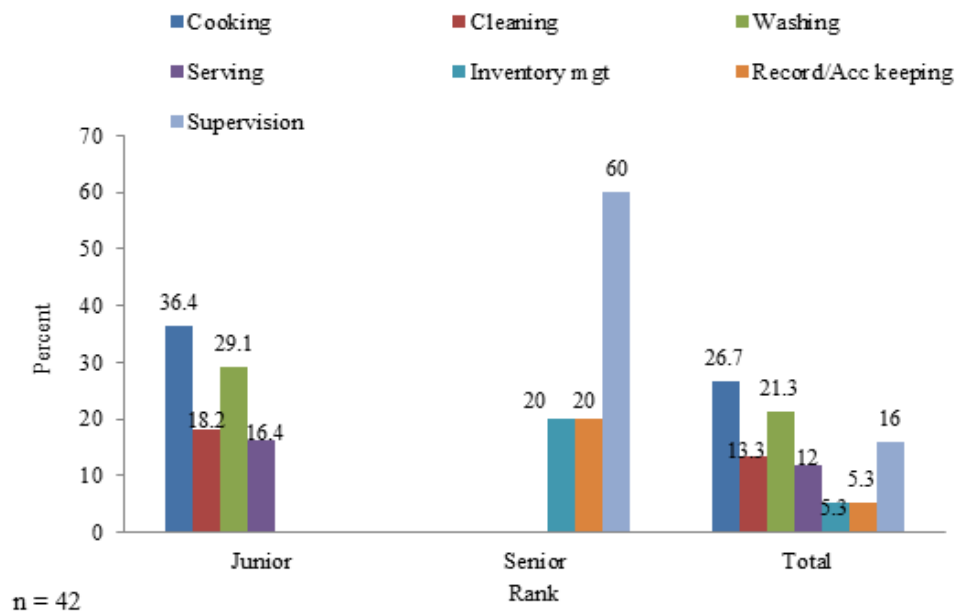


Figure 3: Rank of respondents by duties

Source: Field survey, 2013

The results therefore suggested that the responsibilities of the respondents were differentiated based on the rank of the respondents. This was deduced from the fact that none of the responsibilities of the junior and senior staff overlapped, thus, indicating that, in the kitchen, senior staff have completely different staff from their junior counterparts. The results also implied that motivational concerns would be expressed within different occupational contexts given the diversity in occupational ranks of the respondents, and the fact that the ranks are associated with different needs and job descriptions.

Motivational needs of kitchen staff

According to Miner (2003), identifying the motivational needs of employees is important to the entire production process. It ensures that the right things are being done to motivate the staff, and what management must do to improve the work attitude of staff (Nelson, 2008). Based on these assertions, the current study explored the motivational needs of the respondents. The analysis was in line with the JDI, which is based on questions that provide options agreeing or disagreeing with the item. It also provides an option for 'undecided' responses.

The results, from Table 3, showed that 47.6 percent of the respondents noted that, they did not need any further teamwork or in other words, they were already satisfied with the collaboration of other kitchen staff. Thus, fostering more teamwork was not a motivational need. In the disaggregated responses, it was found that half of the senior staff needed more teamwork, whereas most of

the junior staff (57.1%) did not require more teamwork. It was also found that, the association between the need for teamwork and the rank of staff was not statistically significant at an alpha of 0.05 (chi-square = 3.131; df = 2; p-value = 0.209).

The study also found that, they males were equally divided between needing teamwork and not needing teamwork as a motivator on their jobs. On the other hand, 47.4 percent of the females noted that they would not be motivated by intensifying teamwork, as opposed to those who would be (36.8%).

Table 3: Respondents drive to bond

Variables	Rank		Sex		Total
	Junior f(%)	Senior f(%)	Male f(%)	Female f(%)	
<i>Teamwork</i>					
Require more teamwork	9(32.1)	7(50.0)	2(50.0)	14(36.8)	12(28.6)
Do not require more teamwork	16(57.1)	4(28.6)	2(50.0)	18(47.4)	25(59.5)
Undecided	3(10.7)	3(21.4)	0(0.0)	6(15.8)	6(11.9)
<i>Socialisation</i>					
Require more socialisation	9(32.1)	3(21.4)	1(25.0)	11(28.9)	12(28.6)
Do not require more socialisation	14(50.0)	11(78.6)	3(75.0)	22(57.9)	25(59.5)
Undecided	5(17.9)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	5(13.2)	5(11.9)

Source: Field survey, 2013

Further statistical analysis showed that, there was not statistically significant association between the sex of the respondents and their need for teamwork (chi-square = 3.131; df = 2; p-value = 0.209). Fostering teamwork has been found to be a major motivational approach (Nohria et al., 2008). According to Murphy (2009), this is because the need for teamwork corresponds with employees' drive to bond. Thus, the findings indicate that, the senior employees required some measure of teamwork to fulfil their need to bond. However, most junior staff indicated that they did not require further socialisation with their colleagues. On the other hand, across sex, the male and female employees generally did not require intensified teamwork.

