

**INCENTIVE SCHEMES FOR LOCAL GOVERNMENT EMPLOYEES AND
COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT IN KONTAGORA
NIGER STATE, NIGERIA**

By

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DECLARATION

This Dissertation is my original work and it has never been presented for any award in any university or institution of learning.

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10 - Nov - 2014

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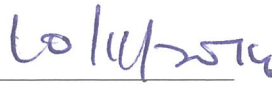
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APPROVAL

I confirm that this work was done by the candidate under my supervision.



Dr. Tom Mulegi



Date

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my very supportive parents particularly my mother Hajiya Hauwa'u, my wife Zainab, my children; Hauwa'u and Aisha and my close friends and colleagues.

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All praise is due to Allah (SWT) the lord of the world may the blessing and salutations of Allah be upon prophet Muhammed (SAW), his family (Ahalibaiti Rasulu), his companions and those that follow his path, particularly Maulana Al-Shekh Ibrahim Inyas (RA).

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	ii
APPROVAL	iii
DEDICATION	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	v
LIST OF TABLES	x
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xi
LISTS OF ABBREVIATIONS.....	xii
ABSTRACT.....	xiii
CHAPTER ONE	1
1.0 Introduction.....	1
1.1 Background of the Study	1
1.1.1 Historical Perspective	1
1.1.2 Theoretical Perspective	3
1.1.3 Conceptual Perspective	4
1.1.4 Contextual Perspective.....	5
1.2 Problem Statement.....	5
1.3 Purpose of the Study	6
1.4 Research Objectives	6
1.5 Research Questions.....	6
1.6 Hypothesis.....	7
1.7 Scope of the Study.....	7
1.8 Significance of the Study	7
1.9 Operational Definition of Key terms	8
CHAPTER TWO	9
LITERATURE REVIEW	9
2.0 Introduction.....	9
2.1 Theoretical perspective	9
2.2 Conceptual Framework.....	10
2.3 Review of Literature.....	12
2.3.1 Incentive Schemes	12

2.3.1.1 Cash Incentives.....	13
2.3.1.2 Recognition	15
2.3.1.3 Special Opportunities.....	17
2.3.2 Community Development	18
2.3.2.1 Agricultural Productivity	20
2.3.2.2 Access to information	22
2.3.2.3 Political Participation.....	25
2.3.3 The Relationship between Incentive Schemes and Community Development	28
CHAPTER THREE.....	32
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	32
3.0 Introduction.....	32
3.1 Research Design	32
3.2 Area of Study	32
3.2 Research Population	32
3.3 Sample Size.....	32
3.4 Sampling Procedure.....	33
3.5 Research Instrument	34
3.6 Validity and Reliability of the Instrument	35
3.7 Data Gathering procedure	36
3.8 Data Analysis	36
3.9 Ethical Considerations	37
3.10 Limitations of the Study.....	37
CHAPTER FOUR.....	38
DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION.....	38
4.0 Introduction.....	38
4.1 Demographic characteristics of respondents.....	38
4.2 The Level of Incentive Schemes	41
4.3 The Level of Community Development	47
4.4 The Relationship between the Level of Incentive Schemes and Community Development in Kontagora Local Government.....	51
CHAPTER FIVE.....	55
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	55

5.1 Introduction.....	55
5.2 Summary of the findings.....	55
5.3 Conclusion	55
5.4 Recommendation.....	57
5.5 Areas for further Research	58
References.....	59
APPENDICES	67

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
3.1 Population and Sample size of the respondents	32
3.2 Reliability Analysis showing Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients for Reliability of Instruments	34
4.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents	40
4.2 The Level of Incentive schemes	42
4.3 The Level of Community Development in KontagoraLocal Government	45
4.4 The Relationship between the Level of Incentive Schemes and Community Development in KontagoraLocal Government	48
4.5 The Regression Analysis between the Dependent and Independent Variable	49
4.6 Coefficients of regression analysis between the dependent variable and the variables that measured the independent variable	49

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
1	Conceptual framework	11

LISTS OF ABBREVIATIONS

CDC	Community Development Corporations
CDE	Community Development Exchange
IBM	International Business Machine
LGA	Local Government Assessment
LGDP	Local Government Development Programme
LGMSD	Local Government Management Service Delivery Programme
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
UK	United Kingdom
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
USA	United States of America

ABSTRACT

This study investigated incentive schemes and community development in Kontagora Local Government, Niger State, Nigeria. The following objectives guided the study: i) to determine the level of incentive schemes in terms of cash incentives, recognition and special opportunities among employees in Kontagora Local Government; ii) to establish the extent of community development in terms of agricultural productivity, access to information and political participation in Kontagora Local Government and iii) to examine the relationship between incentive schemes and community development in Kontagora Local Government. The study employed a cross-sectional survey design. Data were collected using researcher devised questionnaires. Pearson correlation (r) was used to establish the correlation between incentive schemes and community development. Regression analysis was used to establish the variations between the independent and dependent variables. The study findings in regard to the level of incentive schemes revealed a general average mean of (2.97) which was interpreted as satisfactory. In regard to the level of community development, the study established a general average mean of (3.42) and was interpreted as very satisfactory. The study established a negative correlation between the level of incentive schemes among employees and the level of community development hence the null hypothesis was accepted. Regression analysis results revealed that the variations in the level of incentive schemes could only affect 0.6% of the variations in the level of community development. The study concluded that the Local Government uses incentive schemes such as cash incentives, recognition and special opportunities but with a lot of biasness. The local community also has poor information access and they do not participate in voting. The study recommended that the institution should employ mixed reward system, that is, both cash and non cash reward system in order to motivate their employees. In order to improve information access, the study recommended that more funds should be allocated to construct modern roads. In order to encourage the local mass to participate in voting, the study recommended the involvement of different stakeholders, the media and NGOs in sensitizing the local mass on the importance of voting.

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 Introduction

Incentive scheme is a formal scheme used to promote or encourage specific actions or behavior by a specific group of people during a defined period of time. Incentive schemes are often aligned with the behaviours that help achieve organizational goals or performance. Incentives are either individual or group (organization wide). In this study, financial incentives were designed to motivate members of the local community to improve their participation in community development – in an effort to improve service delivery. This financial compensation provides extra money for achievement in terms of contribution or output of the community members to community development initiatives. The “concrete” benefits of community development, such as employment and infrastructure, come through local people changing attitudes, mobilizing existing skills, improving networks, thinking differently about problems, and using community assets in new ways. Community development improves the situation of a community, not just economically, but also as a strong functioning community in itself.

1.1 Background of the Study

1.1.1 Historical Perspective

Historically, incentives schemes began in the United States when manufacturing companies in the 1920s started making high-performing employees to receive bigger salary increases than their lower-performing peers, especially when annual merit increases were averaging higher as a result of increasing inflation, but today, it has become increasingly more difficult to differentiate between the salaries of individual employees based on high or low performance. In order to supplement these merit increases, many companies have started implementing pay-for-performance incentive schemes (Orens and Elliot, 2002). There is thus a trend towards implementing performance-based incentive schemes and in particular an increase in the use of incentive schemes for communities other than executives. In South Africa, variable pay and in particular incentive schemes have been implemented for community members in an attempt to enable them participate in community development initiatives in their areas. In Nigeria two major components of compensation are open to management: material and the non-material components. These incentive schemes in the form of reward is been used in most Nigerian states with Niger state having no exception as a way of motivating community members to participate in community development activities brought by the NGOs.

The concept of community development originated in the late nineteenth century when reformers discovered America's "backward" areas. Socially committed women and men in Settlement Houses and charitable organizations confronted the ills of industrial capitalism: poorly paid African American immigrant and racial minority wage workers crowded into tenement apartments, cottages, and shacks in seedy neighborhoods near docks, trains, and factories. During the Progressive Era of the early twentieth century, urban reformers connected poverty, overcrowding, crime, youth delinquency, and sundry other social ills to the unsanitary and unsightly slums where the working poor and indigents lived (Alexander, 2012). Congress took a major step when, after years of haggling with the Nixon administration over its proposed bill, it passed the landmark Housing and Community Development Act of 1974. The law replaced the unpopular urban renewal program and the idealistic but poorly conceived Model Cities and other categorical programs with community development block grants (CDBGs) to local governments. Although the act allowed governments to use block grants for a range of activities, it required that at least some of the funds help low-income families. Three years later, the Carter administration reinforced this goal through the Urban Development Action Grant program to target additional funds to inner-city areas in extreme economic distress. With these prods, many local government agencies began to contract redevelopment work to neighborhood nonprofit organizations, including community action agencies and CDCs (Alexander, 2012).

In Britain for instance, by the start of the new millennium it was clear that the map of poverty had changed once again. In the large cities where the community development movement was strongest, the changes that had begun in inner-city communities now reached or passed a tipping point. Where once only a CDC or a few urban pioneers had seen the potential value of a neighborhood, an influence of upper-middle-class and wealthy professionals had driven up rents and home prices far above what unsubsidized low-income families could pay. In such gentrified places, subsidized affordable housing projects built in an earlier era of economic need now helped maintain a mixed-income character. Immigration also transformed the ethnicity of neighborhoods (Kerne, 2007).

In Africa, community development initiatives are as old as history of the continent itself. For, before the coming of the colonial masters, Africa communities often employed communal efforts as the means of mobilizing community resources with the aim of developing their localities. In as

much as community development is meant to advance the total wellbeing of the individual as well as the socio-economic advancement of the nation at large, it is believed that incentive schemes and enlightenment of everybody to education can significantly fast-track the process (Babatunde, Olorunsanye and Adejola, 2008). According to a 2009 Ugandan workshop report, incentive based schemes have been scaled up for Local Governments to access budget support funding based on their development plans. Annual performance assessments are conducted across all Local Government Assessments (LGA) to determine accessibility to funding. In particular, the Local Government Development Programme (LGDP) (2000-2007) and the Local Government Management Service Delivery Programme (LGMSD) have championed the application of incentives as a way of enforcing harmonization and alignment of development assistance. LGDP created greater donor efforts to harmonize through abolition of area (district) based programmes to consolidated budget support.

In Nigeria, government attempted to correct the distortion problems of donor-driven salary top ups and project implementation units and through its “Rectangular Strategy”, increased civil service pay between 10 – 15% per annum in priority areas. This scheme motivated employees and evident of positive results on the Local Government and the economy were visible. However community development is still at its very low state in this country. Since Nigeria’s independence in 1960, the vast rural communities are in a deplorable state. It is an established fact that majority of Nigerians that live in rural communities are characterized by illiteracy, disease, neglect, exploration and inequality. Most of the rural areas suffer from inadequate provision of social service, from social infrastructure and employment opportunities, low life expectancy, malnutrition and diseases (Adelemo, 1993). As regard to the level of economic development, quality of life, access to opportunities, facilities and amenities, standard of living and general liability, the gap between the urban and rural communities in Nigeria is very large and noticeable. This study therefore investigated incentive schemes among employees and community development in Kontagora Local Government in Niger State, Nigeria.

1.1.2 Theoretical Perspective

This study used Reinforcement theory of motivation by Skinner (1974). The theory states that individual’s behaviour is a function of its consequences. It is based on “law of effect”, that is,

individual's behaviour with positive consequences tends to be repeated, but individual's behaviour with negative consequences tends not to be repeated. This implies that having an incentive scheme targeted at motivating members of the local community to be involved in community development initiatives such as building boreholes, school construction, and building feeder roads can make them have the enthusiasm to participate passionately and if such motivational factors such as rewards are withdrawn, even their participation can easily deteriorate. Reinforcement theory of motivation overlooks the internal state of individual, that is, the inner feelings and drives of individuals are ignored by Skinner. This theory focuses totally on what happens to an individual when he takes some action. Thus, according to Skinner, the external environment of the organization must be designed effectively and positively so as to motivate the employee. In respect to reinforcement theory of motivation, when the local communities are rewarded with cash for their participation in community development activities, their participation and sacrifice to accomplish the work at hand increases while when the same reward is withdrawn, even their participation drops. This study used reinforcement theory because it helps in establishing the behavior of the community when they are influenced by an incentive scheme.

1.1.3 Conceptual Perspective

According to United Nations Development Programme (2006), incentive scheme is a program implemented by an organization deliberately intended to induce or encourage a specific action by using incentives. Used in companies to motivate employees to higher levels of productivity and as part of marketing or advertising campaigns to influence consumer buying behavior. Incentive schemes as defined by Graffin and Ebert (1993) are special pay programmes designed to motivate high performance. Incentive schemes attempt to link at least a portion of pay to job performance to encourage higher productivity. The operational definition for incentive scheme in this study shall be cash incentives, recognition and special opportunities among employees.

According to Cavaye (2000), community development is a process where local people can not only create more jobs income and infrastructure, but also help their community become fundamentally better to be able to manage change. According to Anyanwu (2001), community development is the fullest and best sense for the stimulation of the desire for better things and the urge to attain such better things. "Community development according to him strives to educate

and motivate people for self help with a view to developing responsible local leadership among them, as well inculcating in them a sense of citizenship and a spirit of civil consciousness”. The operational definition of community development for this study will mean agricultural productivity, access to information and political participation.

1.1.4 Contextual Perspective

The Kontagora Local Government is adopting incentive schemes among employees because of the slow pace at which projects aimed at community development are being implemented. Specifically incentive schemes to be explained shall include financial and non-financial incentive schemes. Community development initiatives in northern Kontagora for instance have failed to adapt to changing circumstances and most of them have missed out on funding opportunities which are intended to enable them to expand or change direction (Adeyebor, 2012). This is because most of the community leaders and representatives are not properly selected by the ward board members and are not held accountable to the local people and have since been ineffective on partnership boards. This has made different interests in communities unable to reach a consensus or vision that articulates their views to others and as a consequence their interests do not register in public decision-making.

This has made sections of the local population not able to participate in activities that are intended for the whole community development because prejudices, assumptions and cultural differences are not tackled public agencies and departments that need to engage with local communities are unaware of each other's efforts, lack insight into how communities work and have few channels for dialogue with them.

1.2 Problem Statement

In Kontagora, there are few community groups, and many individuals do not realize that the issues that concern them are shared by others and can be affected by joint action. The most disadvantaged people receive poor quality public services, are least confident and skilled at representing their needs to authorities. According to United Nations Development Programme (2012), some of the groups that do exist have remained small and exclusive, dominated by cliques or strong individuals who keep decision-making (and sometimes benefits) to themselves. Kontagora Local Government has been confronted with the problem of developing its communities. It could easily be seen that the rural communities in Kontagora are characterized

by serious challenges of underdevelopment of various ramifications; in terms of infrastructural facilities and services. For instance, an effort towards community development in Kontagora Local Government embarked on road construction in 2010 and has since been abandoned without completion UNDP (2012). This has affected road network since the communities are difficult to research and hence cannot participate effectively in any developmental initiatives. This could have been influenced by numbers of factors, of which appropriate use of incentive schemes could be one. This study investigated the impact of incentive schemes on community development in Kontagora Local Government.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

This study was undertaken to investigate the relationship between incentive schemes and Community Development in Kontagora, Niger State Nigeria.

1.4 Research Objectives

- i. To study incentive schemes in terms of cash incentives, recognition and special opportunities among employees in Kontagora Local Government.
- ii. To find out the extent of community development in terms of agricultural productivity, access to information and political participation in Kontagora Local Government.
- iii. To examine the relationship between incentive schemes and community development in Kontagora Local Government.

1.5 Research Questions

- i. What is the level of incentive schemes in terms of cash incentives, recognition and special opportunities among employees in Kontagora Local Government?
- ii. What is the level of community development in terms of agricultural productivity, access to information and political participation in Kontagora Local Government?
- iii. Is there any significant relationship between incentive schemes among employees and community development in Kontagora Local Government?

1.6 Hypothesis

There is no significant relationship between incentive schemes among employees and community development in Kontagora Local Government.

1.7 Scope of the Study

Geographical Scope: this study was conducted in Kontagora. Kontagora is a major town on the south bank of the Kontagora River in north-central Niger State, bordered by Mariga in the North, Mashegu in the East, Magama in the West and Rijau in the South. Kontagora Local Government was chosen for this study because it is one of the largest Local Government areas in Niger state with 13 wards and therefore it was selected because it had the majority composition of the respondents who would give relevant information regarding the study.

Theoretical scope: This study was guided by Skinner's (1974) reinforcement theory. The theory states that individual's behaviour is a function of its consequences. It is based on "law of effect"-individual's behaviour with positive consequences tends to be repeated, but individual's behaviour with negative consequences tends not to be repeated.

Content Scope: This study looked at incentive schemes (independent variable) in terms of cash incentives, recognition and special opportunities and community development (dependent variable) in terms of agricultural productivity, access to information and political participation and relationship between incentive schemes and community development in Kontagora Local Government.

Time scope: This study looked at the period from 2010-2013. This was the period when many projects intended for community development were unsuccessful in Kontagora local government.

1.8 Significance of the Study

It was hoped that the knowledge from this study would help the Local Government to apply incentive schemes to their employees so that they could be well motivated. This would enable

them to promote projects that could increase the rate of community development initiatives, efforts and activities.

It was also hoped that this study would help **policy makers** to come up with strict policies that would help promote poverty reduction. It would help policy makers to formulate policies that address skill development among the youth. This would include provision of adequate vocational training centers to equip youths in particular for self-employment, and facilitate maintenance of community level projects.

It is hoped that this study would help **Non-governmental organizations** to help the government in the development of the local community. Different programmes by NGOs would help improve the health sector, education sector, agricultural sector and transport sector and provide employment opportunities to the local community.

This study would add knowledge to the existing literature which would serve as a source of reference for **future researchers** who might embark on a similar study.

1.9 Operational Definition of Key terms

Incentive scheme: refers to cash incentives, recognition and special opportunities.

Community development: refers to agricultural productivity, access to information and political participation.

Financial incentive schemes: shall refer to premium bonus, profit sharing, measured day work, simple piece, geared incentive scheme and group-incentive scheme.

Non-financial schemes: shall refer to safety programme, the working condition, participation of work and decision making, good supervision, promotion and job security.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter presents literature review, first starting with the theoretical perspective, followed by the conceptual framework and finally the objectives of the study.

2.1 Theoretical perspective

This study adopted Skinner's (1974) reinforcement theory which states that "an individual's behavior is a function of its consequences." Skinner observed that either positive or negative behaviors can be targeted, but in a community setting, focusing on rewarding desired behavior helps members of the community to develop positive habits and are less likely to foster resentment than a more punitive approach.

Banaji (2011) asserts that the use of reinforcement to motivate the local communities should be a positive experience for everyone. Unclear incentive schemes tend to frustrate the participating communities and reduce the tendency to attempt the desired behavior. Similarly, rewarding only impossible or extremely difficult tasks may lead to anger and a sense of helplessness and result in worse performances than before you implemented a reinforcement program. Banaji explains that expecting absolute perfection, or a consistent doubling of community participation in community development activities, for example, is likely unreasonable and may result in increasing errors and abandonment of the project.

Burger (2009) on the other hand believes that working with the local communities to identify personalized motivators, or reinforcements through a well-established incentive scheme, is most likely to produce the desired results. Burger asserts that members of the local community might surpass the expectations attempting to earn a reward that they have chosen. He adds that allowing the community members to choose the type of reward they want is impractical; the local governments and NGOs should consider offering a set of choices from which they can select should the local communities meet the required conditions. Motivating rewards are essential to the success of community development project because they have to be tempting enough for the local community to work hard to earn them. According to reinforcement theory,

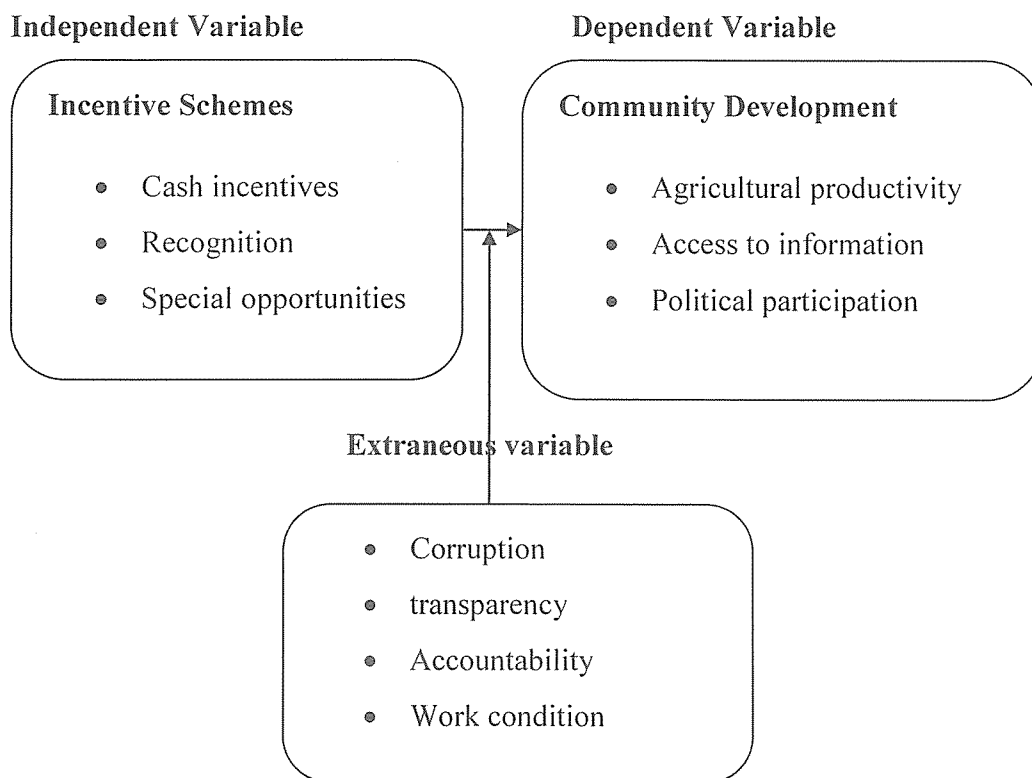
choosing one positive attribute to target at a time and applying positive reinforcement techniques with a focus on extinction of the negative behavior, can help turn desirable traits into strong work habits over time. According to Skinner (1974), extinction of undesired behavior results from the absence of positive reinforcement, not from punishment. This means offering an incentive when work exceeds expectations and focusing on extinction by withholding it or withholding additional privileges when targets are not met.

Crain (2004) advises that one must time their reinforcements carefully because different strategies yield different results. Rewarding a behavior, such as an excellent performance, each time it occurs will quickly result in repeated performances. However, rewarding the same behavior intermittently often yields even better results as it makes the local communities to work harder in case the bar has been raised and is more likely to facilitate a lasting change in behavior hence this study employed reinforcement theory to establish the connection it has with incentive schemes and community development.

2.2 Conceptual Framework

The figure below illustrates the diagrammatical relationship between incentive schemes and community development. It shows how the variable were conceptualized and operationalized. The conceptual framework between the incentive schemes and community development is illustrated in figure 1 below.

Figure 1: Conceptual framework between incentive schemes and community development.



Source: Researcher 2014

According to figure 1, incentive schemes among employees is the independent variable and comprises of cash incentives, employee recognition and special opportunities offered to employees in order to motivate them. This means that a motivated employee can promote community development initiatives such as encouraging the locals to get involved in agricultural activities for higher productivity which can eradicate poverty among the community members. These motivated employees can also educate the communities to increase their level of access to information and political participation in the Local Government (in this case Kontagora). The conceptual framework also illustrates that apart from incentive scheme, other factors (extraneous) such as corruption, transparency and accountability of the local leaders and their working condition may also influence community development.

2.3 Review of Literature

2.3.1 Incentive Schemes

Hartman, Kurtzand and Moser (2004) state that incentives are one technique by which employees carry out their end of the employment contract, that is, compensating employees for their efforts. In general, an incentive scheme (payment or programme) is any compensation that has been designed to recognize some specific accomplishment on the part of an employee. It is expected that the prospect of the incentive payment will “trigger” the desired performance behaviour in the employee.