The drive to bond, as established by Nohria et al. (2008), also involves employees' need to socialise at the workplace. In the current study, 50 percent of the junior staff and 78.6 percent of the senior staff disagreed that further socialisation would be motivating. Moreover, no statistically significant association was found between the respondents' ranks and their need to socialise at the workplace (chi-square = 4.155; df = 2; p-value = 0.125). The results of the study also indicated that the majority of the males (75%) and the females (57.9%) were of the view that further socialisation would not be motivating to them. In further indication, the chi-square of 0.724 and the p-value of 0.696 showed that, there was no statistically significant association was found between the respondents' sex and their need to socialise at the workplace. The results, only confirmed earlier findings that, the kitchen staff, generally, were not in any particular need to fulfil their drive to bond at the workplace.

The motivational needs regarding employees' drive to acquire were also analysed. The variables studied included needs concerning salary, fringe benefits, promotion and self-development through training. It was found that, unanimously, all the respondents indicated that an increase in their salary would be motivating. Thus, based on the linkages between employee motivation and morale (Parisi & Weiner, 1999), the study showed that, with respect to the kitchen staff, an increase in pay would heighten their morale. It was also found that, all the respondents were on the view that increasing their fringe benefits, such as medical insurance, rent allowance, risk allowance and transportation allowance would highly motivate them to work (Randolph & Kemery, 2011). Thus, as noted by Nohria et al. (2008), an increase in pay would satisfy the respondents' 'drive to acquire'.

Further analyses indicated that, 90.7 percent of the respondents required promotion as a motivational need. It was found that, most of the staff with responsibilities regarding supervision (66.7%), inventory management (50%) and record keeping (75%) noted that they required some promotion from their current positions. These responsibilities essentially covered the responsibilities of the senior staff. All the other respondents with other responsibilities, including cooking, washing, cleaning and serving also indicated that, they would be motivated to work if it would lead to some promotion.

According to Meyer and Becker (2004), promotion of staff tends to be highly motivating because employees often associate some increasing rewards, such as an increase in salary and status, with promotions. Thus, the drive to

acquire promotion may be towards acquiring the social status or the increase in remuneration and benefits, which are associated with promotions. In several other studies, promotion of staff has been found to be highly motivating (Lawler, 1971; Weiss, 2002).

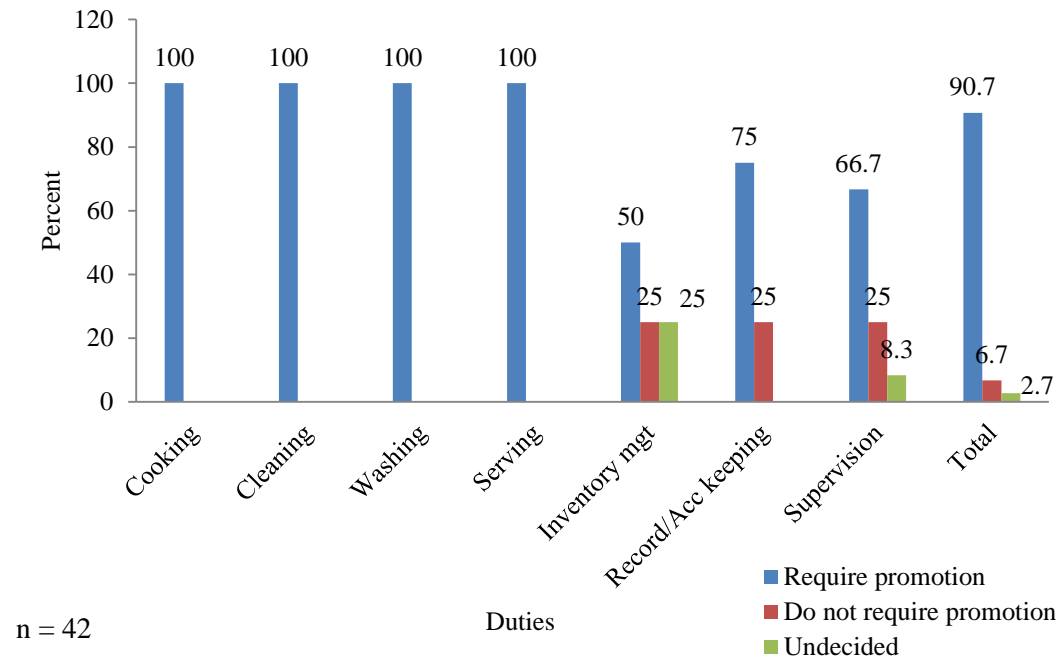


Figure 4: Promotions as employee motivation

Source: Field survey, 2013

The need for training and personal development was also explored by the study. In general, most (66.7%) of the respondents indicated that their motivational needs included the need for training. This was supported by half of the cooks and most of the staff who were responsible for cleaning (70%), washing (68.8%), serving (55.6%), record keeping (75%) and supervision (83.3%). All the respondents with inventory management duties also desired to be trained. This showed that the need for training was one of the major motivational requirements

by the kitchen staff, as indicated by Murray (1995), Deci et al. (1999), as well as Yusuf and Metiboba (2012).

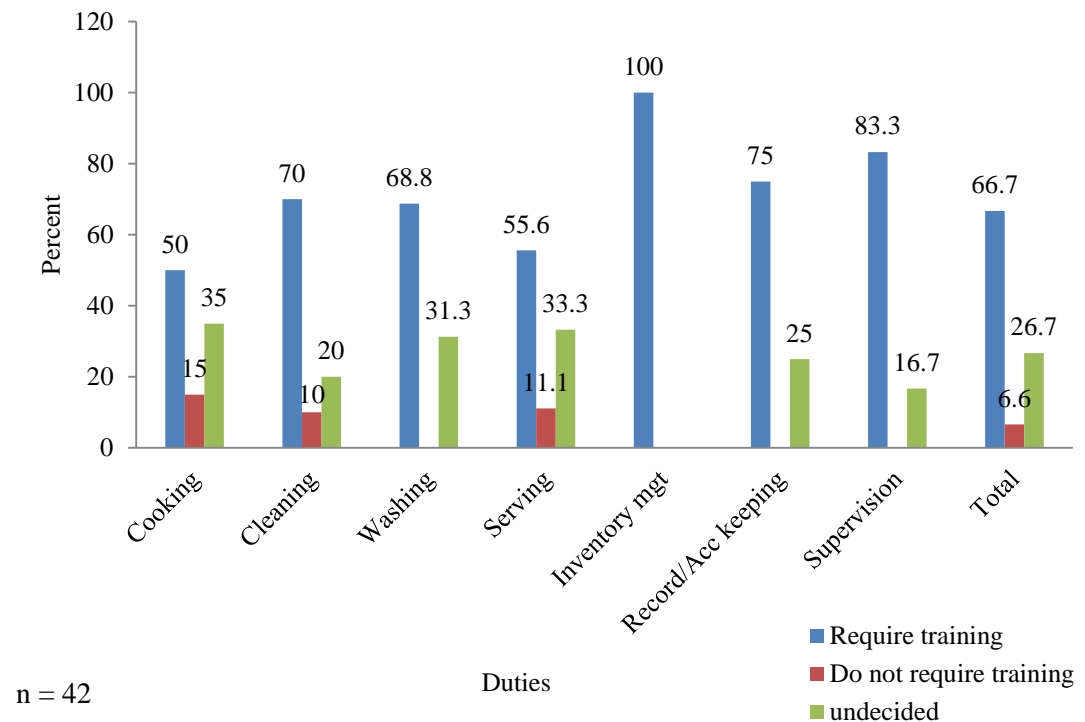


Figure 5: Respondents' need to acquire training

Source: Field survey, 2013

The current study investigated the motivational needs of the kitchen staff within the context of the drive to comprehend. The results showed that 54.8 percent of the respondents indicated that their motivational needs did not include 'understanding the value their jobs to the institutions'. On the other hand, 35.7 percent of the respondents were not sure if further elaboration of their job description would be motivational. In the disaggregated responses, it was found that, while most of the respondents with supervision, cooking, cleaning, washing, account keeping and serving responsibilities were of the view satisfied with the current contribution of their duties to the overall organisation, 50 percent of the

inventory managers were not satisfied. This showed that, generally the respondents were of the view that they did not require further clarification of the purpose of their responsibilities.