Incentive schemes as defined by Graffin and Ebert (1993) are special pay programmes designed to motivate high performance. Incentive schemes attempt to link at least a portion of pay to job performance to encourage higher productivity. Incentives, as often called, should be aligned with the behaviours that help achieve organizational goals or performance. Incentives are either individual or group (organization wide). In this study, financial incentives are designed to motivate employees to improve their performance – to increase effort and output and by producing better results expressed in such terms as objectives for profit, productivity, sales turnover, cost reduction, quality customer service and on time delivery. This financial compensation provides extra money for achievement in terms of contribution or output. The emphasis in financial compensation is on equity, in the sense of paying people according to their just “deserts”.

According to Caruth, Middlebrook and Frank (2002), the general purpose of incentive schemes is to increase productivity in the organization. By relating compensation to output, an employer is attempting to induce workers to turn out a greater volume of work thereby lowering the cost of producing a single unit of output. Specifically, the purpose of incentives to both an employee and the organization is to: Improve motivation, tie pay to performance, recognize differences in employee performance, increase competition among employees, attract and retain productive employees, reduce absenteeism, reduce idle time, reduce or control costs, utilize equipment more effectively, relate increases in compensation to increases in productivity, avoid additions to employees, create uniform processing costs, direct efforts toward achieving organizational objectives and so on.

Generally, incentive schemes are classified into two types: material incentive and non-material incentives. Material incentives according to Hongoro and Normand (2002) are those provided for specific group of workers to motivate them for a specific behaviour. Non-material (non-financial) incentive schemes on the other hand are directed at moral motivation to serve in the interest of the community. Non –material incentives to employee especially in the public service attract a certain kind of person that more readily identifies with the mission of the organization, Paul and Marc (2007). Caruth (2000) however, classified incentives into individual incentives and group incentive schemes. For the purpose of this study, incentive schemes shall be limited to cash incentives, special opportunities and recognition among employees.

2.3.1.1 Cash Incentives

According to Hartman, Kurtzand and Moser (2004), cash incentives are payments for performance that meets established criteria. Employees are paid certain sum of money or savings bond. Successful suggestions, for example, are recognized with a sum of money equal to the fraction of the cost of the savings attributed to the suggestion.

One study found that a cash incentive was preferred over nonmonetary incentives. Establishment respondents were initially given the option between \$50 cash or the *Dunand Bradstreet Small Business Solutions* package (retailing for \$199); 80.2% of respondents requested the \$50 cash incentive. Some respondents who opted for the solutions package asked later to exchange it for the cash incentive (NORC 2005; Mach *et al.*, 2008). In another case, 12 different experiments that included cash amounts of \$2, \$5, or \$10 in establishment mail surveys, found that all of the monetary incentives increased response rates compared with no monetary incentive (Moore and Ollinger 2007).

Monetary rewards is a means to recruit and retain valuable employees, however, it is not recognized if better job performance and satisfaction are the results of such initiatives (Adeogun, 2008). Armstrong (2007) suggests that monetary rewards are motivators because it satisfies needs. Armstrong (2007) states, that money is essential as it is required to satisfy basic needs of survival and security. In the organizational employee relationship, according to Mitchell & Mickel (1999), companies pay employees in exchange for their labour. Milkovich and Newman (1993) suggest that money is used by organisations as an attraction, motivation, and retention tool. Organisations use money to reward and recognize, and they withhold it as punishment.

(1993) suggest that money is used by organisations as an attraction, motivation, and retention tool. Organisations use money to reward and recognize, and they withhold it as punishment.

According to Ross and Zander (1957), in order to attract and retain employees in an organisation, their needs must first be satisfied. Those needs would include a reasonable competitive salary and other competitive benefits. According to Kirkcaldy & Furnham (1993) and Tang (1992), money is related to: Achievement and recognition, Status and respect, Freedom and control and Power.

Given the above, Kirkcaldy & Furnham (1993) and Tang (1992) argue that money is therefore an aspect of motivation because of what it stands for. Authors suggest that monetary rewards are more important in individual's real selections than in their answers to the question about the significance of monetary rewards as a motivator. This leads to underestimation of monetary rewards as a motivating factor in the organizational environment.

Results about the importance of monetary rewards as a motivator come from Agarwal's (2010) study based on a literature review on motivation and executive compensation. Agarwal (2010) states that money is still the most crucial motivating factor for employees and that it makes them perform well in the company. Agarwal agrees that non-monetary rewards motivate but, after a certain point in an individual's career, money has the greater significance.

A case study conducted on a Taiwanese construction firm indicated that monetary compensation remains a powerful motivator for workers (Huang *et al.*, 2006). The authors refer to Lazear (1998) in stating, "Wage levels have significant influence on retention rates" (p. 9).

A contrasting view from Net *et al.* (2001) suggests that whether individuals distinguish money as a motivator or not depends on what they distinguish as motivation. The motivation theories cited, suggest that motivation is an inner driven aspiration to achieve a goal. Herzberg's hygiene-motivator theory, suggests that monetary rewards, such as compensation, organizational benefits or working conditions do not motivate, they simply confirm that performance is at a satisfactory level. Net *et al.* (2001) further suggests that non-monetary rewards, such as accountability, progression, criticism, acknowledgment and job prospects motivate employees to improve performance, more so than merely earning a salary.

When money is used to recognize the employees for the good work done according to Nelson this sends wrong signals to the employees; the emphasis put on monetary rewards drives employees to reach for individual gains and reduces team work. (Nelson, 2004; Gupta and Shaw 1998) also acknowledged the signals monetary rewards send to the employees but they appealed humans to be ‘cognitive processors’ who understand the signals management is sending by rewards; rewarding shows employees what kind of behavior is valued.

Kohn (1993) stated that monetary rewards are at their best creating temporary compliance meaning that money motivates us as long as we get another pay increase. Temporary compliance refers to the short sighted value it manages to add in individual’s motivation. Once a pay increase is received it motivates for a short period of time until motivation is again declined and employees start to wait for another pay increase. He said that: “promising a reward to someone who appears unmotivated is a bit like offering salt water to someone who is thirsty.” The criticism he presented against using money as a motivator is that money do motivate employees – to get more money.

2.3.1.2 Recognition

According to Sirota, *et al* (2005), employee recognition is the timely, informal or formal acknowledgement of a person’s or team’s behavior, effort or business result that supports the organization’s goals and values, and which has clearly been beyond normal expectations. The authors assert that to be really effective in one’s job, an employer need to understand the psychology of praising others for their good work, to apply the principles of employee recognition and to encourage others to initiate it in their working relationships.

Harter, *et al* (2003) argues that appreciation is a fundamental human need. Employees respond to appreciation expressed through recognition of their good work because it confirms their work is valued. According to Sirota, *et al* (2005), when employees and their work are valued, their satisfaction and productivity rises, and they are motivated to maintain or improve their good work. Praise and recognition are essential to an outstanding workplace. People want to be respected and valued for their contribution. Everyone feels the need to be recognized as an individual or member of a group and to feel a sense of achievement for work well done or even for a valiant effort. Everyone wants a ‘pat on the back’ to make them feel good.

There are two aspects to employee recognition. The first aspect is to actually see, identify or realize an opportunity to praise someone. If you are not in a receptive frame of mind you can easily pass over many such opportunities. This happens all too frequently. The other aspect of employee recognition is, of course, the physical act of doing something to acknowledge and praise people for their good work. According to Rathand (2004), appropriate recognition at the appropriate time is a best practice that ultimately improves the performance in any organization. A Gallup poll found that 82 percent of employees say that the recognition or praise they receive at work motivates them to improve their performance. Employee recognition programs, motivational incentive programs and even flexible work schedules all add to a positive culture that helps workers be more engaged and focused on achievement.

Recognition is essentially positive feedback that lets employees know they are valued and appreciated by their coworkers and the organization. To have the greatest impact in the workplace, recognition activities should also reinforce and encourage work that advances employee, departmental, and/or institutional goals and values Rathand (2004).

Creating a culture of recognition does not happen overnight, it is something all organizations must strategically plan like any other program they plan to successfully implement. Impactful recognition starts when you are first interviewing a potential employee. Ask the interviewee to share an honorable moment at their past employment. This will show their strengths, as well as giving you ideas of how to motivate the employee. Recognition must begin immediately. If you aren't recognizing your employee within the first 90 days of employment, morale declines drastically. It is easier to keep motivation ongoing and alive, than to try to bring it back to life (Elton & Gostick, February 2006).

In the March 27th 2006 issue of Business Week, Jack Welch a retired CEO and former editor of the Harvard Business Review listed four motivational tools - all non-monetary and all effective. The most significant of the four tools was recognition. The retired CEO stated: "When an individual or a team does something notable, make a big deal out of it. Announce it publicly, talk about it at every opportunity. We use peer-to-peer recognition because it picks up a lot of things I don't see. In healthy culture, you celebrate. You have a lot of successes. Where recognition is frequent, is aligned with core values to avoid favoritism and includes peer-to-peer component,

employees don't complain of jealousy. On the contrary, employees get more upset when recognition is rare and they get ignored. "He also stated using recognition is a vital tool to help leaders and organizations achieve long-term goals and success. "The returns (of recognition) are incalculable". (Elton & Gostick, 2006).

Rewarding failures has just as much impact as rewarding success. Many employees are afraid to make mistakes for fear of the consequences. These insecurities mean we are afraid to take risks in our job. When employees work in this type of atmosphere, growth, and innovation are stunted. It is important to realize that many mistakes made by employees are simple efforts to succeed or try something new; process improvement (Elton & Gostick, 2006).

2.3.1.3 Special Opportunities

Available records suggest that management in some organizations use special opportunities as incentive schemes. These special opportunities include the chance to experience special training, favoured assignments, flexible working conditions, mentorship and so on. Fagbence (2012) argues that special opportunities are used to reward employees for their excellent behaviours and performance through giving them a special opportunity to increase their potentialities, in order to encourage other employees to put more efforts and focus to the achievement of the organization more specifically on productivity and performance improvement within the control of the employees.

According to Sherman (2012), some companies let employees determine bonus level for each other. For example, San Francisco-based online labor marketplace Coffee & Power gives its 15 workers 1,200 stock options to award to colleagues. However Sherman argues that there are potential drawbacks. People might start trading favors with each other. However, if the awards are made anonymously, then there is less pressure to trade information about the amounts. The big gain is that such a plan helps level the playing field and lets the people who actually see how work gets done reward those who do it, which should improve morale.

Sherman (2012) argues that at one point in its history, management consulting firm Deloitte found it was losing talented female employees because a rigid corporate ladder meant everyone had to move in lock step. So when conditions changed, people could either go along or find another job. But losing experienced people and recruiting new ones had a heavy cost. So Deloitte

moved to a lattice structure in which people could, in conjunction with their managers, "dial up" or "dial down" responsibilities, move to new roles, and otherwise create a work-life balance that made sense. Moving sideways is just as possible as moving up, and a pay cut may or may not be involved.

Sherman (2012) explains that not bothering to count vacation days is something that businesses are doing, including Netflix and IBM. Yes, even one of the oldest and most productive companies in the world has found that trusting employees to act like adults can work. Sherman mentions that Netflix doesn't even track how many days people are out of the office but only measures productivity and ensure that necessary work is getting done.

2.3.2 Community Development

There are complementary definitions of community development. Community Development Challenge report (2009), which was produced by a working party comprising leading UK organizations in the field (including (Foundation Builders) Community Development Foundation, Community Development Exchange and the Federation for Community Development Learning) defines community development as:

"A set of values and practices which plays a special role in overcoming poverty and disadvantage, knitting society together at the grass roots and deepening democracy".

Community Development Exchange (2010) defines community development as: "both an occupation (such as a community development worker in a local authority) and a way of working with communities" (p.34).

Among the British Colonial Office, community development meant

A movement to promote better living for the whole community, with the active participation and if possible on the initiative of the community, but if this initiative is not forthcoming, by the use of technique for arousing and stimulating it in order to secure its active and enthusiastic response to the development. It includes the whole range of development activities in the districts, whether they are undertaken by government or unofficial bodies (1985, p.112).