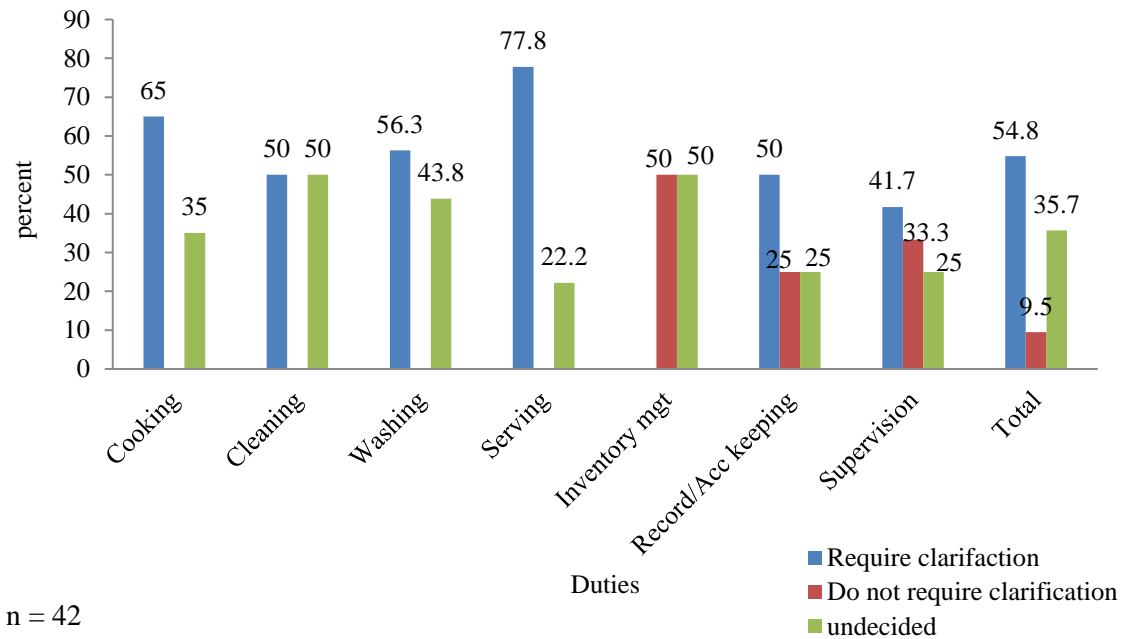


Figure 6: Respondents’ need to comprehend

Source: Field survey, 2013

The respondents were also asked if a more challenging work would motivate them to work better. The study found that 54.7 percent of the respondents noted that a more challenging work would not motivate them to work better. Except for 50 percent of the record keepers, the majority of the respondents with other responsibilities indicated that a more challenging job would not motivate them towards high performance. The findings contradict Saari’s (2000) assertion that employees find challenging job motivating because their abilities get to be used to their fullest extent. In the current study, most of the respondents were not looking forward to any additional challenge to their jobs.

The respondents were asked to rank their motivational needs in order of importance. This was to inform the study of the approach to propose to satisfy the respondents' motivational needs and the areas that needed particular attention. The ratings were analysed using Friedman Rank test as shown in Table 4. Overall, higher salary, with Friedman Rank of 6.89, was rated as the most needed motivation among the respondents.

Table 4: Ranking employees needs

Need	Mean rank		
	Junior staff n= 28	Senior staff n=14	Overall n=42
Higher salary	6.88	6.93	6.89
Job security	4.38	5.43	5.35
Promotion	5.30	4.29	4.52
Fringe benefits	4.64	4.36	4.37
Training and dev.	3.36	3.46	3.39
Teamwork	2.32	2.32	2.32
Socialisation	1.13	1.21	1.15
Chi-square	134.319	65.830	199.808
df	6	6	6
p-value	0.000	0.000	0.000

Source: Field survey, 2013

Higher salary was also ranked highest by both junior and senior kitchen staff. This was followed by job security (5.35), promotion (4.52), fringe benefits (4.37), and training and development (3.39) in that order. This therefore indicated that the motivational techniques of the institutions are expected to be directed towards ensuring, first, higher salaries for the kitchen staff.

The disaggregated results, it was noted that, promotion was more important to junior staff than their job security. However, job security was more important to senior employees, than being promoted. In all, teamwork and socialisation were the least important to the staff. This confirmed the fact that respondents were not in highly requesting to bond with their colleagues, but they were driven by their desire to acquire (Nohria et al., 2008).

Table 5 represents the response of management to some of the requests of employees to fulfil their motivational needs. It was found that the majority (81%) of the respondents indicated that, they had asked for an increment in their salary but their request was not fulfilled. This was common to both junior (89.3%) and senior staff (64.3%). Similarly, most (76.2%) of the respondents noted that they requested for training, but the school was yet to provide them with any of such culinary training or kitchen management training. This was expressed by the majority of the junior (85.7%) and senior staff (57.1%).