The International Co-operation Administration sees community development as

A process of social actions in which the people of a community organize themselves for planning and action and the individual plans with a maximum reliance upon community resources and supplemented these resources when necessary with services and materials from government and non-governmental agencies outside the community (United Nations, 2001, p.45).

The United Nations in its concept of community development sees it thus:

The term community development designates the utilization under one single programme of approach and technique, which relies upon local communities as units of action and which attempts to combine outside assistance with organized local self determination and effort and which correspondingly seeks to stimulate local initiative and leadership as the primary instrument of change (United Nations, 2001, p.56).

In addition to the contributions of conferences and organizations, individuals also took positions in the attempt to define community development. One of the early contributors in this area was Baker (1950). He presented community development as an educational process and said: It is not better roads, better bridges, pure water nor better sanitation. It is something of the spirit more than something of material. It must reach into deep cultural patterns of the people, examining them and testing them as principles of faith. It is not a temporary, physical construction; it is a building with the heart and minds of men not a recreation centre in the middle of the field.

The concept of community development is not completely a new ideology. What probably may appear new is the mode of application in modern time and its ancestry as a union of community, organization and economic development. Nigeria's colonial history with respect to community development revealed that ever before the advent of British rule in Nigeria, the people of pre-colonial era had always pooled their resources together and embarked on projects to better their environment and existence. The term community development first came into prominence officially at the British Colonial offices initiatives in 1948 during the colonial era when social welfare officers tried by stimulating self-help to improve health, nutrition and general

community welfare. Its major objective was to solve social problems but this later changed from social to community development resulting in many communities building schools and constructing roads and bridges.

2.3.2.1 Agricultural Productivity

The majority of Tropical Africa's population lives in rural areas, where poverty and deprivation are most severe. Since almost all rural households depend directly or indirectly on agriculture, and given the large contribution of the sector to the overall economy, one might expect agriculture to be a key component of growth and development. However, whereas agriculture-led growth played an important role in slashing poverty and transforming the economies of many Asian and Latin American countries, the same has not occurred in Africa, World Bank (2003). Most African countries have not yet met the criteria for a successful agricultural revolution, and factor productivity in African agriculture lags far behind the rest of the world. This failure has led to growing skepticism in the international development community about the relevance of agriculture to growth and poverty reduction.

Surplus agricultural income provides savings for investment in both urban and rural areas (Hart, 2008). This savings linkage also works through forward linkages to urban areas. Lower food prices, stimulated by technological change in agriculture, maintain low real wages in industrial sectors and thus foster investment and structural transformation. In an open economy, sectoral linkages are influenced by foreign trade. The magnitude of the linkage effects depends on the existence of non tradable sectors and on imperfect substitutability between domestic and foreign goods. For example, Fei and Ranis's (2001) assertion that agricultural growth is prerequisite for urban growth may be less binding if it is possible to substitute imports for domestic agriculture.

Nonetheless, even under open economy conditions, agricultural growth typically has stronger links to the rest of the economy than non agricultural growth (especially in industry) because (1) agricultural output is sold predominantly in domestic markets; (2) intermediate inputs used in agricultural production are less import intensive than in industrial production; and (3) rural demand is usually met by domestically produced goods. Conversely, urban consumption patterns tend to favor imported goods that not only weaken industrial backward linkages but also lead to foreign exchange constraints that hamper capital-intensive industrialization.

Export oriented agriculture can also undermine forward linkages and agricultural production can be constrained by the lack of growth in non agricultural incomes in both urban and rural areas. Therefore, foreign trade does dampen the linkage effects of agriculture, especially in smaller and more open economies, but the effect is invariably smaller for agriculture than for industry.

The role of agriculture in rural, as opposed to national, development was the focus for many agricultural economists during the 1980s and 1990s (Hazell and Roell 2003; Hazell and Haggblade (2001). This shift in emphasis was motivated by (1) imperfect or missing commodity and factor markets; (2) rigidities in rural–urban factor mobility; (3) high transport costs; (4) the existence of rural non tradable sectors; and (5) rural unemployment and under employment. It was suggested that agricultural productivity growth stimulates rural economies through production and consumption linkages at the regional level. Labor demand between agriculture and rural nonfarm activities can create further rural linkage effects, and reciprocal reverse flows from rural nonfarm activities can help finance the purchase of agricultural inputs, which further improves productivity (Reardon *et al.* 2004; Barrett *et al.* 2003).

Virtually, all these studies emphasized the importance of infrastructure in improving the responsiveness of the nonfarm economy to increases in demand from agriculture (Barnes and Binswanger 2006). Finally, some regional studies also considered the formation of social capital, suggesting that increased interactions between farmers, input suppliers, processors, and banks might help generate the confidence and trust needed to initiate on agricultural business and commercial agriculture (Irz, *et al.*, 2001).

The linkage effects emanating from agricultural growth have often been analyzed in countries where small farms dominate agriculture and the rural economy, as is the case in most Asian and African countries. Numerous empirical studies have examined the contribution of small holder farming to agricultural growth and demonstrated that small farms contain poverty by providing an affordable platform from which poor households can experiment with ways to improve their livelihoods and help prevent premature urban migration and the explosive growth of large cities (Eastwood, Lipton, and Newell 2004; Hazell 2004). By contrast, the trickled own benefits from large-scale commercial agriculture are usually more limited (IFAD, 2001; Lipton, 2004).

Household surveys have also shown that small- and medium-sized farm households usually have expenditure patterns that favor growth in the local nonfarm economy, including rural towns. They spend higher shares of incremental income on rural nontrade goods than do large-scale farmers, thereby generating greater demand for locally produced labor-intensive goods and services (Hazell and Roell 2003). Crucially, small farms also contribute to food security in rural areas where high transport and marketing costs can drive-up food prices, and at the national level, the higher land productivity of small farms enables poor countries to attain self-sufficiency in staples, such as in cereals, roots and tubers, and livestock.

2.3.2.2 Access to information

Information is raw material for development for both urban and rural dwellers. Prosperity, progress, and development of any nation depend upon the nation's ability to acquire, produce, access, and use pertinent information. A report on older rural people (2008) indicates that, Access to information and advice is a key resource for local people in maintaining active and independent lives. Access to information is also critical to letting people know their entitlements to welfare benefits and sources of support to overcome social exclusion.

Information is the lifeblood of any society and vital to the activities of both the government and private sectors. Bell (2001) holds the view that "the dependence upon information to create innovation and change, places a high premium on the ability of (developing countries) nations to access and use information to create advances in society". The development of countries globally cannot be achieved without the development of the rural community. This is because 75 to 80 percent of the people in developing countries live in the rural areas need positive, relevant and prompts attention in their daily activities.

The importance of information in rural community development cannot be over emphasized because information has become a supportive input for any development program. It is so vital that is why Nyerere (1967) stated that, while other countries in the world aim to reach the moon, we must aim for the time being at any rate to reach the villages by providing them with necessary information. Thus, it can be said that, information, if well articulated could eradicate ignorance and gives enlightenment on how to achieve economic, educational, social, political and cultural objectives towards the development of the entire community.

It has been observed that having access to the right information can address major problems that hinder community development and it can also improve chances for livelihoods. A researcher such as Aboyade (2005) reported an increase in income because farmer's cooperatives which were well informed were able to respond appropriately to changes in the market. This made them to compete with commercial farmers, through communal viewing of agricultural programs on television and telephone conversation with distant friends and relatives. It also strengthened their social networks, such people today continue developing themselves with information they acquired.

Societal needs are satisfied through various kinds of activities, each of which requires information as an input. These include, for example, education, policy formulation, research and development, personal needs, business, decision-making, mass communications, public goods and private goods. Societal needs are also satisfied at different levels, from individuals through to global communities within formation. That is why Panos (2008) stated that "access to information is an essential condition for development". From this juncture, it could be said that information if well uttered and packaged for rural communities will exterminate poverty, ignorance and gives enlighten on how to achieve economic, social, educational, political and cultural objectives towards the development of the entire society.

According to Odi (2005), access to information in rural communities of Africa is affected by a number of drawbacks, evident in ways in which rural information services are coordinated. It is agreed that information providers and experts need to pay attention to the information needs of the various groups and the communication process among each group of the user community. Therefore, the role of libraries, information centers and other agencies becomes vital in sustaining the information services for the development of rural communities in Africa. In this case, Libraries and information centers should develop their collections, facilities and services to meet the information needs of their patrons.

Researchers such as (Mchombu, 2003; Aina, 2006) established that rural communities in Africa are often left out from participating in government policies, development and other important activities because of their diverse interest, literacy level, expertise, and their needed information for survival, and development are hidden from the existing information flow. The kind of information delivered to the rural communities is very much system oriented to which most of

the rural dwellers cannot understand and benefit from it, and the provision is dependent on the availability, extent of content, Government interest, format and available modes of delivery. According to Aina (2006), this is particularly obvious in developing countries like Africa where infrastructures and development policies are minimally provided due to unplanned development efforts by the Governments.

Today information is conceived as an important resource that contributes immensely towards the development of a nation especially in this era of information explosion. It provides the main stay for the development of knowledge, the foundation for innovations, the resources for informed citizenry, and as a result, becomes a key commodity for the progress of any society. Mchombu (2003) stated that, "the contradiction between the vital role of information in development and its lack of official recognition in developing countries can hardly escape the attention of Information specialists". Therefore, this unhealthy situation warrants immediate concern of the information workers, professionals, governments and specialists to actively bring about lasting and favorable solutions, so that information can be fully accepted and utilized as resources contributing to the development.

Some researchers have observed this situation as an apparent dilemma of information being a powerful catalyst to transform society, and yet there is apparent weakness of linkage between information investments and the achievement of specific development goals. There is an ironic twist in developing countries, which are the least in terms of development; the trend shows that they are the least awakening to the use of information in overcoming under development (Stone, 2003). McAnany (2002) shares his opinion that for any community to function efficiently and productively, a basic minimum stock of usable information is essential. Every society needs to acquire, store, and exchange this basic stock of information to allow it to survive. They view that information as central to the solution of any society's economic and social problems, and should be regarded as a factor of production, which is now widely accepted. Pradervand (2000) has gone even further to insist that information is the most basic of all basic needs. This is why community information should be viewed not only as a way to improve the quality of life of the individual, but also as a primary social concern.

2.3.2.3 Political Participation

Participation in electoral processes involves much more than just voting. Political participation derives from the freedom to speak out, assemble and associate; the ability to take part in the conduct of public affairs; and the opportunity to register as a candidate, to campaign, to be elected and to hold office at all levels of government. Under international standards, men and women have an equal right to participate fully in all aspects of the political process. In practice, however, it is often harder for women to exercise this right. In post-conflict countries there are frequently extra barriers to women's participation, and special care is required to ensure their rights are respected in this regard (Segal, 2000).

Political parties are among the most important institutions affecting women's political participation. In most countries, parties determine which candidates are nominated and elected and which issues achieve national prominence. The role of women in political parties is therefore a key determinant of their prospects for political empowerment, particularly at the national level. Because political parties are so influential in shaping women's political prospects, Governments and international organizations seeking to advance the participation of women in elections justifiably tend to focus on the role of political parties (Pattie *et al*, 2004).

Political participation extends beyond parties, however. Women can also become involved in certain aspects of the electoral process through independent action—particularly at the local level—and by joining civil society organizations. Some women in post-conflict countries have gained political experience by participating in non-elected transitional assemblies. Women's networks, trade unions, non-governmental organizations, and the media can all provide avenues for women's political participation

Apart from the embodiment of particular norms and values, citizenship may also be seen as a matter of civic behaviour, a willingness to support the perpetuation of democratic society through active participation in politics and public affairs (Pattie *et al*, 2004). This Political participation is widely viewed as a positive aspect of democratic society, which cultivates integration, encourages individual identification with the wider community and generally enhances social solidarity (Segal, 2000).

There is much disagreement among political scientists concerning the definitional boundaries of political participation. Political participation is defined as an activity which “is essentially a case for substantial numbers of private citizens to play a part in the process by which political leaders are chosen/or government policies are shaped and implemented.” (Birch cited in Schlosser, 2005).

Both conventional and unconventional forms of participation can be divided into three main categories. The first of these is that of individualistic participation. Individualistic forms can be undertaken by the individual, without assistance from others. Such forms may involve the donation of money to organizations and voting. One of the more invisible individualistic forms of participation is ‘consumer citizenship’. Many politicians conceive active citizenship to consist of the influencing of public services to respond to customer preferences. However, consumer citizenship implies that citizens are able to influence the political process by using their purchasing power and that in doing so, such citizens are participating politically (Pattie, *et al.*, 2004). Contact participation is from the respondent’s viewpoint, also individualistic, however also requires the participation of representatives or officials. This form involves such activities as writing to the media or speaking to a Member of Parliament. Lastly, collective participation involves the joining together of citizens for political purposes. According to Pattie *et al.*, (2004) collective participation activities may involve attending political meetings or participating in demonstrations.

Gaining a full understanding of the relationship between the personal characteristics of citizens and their involvement in political activities has been one of the ongoing goals of political behavioural empirical research (Barnes, 2004). At the most basic level, theories of participation can be divided into two categories: those which focus on individual or personal attributes and those which highlight the effects of wider social networks. Traditional theories of participation determinants tend to focus on personal or individual characteristics (McClurg, 2003). These studies have generally found the main determinant factors of participation to be individual resources such as education, income or socio-economic status and age or experience. It has been found that those with greater resources in these fields tend to have greater political involvement. In the case of age for instance, it has been found that there is what appears to be a universal increase in participation as people grow older, suggesting that experience is in itself, a political

resource (Barnes, 2004). In times past, women have been found to participate less than men. These differences have narrowed considerably and have almost disappeared in industrial democratic societies (Barnes, 2004).

Income has also been identified as a key determinant factor with those at the lower end of the income scale displaying lower levels of political engagement. Unemployed individuals are even less likely to be politically active because they do not have access to social networks existent within the workplace through which political participation is facilitated (Ramakrishnan and Espenshade, 2001). In addition such individuals have very low levels of residential stability. This hinders participation because they are less likely to be integrated in their communities and therefore less likely to have a stable network of neighbours and friends (Ramakrishnan and Espenshade, 2001).

Whilst the individuals most likely to be apathetic and non-participatory are those who lack power and resources, these individuals are those most likely to desire state intervention on their behalf. This creates a vicious cycle of frustration, as the lack of political involvement among such individuals constitutes a significant barrier to the implementation of state intervention (Pattie, *et al.*, 2004). Another aspect of non-participation is the emergence of 'cheque-book' participation. This essentially involves one individual subcontracting out his or her participatory duties someone else. Maloney suggests that this type of participation is responsible for much of the recent growth of interest groups such as green peace and shelter (Pattie *et al.*, 2004). Skocpol (2002), further suggests that the establishment of such organizations often rests in the hands of political entrepreneurs who generate funds through direct mail which are then used to hire pollsters and media consultants to frame policies and lobbying strategies (Pattie, *et al.*, 2004).

More recently, apparent limitations in personal characteristics perspectives, have led to greater emphasis being placed on the environmental determinants of political engagement (McClurg, 2003). A key focal point within this area of research has been the relationship between political participation and individuals' involvement in formal and informal groups. Such groups may include sports clubs, student societies or Book clubs. Although such groups may have few direct links with the political process, they are nonetheless arenas in which individuals can learn skills that can be utilized within political activities of a higher intensity. They can therefore be considered as training grounds for political participation for many of those involved (Pattie *et al.*,

2004). It is suggested that involvement in such groups stimulates collective political interest, makes individuals available for mobilization by the elites and equips people with skills that make participation easier (McClurg, 2003).

Considerably less research has focused on the role of informal groups in political mobilization. These groups are nevertheless said to underpin civil society and provide vital services. Activities within this area may include involvement in a pub quiz team or the provision of support for neighbours or friends. These activities are valuable because they help to build civic engagement networks and also provide valuable services (Pattie *et al*, 2004). One explanation of the relationship between such groups and political participation is that when individuals have friends who participate, they themselves are more likely to do the same (McClurg, 2003). Other research emphasizes the size and political orientation of the group as influential factors of political involvement. Another suggestion is that even very basic interactive activities such as playing cards or having lunch with friends may influence participation by enhancing interpersonal trust and compliance to social norms. In addition, there is also evidence to suggest that family interactions can also affect political engagement (McClurg, 2003).

2.3.3 The Relationship between Incentive Schemes and Community Development

One of the researches made by Locke and Todd has been trying to see the effect of incentive on employee psychology by having the employee to work on some task in which there is punishment and reward for it, and by checking their heart rate while doing it by using Behavioral Inhibition/Activation System (BIS/BAS). Their research concluded that, BAS assesses individual sensitivity to reward and was significantly positively correlated with maximum heart acceleration in response to high cash rewards and suggests that incentive can produce generalized performance benefit (Locke and Todd, 2007).

But there's certain case in public sector in which the incentive needs certain requirement to be effectively working, and there's some evidence that sometimes certain type of incentive doesn't really fit in the public sector just yet. The Research done by Perry, Mesh, and Paarlberg has offered three propositions regarding the incentive on the public sector (Perry, *et al*; 2009). First, Financial incentives improve task performance moderately to significantly, but their effectiveness is dependent on organizational conditions, in which that the incentive in the public sector can be effectively run only if they have the suitable organizational behavior.

Second, Individual financial incentives are ineffective in traditional public sector settings, that individual incentive only give a little significant boost on employee performance, this was caused mainly because the lack of adequate funding for merit pay and an absence of the organizational and managerial characteristics that are necessary to make pay for performance work in traditional government settings. Third, Group incentive systems are consistently effective, but they are not well tested in public sector settings, where measures of organizational performance often are uncertain, this argument was backed up by the research done by Burgess and Proper (2004), that in the group incentive type, team size needs to be small, and preferably not dispersed over many sites to make it effective. The connection between effort and output needs to be as clear and well-measured as possible. But to do that, there is price to pay, because precise measurement may be very expensive if conducted for many small teams.

A study by Tumwete (2010), in Kenya on the effects of employee incentives on employee Performance in Private Universities revealed that financial incentives that are perceived to have significant influence on employee motivation included: salary, insurance financing, retirement benefits, performance based rewards, etc. Among the non-financial incentives with significant influence on performance were: creativity at work, organizational goals, challenging tasks, opportunity for personal development, autonomy and responsibility, teamwork, job security, professionally stimulating environment, opportunity to set performance goals, predict Table work life, opportunity to lead, training and development and flexible policies. The study recommended the need for top management of organizations to design effective incentive schemes that comprise a mix of financial and non-financial incentives, with non-financial incentives being key, supplemented by financial incentives.

A study by Ugwu and Coker (2012) on incentive schemes, employee motivation and productivity in organizations in Nigeria revealed that incentive schemes have high significant relationship with employee motivation and productivity in both the organized private sector and public sector organizations in Nigeria. The paper recommended that management must identify the type of incentive that best motivate the employee, design and administer flexible incentive programmes, seek and obtain feedback on incentives and set effective employee performance goals in the organization.



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Following Aschauer's (2009) work, several studies have been carried out to unravel the link between community development and poverty reduction. Following this line of research, Fan, Hazell and Thorat (2010) estimate the effect of public expenditure on levels of rural poverty across Indian states. In this study the authors distinguish between expenditure on rural education, targeted rural development, public health, irrigation, power generation, agricultural research and development (R&D) and rural roads. They find that agricultural R&D, rural roads, rural education and targeted rural development all have negative and statistically significant effects on rural poverty. Of these, spending on agricultural R&D and rural roads has by far the largest impact on both community development in general and poverty.

Amis and Kumar (2000) investigate the relationship between urban economic growth, the provision of urban infrastructure and poverty reduction in Visakhapatnam, one of the largest port and industrial towns in India. In the study the authors identify many dimensions of poverty, including inadequate income, lack of assets ('no shelter, no property, and no gold'), lack of support (especially for widows, deserted women and the handicapped), illness and debt. The results of this participatory study indicate that the city's growth was constrained by inadequate investment in infrastructure, especially for water and electricity. This study suggested that the provision of physical and social infrastructure is important for community development and poverty reduction.

A study by Ogun (2010), in Nigeria on community development and poverty reduction revealed that infrastructural development within the community leads to poverty reduction. Results also showed that though infrastructural development within the local community reduces poverty, social infrastructure explains a higher proportion of the forecast error in poverty indicators relative to physical infrastructure. This suggests that massive investment in social infrastructure in local communities would drastically reduce poverty in the rural areas.

There is ample evidence though that result-based incentive schemes, especially at the individual level, can greatly increase company performance (Gerhart & Rynes, 2003). In research done by Bussin and Huysamen (2004), it was also found that the short-term incentive policy was also one of the areas that had the greatest positive impact in private organisations. Short-term incentives are thus a strong area of focus in organisations, and specifically when amending the organization's remuneration policy. Bussin and Huysamen (2004) found that a change in the

short-term incentive policy in private; parastatal and public sector organisations was one of the top five changes in order of extent of change that changed most in the remuneration policy.

Research done by Döckel, Basson and Coetzee (2006) shows that compensation has a strong significant relation to organizational commitment – specifically for high-technology employees. Sutherland (2004) has established in her research that incentives/bonuses and/or variable pay are the fifth most important item considered by knowledge workers when considering to stay or leave their current organisation. Bloedorn, also (2002) asserts that incentives can expand the team committed to delivering results and that they can cause employees, individually and collectively, to focus their attention on the company's goals and identify with shareholder interests.

Gaps

Most of the studies on incentive schemes tended to focus on employee motivation and performance across developed and developing countries. In Nigeria for instance, a study by Ugwu and Coker (2012) shows that incentive schemes have high significant relationship with employee motivation and productivity. While studies on community development in different countries also looked at mostly poverty reduction and infrastructural development. None of the empirical evidences above revealed any studies on the correlation between incentive schemes and community development in Nigeria and specially Kontagora Local Government. This research therefore investigated if there is a correlation between incentive schemes and community development in Niger State-Kontagora Local Government with the intent of providing new academic knowledge on the variables under discussion.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter describes the methodology that was used in addressing the set objectives. The chapter is organized under the subsections: Research Design, Area of study, Research Population, Sample Size, Sampling Procedure, Research Instruments, Validity and Reliability of Research Instruments, Data Gathering Procedures, Data analysis, Ethical considerations and Limitations of the study.

3.1 Research Design

The study adopted cross-sectional design using both the quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection. Cross-sectional design according to Gall *et al* (1996) enables the researcher to collect information from a cross-section of a given population. This study design was used because it is the most commonly used research method in social research. Amin (2005) asserts that results from such a survey method are easily extrapolated to the entire population.

3.2 Area of Study

This study was carried out in Kontagora local government. The district has a population of more than 100,000 inhabitants and is bordered by Mariga in the North, Mashegu in the East, Magama in the West and Rijau in the South.

3.2 Research Population

The target population of this study included, Council chairperson and Councilors, departmental directors in the Local Government, staff members of different departments within the Local Government council and the members of civil community. This research covered a population of 200 members from Kontagora Local Government (Kontagora Local Government annual report, 2013).

3.3 Sample Size

Slovene's formula was used to compute the sample size. Slovene's formula states that, for any given population (N), where α = the level of significance at 0.05 and the sample size (n) is given by;

$$n = \frac{200}{1 + 200(0.05)^2}$$

$$n = \frac{200}{1 + 0.5}$$

$$n = \frac{200}{1.5}$$

$$n = 133$$

The population and sample distributions of this study were shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3:1 Population and Sample size of the respondents

Category of respondents	Target population(N)	Computation of (n)	Sample Size(n)
Council Chairperson	1	$\frac{1}{200} \times 133$	1
Councilors	13	$\frac{13}{200} \times 133$	9
Departmental Directors	7	$\frac{7}{200} \times 133$	5
Local Government staff members	79	$\frac{79}{200} \times 133$	52
Members of civil society	100	$\frac{100}{200} \times 133$	66
Total	200		133

Source: Kontagora Local Government annual report (2013)

3.4 Sampling Procedure

Purposive sampling was used to select especially the Council Chairperson, councilors and Departmental directors in order to collect focused, typical and useful information to avoid time and money wasting. According to Amin (2005), purposive sampling is preferred in selecting people holding positions that allow them to be more knowledgeable with issues in their areas.