Studies have shown that increasing salaries (Lawler, 1971; Laund, 2003) and providing training for employees (Kreitner, 1995; Murray, 1995) can be highly motivational for staff. Thus, they are often used as motivational strategies. Given that the respondents made direct request for higher salaries and training but

in most cases they were not given, the study infers that the respondents were likely to be highly demotivated.

Table 5: Fulfilment of employee requests

Strategy	Rank		
	Junior f(%)	Senior f(%)	Total f(%)
Increased salary			
Agree	3(10.7)	5(35.7)	8(19.0)
Disagree	25(89.3)	9(64.3)	34(81.0)
Training			
Agree	4(14.3)	6(42.9)	10(23.8)
Disagree	24(85.7)	8(57.1)	32(76.2)
Safety			
Agree	11(39.3)	6(42.9)	17(40.5)
Disagree	17(60.7)	8(57.1)	25(59.5)
Replace kitchenware			
Agree	13(46.4)	3(21.4)	16(38.1)
Disagree	15(53.6)	11(78.6)	26(61.9)

Source: Field survey, 2013

Further results also showed that the respondents had requested for more safety measures, such as fire extinguishers, appropriate/protective clothing including aprons, proper ventilation, and regular maintenance of electrical

sockets, and gas regulators, but most (59.5%) of the respondents noted that the request had not been fulfilled. Similarly, there had been requests for the replacement of kitchenware, but in most cases, the respondents (61.9%) noted that such requests had also not been fulfilled. Generally, therefore, the findings indicated that none of the direct requests made by the kitchen staff had been fulfilled. According to Spector (1997), neglected or unfulfilled staff requests can lower employee morale and lead to negative work attitudes.

Strategies used to motivate staff

The heads of the schools, who were also the key informants, were interviewed on the motivational strategies which they employ to motivate their kitchen staff. This formed the basis for the analyses of the staff motivational strategies.

A key informant indicated that generally the kitchen staff receive lower salaries than teachers and within the kitchen staff, pay grade varied considerably. It was also noted that some of the kitchen staff had made formal and informal complaints about their pay grade but the informants agreed that, matters with the salaries of the kitchen staff were to be dealt with by the District Directorate of Education or the Ministry of Education. Thus, it was not within their power to raise the pay of the kitchen staff or to enrol them on training programmes, since they are on the government payroll.

Some of the key informants also noted that, some kitchen staff had requested for the installation of gas cookers and the replacement of utensils and

other cooking ware. However, all expenditures from the school coffers were to be procured and approved by the District Directorate of Education. As such, only the approved replacements could be made by the school.

The findings confirm that salaries of kitchen staff are generally low in comparison to other staff in the schools. For example, in the USA it was reported that the salaries of kitchen staff are about 59 percent lower than average salaries for all job postings (Washuk, 2012). Similarly, Washuk (2012) also indicated that school kitchen staff in the Lewiston-Auburn are generally lower than teachers' salaries. In Ghana, Dogbevi (2009) deduced that kitchen staff are given less attention because, while teachers' demand for salary increase were being partially fulfilled, the requests of the kitchen staff were not given adequate attention by the government.

The general management style can also be a motivating factor for employees (Sikorska-Simmons, 2006). Thus, the study explored the motivational techniques that are employed through the management of the kitchen staff. According to the findings, most (88.1%) of the respondents were of the view that management explained their duties to them clearly (Table 6). On the other hand, 69 percent of the respondents also expressed that they were motivated through the support given by their supervisors. For junior staff, 67.9 percent indicated that they were motivated by support from supervisors, and similarly, 71.4 percent of the senior staff noted that management was supportive of their duties. It was also found that 57.1 percent of the respondents were motivated through assurances of

their job security. This was expressed by 53.6 percent of the junior staff and 64.3 percent of the senior staff.

Table 6: Management strategy for motivating staff

Management strategy	Rank		Total
	Junior	Senior	
Clarification of duties			
Agree	25(89.3)	12(85.7)	37(88.1)
Disagree	3(10.7)	2(14.3)	5(11.9)
Support of management			
Agree	19(67.9)	10(71.4)	29(69.0)
Disagree	7(25.0)	4(28.6)	11(26.2)
Uncertain	2(7.1)	0(0.0)	2(4.8)
Assuring job security			
Agree	15(53.6)	9(64.3)	24(57.1)
Disagree	13(46.4)	5(35.7)	18(42.9)

Source: Field survey, 2013

Nohria et al. (2008) classified job security is under employees' 'drive to defend'. The common assertion in literature is that employees are motivated to work harder, gain confidence in themselves and contribute to organisational goals when they their job security is not threatened (Saari, 2000). On the other hand, some employees may be complacent and develop poor work attitudes when they are certain of their job security (Schleicher et al., 2004).