The Local Government staff and the civil community were selected using simple random sampling. The researcher randomly selected the first homesteads of members of the civil society located within a perimeter of 2km from the headquarters of the Local Government. This was intended to ensure that each member of the target population had an equal and independent chance of being included in the sample.

3.5 Research Instrument

The following researcher-based tools were utilized in this study: Face sheet, Researcher devised questionnaires and Researcher devised interview guides.

The face sheet was used to gather data on the respondents' demographic characteristics (gender, age, educational level, and working experience); researcher devised questionnaires and interview guides were used to establish the level of incentive schemes and community development in Kontagora Local Government.

The Likert scale grading 1=Strongly disagree and 4=Strongly Agree were adopted for this study due to its suitability in measuring perceptions, attitudes, values and behaviours that relate to incentive schemes and community development.

Table 3.2: Interpretation of Likert Scale

Scale	Mean range	Response mode	Interpretation
4	3.26 – 4.00	Strongly Agree	Very satisfactory
3	2.51 – 3.25	Agree	Satisfactory
2	1.76 – 2.50	Disagree	Fair
1	1.00 – 1.75	Strongly Disagree	Poor

The study also used documentary review to establish the past successes and failures of community development projects in Kontagora local government and if these failures or successes were attributed to incentive schemes. The researcher will look at local government performance reports, files regarding projects awards and contracts and media reports

3.6 Validity and Reliability of the Instrument

Validity: To establish validity, instruments were pre-tested by administering the questionnaires to 5 councilors and 5 staff members at Kontagora Local Government. This was intended to correct any errors that would be identified before the main study. Content validity was used as an index to measure the validity of the instrument. The questionnaire's validity were determined by getting the relevant items according to the experts divided by the total number of items; that is;

$$ContentValidityIndex (CVI) = \frac{relevantitems}{totalnumberofitems}$$

$$CVI = \frac{32}{39}$$

$$CVI = 0.82$$

According to Amin (2005), if the Content Validity Index is 0.70 and above, it means the instrument used is valid. This therefore means that the instruments used for this study were valid.

Reliability: reliability was tested using Cronbach's coefficient alpha (a). Specifically, coefficient alpha is typically used during scale development with items that have several response options (i.e. 1=strongly disagree to 4=strongly agree). To establish the Cronbach's coefficient alpha (a), reliability analysis using SPSS was used and the results are shown in Table 3.3:

Table 3.2: Reliability Analysis showing Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients for Reliability of Instruments

Construct	Number of items	Cronbach's alpha
Cash incentives	5	-0.247
Recognition	5	0.426
Special opportunities	7	0.844
Agricultural production	7	1.000
Information access	7	1.000
Political participation	8	1.000
Overall IV	17	0.839

Overall DV	22	0.972
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The internal consistency of cash incentives and recognition was not reliable since they had very weak values of cronbach's alpha. Amin (2005) asserts that for an instrument to be considered reliable, the average index should be above 0.70. According to this study, cronbach's values for special opportunities, agricultural production, information access and political participation were above 0.70 average index hence they had very strong cronbach's values. On overall, both the independent and dependent variables had strong values of cronbach's alpha.

3.7 Data Gathering procedure

After the approval of the proposal, the researcher got a transmittal letter from the College of Higher Degrees and Research to enable him to proceed to the field. After ascertaining the reliability of the instruments, the researcher proceeded to administer the area of study. Questionnaires were then distributed by the researcher himself. Interviews were conducted and recorded by the researcher. The data collected were computed with the use of computer, edited and coded to minimize obvious errors. Then data were grouped into Tables and frequency graphs. The collected data were analyzed, interpreted and then discussed.

3.8 Data Analysis

Data were analyzed using both quantitative and qualitative techniques as follows;

Quantitative analysis

The data gathered were edited, encoded into the computer and statistically analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 16.

After the researcher sorting out the valid questionnaires and coding accomplished, to derive useful meaning from the data, and examine the propositions of this study, data from the survey were analyzed using SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) version 16 and presented using frequency and percentage tables and mean and standard deviation tables.

The Pearson's correlation co-efficient method were used because it is the most appropriate for determining whether there is linear relationship between independent variable (IV) and

dependent variable (DV). Regression analyses were done to determine the effect of the (IV) on the (DV).

Qualitative analysis

This was used to analyze all data collected using interview guides and it was done basing on existing sub themes. The results were then integrated into quantitative statistics generated from the questionnaires.

3.9 Ethical Considerations

The following strategies were adapted to ensure the moral justification of the investigation.

Authorization: This involved getting clearance from the ethical body and consent of the respondents.

Anonymity and Confidentiality: The names or identifications of the respondents were anonymous and information collected from them was treated with utmost confidentiality.

Integrity: The researcher acted honestly, fairly and respectfully to all other stakeholders that were involved in this study.

Ascriptions of authorships: The researcher accurately attributed to the sources of information in an effort to celebrate the works of past scholars or researchers. This ensured that no plagiarism occurred.

Scientific adjudication: The researcher worked according to generally acceptable norms of research.

3.10 Limitations of the Study

- Uncooperative behavior of some respondents, un-approachable respondents and those who were reluctant to give information limited the researcher in this study.
- The researcher was also limited by privacy to information by administrators because of organizational policy regarding information disbursement.
- The researcher was limited by extraneous variables such as honesty of the respondents where some of them did not say the truth.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTEPRETATION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis of the data gathered and interpretation thereof. It gives the demographic characteristics of respondents and the objectives of the study which include:

- i. To study incentive schemes in terms of cash incentives, recognition and special opportunities among employees in Kontagora Local Government.
- ii. To find out the extent of community development in terms of agricultural productivity, access to information and political participation in Kontagora Local Government.
- iii. To examine the relationship between incentive schemes and community development in Kontagora Local Government.

4.1 Demographic characteristics of respondents

This section determines the demographic characteristics of respondents in terms of gender, age, education level and work experience. To achieve it, questions were asked to capture these responses. Frequencies and percentage distributions were employed to summarize the demographic characteristics of respondents as shown in Table4.1 below.

Table 4.1: Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

N=133

Demographic characteristics of respondents		Frequency	Percent
Gender			
Valid	Male	76	57
	Female	57	43
	Total	133	100
Age			
Valid	20-39 years (early adulthood)	68	51
	40-59 years (mid adulthood)	36	27
	above 60 years (late adulthood)	29	22
	Total	133	100
Level of Education			
Valid	Certificate	9	7
	Diploma	17	13
	Degree	78	59
	Masters	26	19
	PhD	3	2
	Total	133	100
Work Experience			
Valid	1-5 years	74	56
	11-15 years	47	35
	above 15 years	12	9
	Total	133	100

Source: field research, 2014

In regard to gender, Table 4.1 revealed that majority (57%) of the respondents were male while (43%) were female. This means that the male were dominant in the study. This could be because the council chairperson of Kontagora Local Government was male; most of his councilors were male and most of the departmental directors of Kontagora Local Government were also male. During the study, the researcher also observed that most of the participants from among the community members were also male hence male dominance in this study. All these goes in line with the fact that women are not encouraged to participate in anything contrary to the teachings of their religion and culture which always encourage women to stay at home and do not participate in politics or any activities that involves mixing up with men in the society.

Furthermore, Table 4.1 revealed that majority (51%) of the respondents belonged to the age group between 20-39 years while (27%) belonged to the age group between 40-59 years and only (22%) of them were above 60 years. This means that majority of the respondents were in their early adulthood. This could be because this age group is preferred to work in the Local Government since they are still strong and hardworking hence are able to manage community development projects.

In addition to the above findings, Table 4.1 revealed that majority (59%) of the respondents were Degree Holders, followed by (19%) who were Masters Holders. Respondents with Diploma and Certificate qualifications were represented by 13% and 7% respectively. Only 2% of the respondents were PhD Holders. This means that Degree Holders were dominant in the study. This could be because of the developmental education policies such as free education from primary level to institution level for all Nigerian children.

Not only that, Table 4.1 also revealed that majority (56%) of the respondents had work experience of 1-5 years while (35%) had work experience of 11-15 years and only (9%) had work experience of above 15 years. This means that respondents with work experience between 1-5 years were dominant in the study. This could be because of the high turnover rate hence most employees wound not want to get tied in the same job for many years because of the poor pension and gratuity in public service. Employees nowadays are constantly looking for greener pastures and better opportunities somewhere else hence they do not stay in the same job for so long before quitting or resigning.

4.2 The Level of Incentive Schemes

The first objective of this study was to determine the level of incentive schemes in terms of cash incentives, recognition and special opportunities among employees in Kontagora Local Government. The researcher distributed questionnaires to council chairperson, councilors, departmental directors and staff members at the Local Government in order to achieve this objective. Analysis of data was done using means and standard deviations. Table 4.2 gives the summary of the findings.

Table 4.2: The Level of Incentive schemes

Incentive schemes	Mean	Std. Deviation	Interpretation
Cash incentives			
This institution gives employees bonuses for job well done.	3.55	.640	Very satisfactory
I prefer cash to non-cash reward	3.00	.000	Satisfactory
There is a good reward scheme in this institution	2.93	.252	Satisfactory
This institution provides commission to employees for good performance.	2.80	.404	Satisfactory
This institution provides employees with premiums for going the extra mile in their jobs.	2.42	.496	Fair
Average mean	2.95		Satisfactory
Recognition			
I am being recognized by fellow colleagues for an outstanding group work	4.00	.000	Very satisfactory
The public acknowledge me for the work I do.	4.00	.000	Very satisfactory
I love being appreciated for job well done	4.00	.000	Very satisfactory
This institution has employee recognition program	2.74	.440	Satisfactory
I prefer verbal recognition to rewritten recognition	2.44	.499	Fair
Average mean	3.44		Very satisfactory
Special opportunities			
Employees are given a chance to participate in special assignments	3.79	.412	Very satisfactory
The working conditions are favorable	3.76	.427	Very satisfactory

The institution is not strict on work holidays or vacations	3.73	.446	Very satisfactory
Employees are given opportunity to participate in decision making during board meetings	2.00	.000	Fair
Employees are offered chances to have special dinners with top management	1.89	.317	Fair
Employees in this institution are given special trainings as a way of motivating them	1.51	.503	Poor
Employees are offered opportunities to participate in chairing board meetings	1.00	.000	Poor
Average mean	2.53		Satisfactory
General average mean	2.97		Satisfactory

Source: field data, 2014

Scale	Mean range	Response mode	Interpretation
4	3.26 – 4.00	Strongly Agree	Very satisfactory
3	2.51 – 3.25	Agree	Satisfactory
2	1.76 – 2.50	Disagree	Fair
1	1.00 – 1.75	Strongly Disagree	Poor

In regard to cash incentives, table 4.2 revealed an average mean of (2.95) and was interpreted as satisfactory. This could have been attributed to the fact that majority of the respondents strongly agreed that their institution gives employees bonuses for job well done (mean=3.55, SD=.640). Other respondents also agreed that they prefer cash to non cash rewards (mean=3.00, SD=.000), they agreed that there is a good reward scheme in their institution (mean=2.93, SD=.252) and that the institution provides commission to employees for good performance (mean=2.80, SD=.404). However they disagreed that their institution provides employees with premiums for going the extra mile in their jobs (mean=2.42, SD=.490).

The researcher interviewed key informants on the kind of cash incentives majorly offered to different employees in their institution. Most of the key informants indicated the following as the cash incentives they have: salary increment, bonuses, car loan and house loan. Comparing the questionnaires and interview results, the respondents tend to conflict in their responses since they did not indicate in the interview that they are also given commissions as a way of motivating

them yet they acknowledged in the questionnaire that commissions are given to good performing employees.

According to the findings of this study, majority of the respondents strongly agreed that their institution's gives them bonuses for job well done. This is important because bonuses give employees to be very motivated in their jobs. Bonuses are a traditional form of rewarding and incentivizing employees. They consist of one-time payments that augment ongoing wage payments. For example, a group of workers may receive a bonus at the end of the year or upon the completion of a special project. Bonuses are salary-based, as when they take the form of an additional paycheck, or employers can choose to issue them at a flat rate for all workers. Bonuses can depend on overall company performance, individual performance or meeting a specific department or team goal. Giving your employees money, and the freedom for them to spend it on whatever reward they choose, might sound like the recipe for a happy and more productive workplace. But evidence from an array of scientific studies says otherwise. Individual rewards—ranging from pay-per-performance to bonuses—have been shown to be detrimental to employee morale and productivity.

According to Markova and Ford (2011), monetary rewards tend to decrease the individual's intrinsic motivation and interest for the job. Second, unless the job is extremely simple (requiring no creativity, problem-solving, or complex reasoning abilities), monetary rewards can paradoxically impair performance by leading employees to focus too much on the up-coming extra cash. Finally, when employees compare their end-of-year bonuses, we see more jealousy, anxiety, and competition, and less trust, sharing, and teamwork in the workplace. If your employees are working in groups, the effect is compounded: deterioration of these relationships damages both their individual happiness as well as how they work together as a team.

The study also showed that majority of the respondents agreed that they prefer cash to non cash reward. This means that cash can immediately meet the needs of an employee compared to non cash rewards. According to Ross and Zander (1957), in order to attract and retain employees in an organization, their needs must first be satisfied. Those needs would include a reasonable competitive salary and other competitive benefits. According to (Kirkcaldy and Furnham 1993;

Tang 1992), money is related to: Achievement and recognition, Status and respect, Freedom and control and Power.

Given the above, (Kirkcaldy and Furnham 1993; Tang 1992) explain that money is therefore an aspect of motivation because of what it stands for. The authors cite that monetary rewards are more important in individual's real selections than in their answers to the question about the significance of monetary rewards as a motivator. This leads to underestimation of monetary rewards as a motivating factor in the organizational environment.

Results about the importance of monetary rewards as a motivator come from Agarwal's (2010) study based on a literature review on motivation and executive compensation. Agarwal (2010) states that money is still the most crucial motivating factor for employees and that it makes them perform well in the company. Agarwal agrees that non-monetary rewards motivate but, after a certain point in an individual's career, money has the greater significance.

One study found that a cash incentive was preferred over nonmonetary incentives. Establishment respondents were initially given the option between \$50 cash or the *Dun and Bradstreet Small Business Solutions* package (retailing for \$199); 80.2% of respondents requested the \$50 cash incentive. Some respondents who opted for the solutions package asked later to exchange it for the cash incentive (NORC 2005; Mach et al., 2008). With all the above evidences on the preference for cash as a reward system, it can only be said that money is power, no wonder the respondents in this study preferred it as the best reward option.

Furthermore, the study also established that majority of the respondents agreed that the institution provides them with commission for good performance. This means that employees who earn commission see a direct link between their performance and their pay, which encourages motivation and promotes healthy competition within a workforce. The payment of commission as remuneration for services rendered or products sold is a common way to reward employees. Wiscombe (2002) said that although many types of commission systems exist, a common form is known as on-target earnings, where commission rates are based on the achievement of specific targets that have been agreed upon between management and the employee. These commissions are intended to create a strong incentive for employees to invest maximum effort into their work.

In regard to recognition, table 4.2 revealed an average mean of (3.44) and was interpreted as very satisfactory. This is because majority of the respondents strongly agreed that they preferred being recognized by fellow colleagues for an outstanding group work (mean=4.00, SD=.000), loved public acknowledgement from their superiors (mean=4.00, SD=.000) and loved being appreciated for job well done (mean=4.00, SD=.000). They also agreed that their institution had employee recognition program (mean=2.74, SD=.440) but disagreed that they preferred verbal recognition to rewritten recognition (mean=2.44, SD=.499).

Key informants revealed that employees are mostly recognized through appreciation by stakeholders, job promotions, praise and respect. This therefore means that questionnaire responses are in line with the interview responses. This is because from the questionnaire, employees indicated that they love public acknowledgement and appreciation from their superiors which is the same as appreciation by stakeholders or praise indicated in the responses of the interviews.

The study findings revealed that majority of the respondents preferred being recognized by fellow colleagues for an outstanding group work, others preferred public acknowledgement from superiors while others just preferred being appreciated for job well done verbally. This therefore shows that recognition is very important in motivating employees so that their performance can improve.

Harter, *et al* (2003) wrote that appreciation is a fundamental human need. Employees respond to appreciation expressed through recognition of their good work because it confirms their work is valued. According to Sirota, *et al* (2005), when employees and their work are valued, their satisfaction and productivity rises, and they are motivated to maintain or improve their good work. Praise and recognition are essential to an outstanding workplace. People want to be respected and valued for their contribution. Everyone feels the need to be recognized as an individual or member of a group and to feel a sense of achievement for work well done or even for a valiant effort. Everyone wants a 'pat on the back' to make them feel good.

According to Rathand (2004), appropriate recognition at the appropriate time is a best practice that ultimately improves the performance in any organization. A Gallup poll found that 82 percent of employees say that the recognition or praise they receive at work motivates them to

improve their performance. Employee recognition programs, motivational incentive programs and even flexible work schedules all add to a positive culture that helps workers be more engaged and focused on achievement.

In regard to special opportunities, table 4.2 revealed an average mean of (2.53) and was interpreted as satisfactory. This means that majority of the respondents strongly agreed that they are given a chance to participate in special assignments (mean=3.79, SD=.412) making the working conditions favorable (mean=3.76, SD=.427) since the institution is not even strict on work holidays or vacations (mean=3.73=.446). Few respondents on the other hand disagreed that they are given opportunity to participate in decision making during board meetings (mean=2.00, SD=.000) and that they are offered chances to have special dinners with top management (mean=1.89, SD=.317). However the rest of the respondents strongly disagreed that they are given special trainings as a way of motivating them (mean=1.51, SD=.503) and that they are offered opportunities to participate in chairing board meetings (mean=1.00, SD=.000).

Information from key informants revealed that special opportunities exist in the organization and include going for special trainings, vacation days, conducive working condition, a favored assignment and mentorship. However these special opportunities do not go well with employees who do not receive them. Key informants revealed that employees who do not receive such special opportunities often get discouraged to work harder and end up conflicting with the recipients of these special opportunities. However other key informants also revealed that special opportunities in some cases encourage the recipients to work harder next time so that they can receive the same and it also boosts their morale to perform better in their jobs.

The results from the questionnaires and interviews seem to indicate that participants acknowledged that they are offered vacation, good work condition and favored assignments. However there is a conflict in their response in regard to special trainings. From the questionnaires they strongly disagreed that they are given special trainings but then concede in the interview that they are given special trainings.

In summary, the variables that measured the level of incentive schemes included cash incentives, recognition and special opportunities. Recognition had the highest average mean of (3.44), followed by cash incentive (2.95) and special opportunities was last with average mean of (2.53).

In general, the average mean of incentive schemes in Kontagora local government was (2.97) and was interpreted as satisfactory. This implies that the level of incentive schemes at Kontagora local government is moderate and much is yet desired to see it at better state than it is now.

4.3 The Level of Community Development

The second objective of this study was to establish the extent of community development in terms of agricultural productivity, access to information and political participation in Kontagora Local Government. The researcher distributed questionnaires to community members in order to achieve this objective. The researcher summarized the findings in Table 4.3:

Table 4.3: The Level of Community Development in Kontagora Local Government

Community development	Mean	Std. Deviation	Interpretation
Agricultural production			
The community does not suffer food shortage because the home states participate in agriculture	3.85	.359	Very satisfactory
Every home state here has a garden for agricultural activities	3.71	.354	Very satisfactory
The community participates in both food and commercial farming	3.64	.351	Very satisfactory
Most of the community members here participate in agricultural activities	3.62	.349	Very satisfactory
Through agriculture, I have enough food for feeding my family and for sale	3.59	.344	Very satisfactory
A agriculture is important in this community	3.55	.334	Very satisfactory
Agriculture is part of my everyday life	3.48	.330	Very satisfactory
Average mean	3.63		Very satisfactory
Information access			
Most community members have personal handset phones	3.28	.449	Very satisfactory
The community has good road networks	3.23	.443	Satisfactory
The community has internet connectivity	3.20	.439	Satisfactory
There is easy access of newspapers in this community	3.18	.434	Satisfactory
The programs in the radio stations are community-development oriented	3.12	.423	Satisfactory

I own a television set for easy access to information	3.04	.419	Satisfactory
I own a radio for easy access to information	3.01	.410	Satisfactory
Average mean	3.15		Satisfactory
Political participation			
I have ever donated money to support a political group	3.73	.449	Very satisfactory
I have close contacts with politicians	3.68	.444	Very satisfactory
I often attend political meetings	3.61	.436	Very satisfactory
I have ever distributed leaflets with political contents	3.57	.427	Very satisfactory
I participate in public demonstrations	3.53	.419	Very satisfactory
I belong to a political party	3.44	.400	Very satisfactory
I participate in voting	3.18	.349	Satisfactory
I love politics	3.06	.312	Satisfactory
Average mean	3.48		Very satisfactory
General average mean	3.42		Very satisfactory

Source: field data, 2014

Scale	Mean range	Response mode	Interpretation
4	3.26 – 4.00	Strongly Agree	Very satisfactory
3	2.51 – 3.25	Agree	Satisfactory
2	1.76 – 2.50	Disagree	Fair
1	1.00 – 1.75	Strongly Disagree	Poor

In regard to agricultural production, Table 4.3 revealed an average mean of (3.63) and was interpreted as very satisfactory. This was attributed to the high mean scores that measured agricultural production. This is because majority of the respondents strongly agreed that their community does not suffer food shortage because their home states participate in agriculture (mean=3.85, SD=.359) since every home state has a garden for agricultural activities (mean=3.71, SD=.354) and participates in both food and commercial farming (mean=3.64, SD=.351). Furthermore, Table 4.3 revealed that majority of the respondents strongly agreed that most of the community members participate in agricultural activities (mean=3.62, SD=.349) and that through agriculture, they have enough food for feeding their families and for sale (mean=3.59, SD=.344). The respondents also strongly agreed that agriculture is important in

their community (mean=3.55, SD=.334) and it has become part of their everyday life (mean=3.48, SD=.330).

The findings of the study revealed that the community has made agriculture part of their everyday life. This is because through agriculture, most home states are able to provide for their families hence they do not suffer food shortage. Within the communities, majority of them participate in both food and commercial production. This finding therefore disagrees with the findings of World Bank (2003) where it was revealed that most African countries had not yet met the criteria for a successful agricultural revolution, and factor productivity in African agriculture lagged far behind the rest of the world. The finding concluded that this failure had led to growing skepticism in the international development community about the relevance of agriculture to growth and poverty reduction in Africa. As it can be seen in this study finding, families are able to feed themselves from agricultural output and also sell the surplus for income. This means that poverty is no longer a vice that bits into the lives of Kontagora people.

In regard to information access, Table 4.3 revealed an average mean of (3.15) and was interpreted as satisfactory. This is because the items that measured this variable had high mean scores. This means that majority of the respondents strongly agreed that they have personal handset phones (mean=3.28, SD=.449) while others agreed that they have good road networks (mean=3.23, SD=.443), internet connectivity (mean=3.20, SD=.439) and easy access to newspapers (mean=3.18, SD=.434).

Further scrutiny revealed that majority of the respondents agreed that the programs in the radio stations are community-development oriented (mean=3.12, SD=.423). Others agreed that they own a television set (mean=3.04, SD=.423) and a radio for easy access to information (mean=3.01, SD=.410).

The study findings revealed that most community members have personal handset phones, own television sets and radios for easy access to information. The problem is that the available internet connection is quite slow and expensive, and also the road networks are not so user friendly hence hindering easy access to information such as access to newspapers that can provide very vital information in regard to both national and regional development.