The key informants were also interviewed on the strategies that the school management adopts to motivate their kitchen staff. It was found that, generally, the head of the school were advocates to the District Directorate of Education, on behalf of the kitchen staff. Thus, one strategy to motivate the kitchen staff was by showing interest and concern about their plight and being the lead advocate the District Directorate of Education. However, the key informants generally agreed that their efforts had yielded little results, especially in the areas of increasing the salaries and working conditions of the kitchen staff. For example, while many of the teachers had residence on campus, none of the kitchen staff had yet attained those benefits.

One key informant explained that, most of the junior staff in the kitchen, for example, the cleaners, were casual employees of the schools and thus, they were not particularly assigned for promotions, training, and other fringe benefits. However, the matrons and their assistants, as well as the record and inventory managers had relatively longer arrangements with the schools and were on government payroll.

Factors influencing the work attitude of kitchen staff

According to Kyuhan and Chinsung (1997), job satisfaction influences job attitudes. Therefore, the state of employee satisfaction with their working conditions would influence their work attitudes. In essence, Riketta (2008) indicated that, in order to positively influence job attitudes towards it is pertinent to maintain high job satisfaction among employees.

In the current study, the majority (66%) of the employees indicated that, a reduction in their salaries would engender negative attitudes towards their work. Similarly, the majority (45.7%) of respondents noted that instabilities in salaries would have unfavourable consequences on their performance (Table 6). The results also indicated that the kitchen would generally be demotivated if they perceived insecurity in their line of jobs (52.1%). It was also found that 46.8 percent of the respondents indicated that the lack of career development opportunities contribute to negative work attitudes among the staff.

Table 7: Factors demotivating kitchen staff

Factors	Response			Total
	Agree	Disagree	Undecided	
Reduced salaries	28(66.0)	8(19.1)	6(14.9)	42(100.0)
Overdue salary	19(45.7)	17(39.4)	6(14.9)	42(100.0)
Unfair remuneration	27(64.9)	11(25.5)	4(9.6)	42(100.0)
Job insecurity	22(52.1)	13(31.9)	7(16.0)	42(100.0)
Lack of career development	20(46.8)	16(38.3)	6(14.9)	42(100.0)
Undesirable working environment	30(72.3)	7(16.0)	5(11.7)	42(100.0)

Source: Field survey, 2013

These findings confirm several studies, such as Meyer and Becker (2004) which assert that those factors including job insecurity, unfair remuneration, lack of opportunities for career development, as well as undesirable working

environment can be demotivating for employees. In the case of the kitchen staff in SHSs within the Kwawu East district, overdue salaries, job allowance, job security, as well as opportunities for promotions and career development, are perceived as demotivating with possible negative effects on performance.

The respondents were also asked to identify the factors in their working environment that reinforce positive work attitudes within them. The findings of the study indicated that, (34%) of the respondents were of the view that cordial work relations among the staff encouraged positive work attitudes among the employees (Table 8).

Table 8: Factors reinforcing positive attitudes among kitchen staff

Factors	Frequency	Percent
Social relations	31	34.0
Good supervision	22	24.2
Support from supervisors	16	17.6
Self interest	12	13.2
Job security	10	11.0
Total	91*	100.0

*Multiple responses; n = 42

Source: Field survey, 2013

Some of the respondents also noted that fair supervision (24.2%) and support of supervisors (17.6%) also contributed to positive work attitudes among

the staff. For others, what created positive work attitudes among the workers were their own interest in the job (13.2%) and their job security (11%).

The findings confirmed the fact that positive job attitudes may be derived from job security, good social relations at the workplace, as indicated by Riketta (2008). Therefore, this attests to the indication that, as long as employees are satisfied with their working conditions, they are bound to show positive attitudes towards work.

The respondents were also asked about the work situation that contributed to negative work attitudes among the staff. It was found that 23.4 percent of the responses showed that, low salaries for the kitchen staff encouraged negative work attitudes among them (Table 9). Moreover, the lack of in-service training for kitchen staff (22.8%), lack of retirement benefits (15.2%), and low recognition for the needs of the kitchen staff (13.5%) also contributed to negative work attitudes among the kitchen staff.

According to Reiss (2004), salary represents the monetary worth of work done and also the level of appreciation of an employee's productivity. Thus, employees are often keen about their salaries as it forms an important motivational component of the working environment. In the case of the kitchen staff, low salaries were a major contributing factor to negative job attitudes.

Related to salaries is the expected retirement benefits of which also had a negative effect on the employees' work attitude. Robbins and Judge (2007) comment that the long term benefits from a job are often important as much as the interim rewards gained. Expectations of a desirable benefit in the future, such as

retirement benefits, can have energising effects on the performance of staff. The other factors, such as the lack of in-service training, low recognition for the needs of the kitchen staff, unfair salaries, monotony of work and heavy workload resulting from understaffing have also been confirmed as major demoralising factors (Cohen, 2003).

Table 9: Factors causing negative work attitudes among kitchen staff

Factors	Frequency	Percent
Low salary	40	23.4
Lack of in-service training	39	22.8
Lack of retirement benefits	26	15.2
Low recognition	23	13.5
Unhygienic environment	14	8.2
Unfair salaries	13	7.6
Monotony of work	10	5.8
Understaffing	6	3.5
Total	171*	100.0

*Multiple responses; n = 42

Source: Field survey, 2013

Summary

The chapter analysed the motivation and attitudes of kitchen staff in SHSs in the Kwawu East District. It was found that, kitchen staff are poorly motivated

and that affected their work attitudes negatively. The next chapter presents the summary of the study, conclusions on the research questions and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter presents the summary of major findings of the study. It also presents the conclusions drawn from the study as well as recommendations based on the findings. The first section of the chapter summarises the entire study and also presents the key findings. This is followed by the conclusions and recommendations drawn from the findings. Suggestions for further studies are added in the end.

Summary

The study set out to examine the morale and attitude towards work among kitchen staff in senior high schools (SHSs) within the Kwawu East District. Descriptive and cross-sectional designs were adopted to study 42 kitchen personnel and seven Principals of the SHSs in the District. Interview schedules were used to collect data from the staff and data from the Principals were elicited with interview guides. The quantitative data were analysed using frequencies, and percentages. Chi-squares with their associated p-values were used to test for the statistical significance of the association and differences between the study variables.

As the first objective, the study examined the motivational needs of the kitchen staff, and the major findings were that:

1. The staff were generally not in need of bonding through teamwork or socialisation. This was true for both junior and senior staff.
2. Most (90.7%) of the staff expressed the need for promotion. This was the case for all the cooking, cleaning, washing, serving staff and most of the inventory managers (50%), bookkeepers (75%) and supervisors (66.7%).
3. Most of the kitchen staff wanted on-the-job training. This was expressed by most of respondents whose responsibilities involved cooking (50%), cleaning (70%), washing (68.8%), serving (55.6%), record keeping (75%) and supervision (88.3%) and all those with inventory management duties.
4. Overall, the need for higher salaries ranked highest among all the employees' needs. Other needs included job security, promotion, fringe benefits, and training and development.

The second objective examined the motivational strategies for kitchen staff of SHSs, and it was found that:

1. Most (81%) of the employees indicated that, they had asked for an increment in their salary but their request was not fulfilled. The key informants generally agreed that their efforts had yielded little results, especially in the areas of increasing the salaries and working conditions of the kitchen staff.
2. Most (76.2%) of the respondents noted that they requested for training, but the school was yet to provide them with any of such culinary training or kitchen management training.

3. Most (88.1%) of the respondents were of the view that management explained their duties to them clearly.
4. Sixty-nine percent of the respondents also expressed that they were motivated through the support given by their supervisors.

The final objective examined the factors influencing the attitude of kitchen staff, and the major findings were that:

1. The staff were likely to be demotivated in cases where their salaries were reduced, there were unfairness in their remuneration, they experience job insecurity, and in the case of poor working conditions.
2. The factors reinforcing positive attitudes among the staff were good social relations, good supervision, the support of staff, their interest and their job security.
3. The factors causing negative work attitudes among the kitchen staff included low salary, lack of in-service training, lack of retirement benefits, low recognition of efforts, and monotony of work.

Conclusions

The conclusions of the study are drawn from the major findings and in relation to the research questions. The study concluded that the motivational needs of the kitchen staff was mostly on the increment of their salary. Other needs concerned their job security, career progression, benefits and training. However, most of the needs of the staff had been fulfilled by the school management. On the other hand, support from the supervisors was one major motivating factor for

the kitchen staff. In terms of job attitudes, cordial staff relations, fairness in supervision, interest and job security reinforced positive attitudes among the staff, where as negative work attitudes among the kitchen staff were underlain by low salary, lack of in-service training, lack of retirement benefits, low recognition of efforts, and monotony of work.

Recommendations

The recommendations of the study are based on the major findings and the conclusions. They are aimed at improving the response to motivational needs and kitchen staff, which can lead to positive work attitudes. The kitchen staff are advised to

1. Make formal advocates to the school's management concerning their motivational needs. Making such needs formally known to the Directorate would be the foremost step in ensuring that these needs are considered for redress.

The school Principals were to:

1. Pass on the concerns of the kitchen staff the Directorate of Education for redress. Getting involved in the advocate for the kitchen staff can be motivational for the staff.
2. Make formal complaints to the Directorate on the salaries, replacement of kitchen ware, training of kitchen staff, as well as improving the working environment of the kitchen.

3. Maintain a good social relationship with the senior and junior kitchen staff, and also give enough recognition to the efforts made by the kitchen staff.
4. Reinforce a sense of job security among the staff, since they were motivated by the idea that their jobs were secure.

Suggestions for further studies

The study covered only SHSs in the Kwawu East District. However, the scope can be expanded to cover SHSs in other districts in order to gain a comprehensive view of the motivation and attitudes of kitchen staff in SHSs in Ghana. Moreover, the much emphasis was not placed on exploring the motivational policies of staff in the SHSs. This can be the focus of future studies.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR KITCHEN STAFF

Dear Sir/Madam

This is an academic study dubbed: Morale and attitude among kitchen staff in SHSs in the Kwawu East District. The quest for information is principally for academic purposes. Responses provided shall be treated confidentially and uniquely for the stated purpose. Please be candid in expressing your opinions closest to the way you feel about an issue.

Thank you for your time

Section A: Background data

1. Sex
 - a. Male
 - b. Female
2. Please state your age.....
3. Highest level of educational attainment
 - a. None
 - b. Basic
 - c. Secondary
 - d. Technical/ Diploma
 - e. First degree
 - f. Post graduate

4. What is your rank?
 - a. Junior
 - b. Senior
5. How long have you worked in this school?.....
6. What are your main occupational responsibilities?
 - a. Cooking
 - b. Cleaning
 - c. Serving
 - d. Washing
 - e. Supervision
 - f. Other specify

Section B: Motivational needs of staff

7. Which of the following are congruent to your motivational needs?

Needs	Yes	No
Teamwork		
Socialisation		
Promotions		
More salary		
Fringe benefits and allowances		
Training		
Clarification of job responsibilities		

8. Please rank the following from 1 to 7, where 1 is the least needed and 7 is the most needed.

Motivational needs	Rank
Higher salary	
Job security	
Promotion	
Fringe benefits	
Training and dev.	
Teamwork	
Socialisation	

9. Which of the following requests have been fulfilled by management of the school.

Request	Agree	Disagree	Not applicable
Higher salary			
Training			
Safer working environment			
Replacement of kitchenware			

Section C: Motivational strategies of kitchen staff

10. Indicate briefly how the managerial staff of the kitchen motivate the kitchen staff.....

11. Which of the following are likely to dampen the morale of the kitchen staff?

	Agree	Disagree	Undecided
Reduced salaries			
Salary instability			
Unfair remuneration			
Job insecurity			
Lack of career development			
Undesirable working environment			

Section D: Factors influencing attitude of workers

12. Which of the following factors reinforce positive attitudes among workers in the kitchen?

- a. Good social relations
- b. Good supervision
- c. Support from supervisors
- d. Job security
- e. Other, please specify

13. Which of the following are factors that cause negative work attitudes among the kitchen staff?

- a. Low salary
- b. Lack of in-service training
- c. Lack of retirement benefits
- d. Low recognition
- e. Monotony of work
- f. Other, please specify

Thank you for your time

APPENDIX 2

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Dear Sir/Madam

This is an academic study dubbed: Morale and attitude among kitchen staff in SHSs in the Kwawu East District. The quest for information is principally for academic purposes. Responses provided shall be treated confidentially and uniquely for the stated purpose. Please be candid in expressing your opinions closest to the way you feel about an issue.

Thank you for your time

1. What are some of the requests made by the kitchen staff?
2. How are these requests managed?
3. What body/ institution is primarily responsible for motivating kitchen staff?
4. How are kitchen staff of the school motivated internally?
5. How successful has been the efforts to motivate the kitchen staff?

Thank you for your time