Information is raw material for development for both urban and rural dwellers. Prosperity, progress, and development of any nation depend upon the nation's ability to acquire, produce, access, and use pertinent information. A report on older rural people (2008) indicates that, Access to information and advice is a key resource for local people in maintaining active and independent lives. Access to information is also critical to letting people know their entitlements to welfare benefits and sources of support to overcome social exclusion.

It has been observed that having access to the right information can address major problems that hinder community development and it can also improve chances for livelihoods. A researcher such as Aboyade (2005) reported an increase in income because farmer's cooperatives which were well informed were able to respond appropriately to changes in the market. This made them to compete with commercial farmers, through communal viewing of agricultural programs on television and telephone conversation with distant friends and relatives. It also strengthened their social networks, such people today continue developing themselves with information they acquired.

Societal needs are satisfied through various kinds of activities, each of which requires information as an input. These include, for example, education, policy formulation, research and development, personal needs, business, decision-making, mass communications, public goods and private goods. Societal needs are also satisfied at different levels, from individuals through to global communities with information. That is why Panos (2008) stated that "access to information is an essential condition for development". From this juncture, it could be said that information if well uttered and packaged for rural communities will exterminate poverty, ignorance and gives enlightenment on how to achieve economic, social, educational, political and cultural objectives towards the development of the entire society.

In regard to political participation, Table 4.3 revealed an average mean of (3.48) and was interpreted as very satisfactory. This means that majority of the respondents strongly agreed that they have ever donated money to support a political group (mean=3.73, SD=.449), had close contacts with politicians (mean=3.68, SD=.444), attended political meetings (mean=3.61, SD=.436) and had ever distributed leaflets with political contents (mean=3.57, SD=.427).

Furthermore, Table 4.3 revealed that majority of the respondents strongly agreed that they participate in public demonstrations (mean=3.53, SD=.419) and belong to a political party (mean=3.44, SD=.400). The rest of the respondents agreed that they participate in voting (mean=3.18, SD=.349) and love politics (mean=3.06, SD=.312).

According to the study findings, majority of the respondents revealed that they had ever donated money to support a political group, had close contacts with politicians, attended political meetings, distributed leaflets with political contents, participated in public demonstrations and at least belonged to a political party. However the same study established that majority of the same respondents do not actually participate in voting. This means that the citizens of Kontagora are very involved in political activities that are intended to influence state intervention but unfortunately, they do not vote for their local leaders who probably should be in position to listen and act upon their grievances.

In summary, the variables that measured community development were agricultural productivity, information access and political participation. Agricultural productivity had the highest mean score while information access had the least. In general, the average mean score that measured the level of community development in Kontagora Local Government was (3.42) and was interpreted as very satisfactory. The results suggest that the level of community development in Kontagora Local Government is high much as there is need to improve on information access.

4.4 The Relationship between the Level of Incentive Schemes among employees and Community Development in Kontagora Local Government

The third objective of this study was to examine the relationship between incentive schemes among employees and community development in Kontagora Local Government. Table 4.4 gives the summary of the findings.

Table 4.4: The Relationship between the Level of Incentive Schemes and Community Development in Kontagora Local Government

Variables correlated	Pearson (r) value	Level of Significance	Interpretation	Decision on H ₀
The level of incentive schemes and the level of community development	-0.261	0.311	No significant correlation	Accepted

Sig. (2-tailed)

According to Table 4.4, there is no significant correlation between the level of incentive schemes and the level of community development in Kontagora Local Government ($r = -0.261$, $\text{Sig} = 0.311$). It therefore means that the null hypothesis is accepted and the alternative rejected. This implies that any change in incentive scheme does not in any way affect the level of community development. In other words, if the council chairperson, councilors, departmental directors or staff members at the Local Government are motivated or not, it does not affect the way the local community involve themselves in agricultural production or political participation within Kontagora region.

The study established a no significant correlation between the level of incentive schemes and the level of community development in Kontagora Local Government ($r = -0.261$, $\text{Sig} = 0.311$). This means that the variation in the level of incentive schemes does not significantly affect the variations in the level of community development ($F = 1.100$, $\text{Sig} = 0.311$). This is because all the factors that measured incentive schemes can only influence 0.6% of the variations in the level of community development (adjusted $R^2 = 0.006$).

Table 4.5: The Regression Analysis between the Dependent and Independent Variable

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.261 ^a	.068	.006	.26869	.068	1.100	1	15	.311

a. Predictors: (Constant), incentive schemes

The regression analysis results of the study as revealed in Table 4.5 indicate that the variation in the level of incentive schemes does not significantly affect the variations in the level of community development ($F=1.100$, $Sig=0.311$). This implies that all the factors that measured incentive schemes can only influence 0.6% of the variations in the level of community development (adjusted $R^2=0.006$). This can only mean that extraneous variables such as corruption of employees at the Local Government level, their lack of transparency and accountability of government intended development funds and poor working conditions could explain the remaining 99.4% variations in the level of community development.

Table 4.6: Coefficients of regression analysis between the dependent variable and the variables that measured the independent variable

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.293	.219		15.041	.042
	cash incentives	.286	.059	1.126	4.864	.129
	Recognition	-.375	.200	-2.819	-1.872	.312
	special opportunities	.276	.153	2.643	1.803	.322

a. Dependent Variable: community development

The results in Table 4.6 revealed that the coefficient estimate for cash incentives (Sig=.129), recognition (Sig=.312) and special opportunities (Sig=.322) are above the 0.05 level of confidence hence they have too much variation. This means that there is no effect of the individual variables on the dependent variable.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter summarizes the findings of the study, draws conclusions and makes recommendations based on the findings.

5.2 Summary of the findings

The male were dominant in the study, with most of the respondents belonging to the age group between 20-39 years and were Degree Holders. In addition to that, majority of the respondents had work experience of between 1-5 years only. The study furthermore revealed a satisfactory level of incentive scheme application and community development however there was no significant correlation between incentive schemes and community development.

5.3 Conclusion

Level of incentive schemes in Kontagora Local Government

Kontagora Local Government has a reward scheme for its employees such cash incentives, recognition and special opportunities. Cash incentives include bonuses, commissions and car and house loans. These rewards are given to different employees for their outstanding performances or achievements within the organization. Due to these rewards, some employees have tended to prefer cash to non cash rewards because of reasons best known to them. The institution on the other hand does not give premiums to its employees for the extra time they spend doing their jobs or for any new innovation created for the good of the institution.

Kontagora Local Government in an attempt to motivate its employees has also an employee-recognition program. These programs include among others public acknowledgement, appreciation by stakeholders, job promotions, praise and respect. However much as these programs are in existence, employees hardly get them. Instead of being publicly appreciated, the management often prefers writing to them than publicly appreciating them or giving a handshake which employees do not see the gesture as recognition enough.

Lastly, Kontagora Local Governmental offers special opportunities to its employees as an incentive scheme. In this attempt, employees are given a chance to vacation days, conducive working condition, favored assignment, and mentorship, verbal and written recognition. However these special opportunities do not go well with employees who do not receive them. Employees who do not receive such special opportunities often get discouraged to work harder and end up conflicting with the recipients of these special opportunities. The recipients on the other hand work harder so that they can receive the same and it also boosts their morale to perform better in their jobs. Employees may be offered special opportunities but vital and important cases that can encourage them are not given to them. For instance, they are not given opportunity to participate in decision making during board meetings, special trainings as a way of motivating them and a chance to participate in chairing board meetings.

Level of Community Development at Kontagora Local Government

The community members at Kontagora Local Government are very involved in community development aspects in terms of agricultural production. This is because most homes states do not suffer food shortage because they participate in agriculture which provides them with enough food to feed their families. Their farming is mostly mixed, that is, they participate in both food and commercial production. In order words, the local communities are not badly off when it comes to sustaining their families. This means poverty is at its minimal stage in this area of Niger state.

In terms of information access, a number of the local community members posses personal handset phones, television sets and radios. However the road network in the area is not so good, internet connectivity is slow and access to newspapers is not very easy. The available radio stations do not have programs that promote community development as it should have been hence the community is not so knowledgeable about community development initiatives.

In regard to political participation, community members are involved in politics. A number of them even contribute money to support a political group, are always in close ties with politicians, are always in attendance of political rallies and have their parties where they belong and can easily make a public demonstration in case of any political dissatisfaction. The problem is that, with all these efforts put in place; these community members actually do not participate in voting

which is very vital in choosing good leaders. This can only mean that, most of the community members are not patriotic at all much as they have politics at heart.

The relationship between incentive schemes and community development

There was no positive correlation and significance between the level of incentive schemes and the level of community development in Kontagora Local Government ($r = -0.261$, $\text{Sig} = 0.311$). The null hypothesis was accepted and the alternative rejected. This was because only 0.6% of the variations in the level of incentive schemes could affect the variations in the level of community development (adjusted $R^2 = 0.006$), meaning that more than 99% of the variations in the level of community development is influenced by extraneous variables.

5.4 Recommendation/s

From the findings the researcher made the following recommendations based on incentive schemes in terms of cash incentives, recognition and special opportunities while recommendations are made on community development in terms of information access and political participation.

Incentive schemes

The Local Government should provide their employees with both cash and non cash incentives. Cash incentives such as premiums, bonuses, salary increment and commissions should be mixed with non cash incentives such as health insurance, house allowance, car allowances, promotions and retirement packages. When these rewards are mixed, it will encourage employees to even perform better.

The Local Government should devise a better system or programs for recognizing their employees. Programs such as the best employee of the year, the best department of the year, the smartest employee of the year or the most enterprising employee of the year should be put in place. This will help employees to work hard for recognition of their efforts and achievements.

For employees whose efforts are outstanding, management should offer them special training opportunities in order to improve their skills and probably get involved in decision making during board meetings. This will help them to see their future with the organization and improve their job performance.

Community development

The Local Government should budget properly in order to allocate adequate funds for construction of modern roads that can facilitate information access within the community.

The local radio stations should provide community development programs like listeners groups which are intended to educate the local mass on the importance of working or opening a business that can help eradicate poverty among them.

The Local Government should involve the media and beneficiaries such as the NGOs in sensitizing the people on the importance of voting for their local leaders. This will help solve the problem of hooliganism where people just make noise during a political rally and when it is voting time they do not turn up.

5.5 Areas for further Research

- i. Assessment of incentive schemes and community development should be done covering a bigger population probably all the states in Nigeria for generalization of the findings.
- ii. This study established that incentive scheme does not affect community development, there is therefore need to establish whether good governance can influence community development in Kontagora.

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APPENDICES



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COLLEGE OF HIGHER DEGREES AND RESEARCH

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

May, 26th, 2014.

INTRODUCTION LETTER FOR WAZIRI MUSE REG.NO.MPA/41646/133/DF TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN YOUR ORGANISATION

The above mentioned candidate is a bonafide student of Kampala International University pursuing a Master's of Arts in Public Administration and Management .

He is currently conducting a field research for his dissertation entitled "**Incentive schemes and community Development in Kontagora local Government of Niger state, Nigeria**".

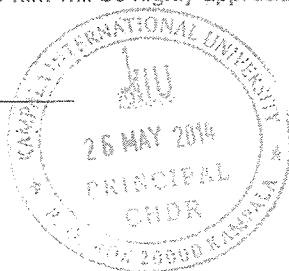
Your organization has been identified as valuable source of information pertaining to his research project. The purpose of this letter then is to request you to avail him with pertinent information he may need.

Any information shared with him will be used for academic purposes only and shall be kept with utmost confidentiality.

Any assistance rendered to him will be highly appreciated.

Yours truly,

Prof. Maicibi Alihas
Principal, CHDR.





KONTAGORA LOCAL GOVERNMENT COUNCIL
PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT DEPARTMENT

ADDRESS:
Local Government Secretariat
Lagos - Kano Road,
P. M. B. 2, Kontagora,
Niger State, Nigeria.

Our Ref: KON/LG/CA/ADM/99

Your Ref: _____

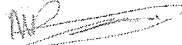
Date: 14th June, 2014

The Principal,
College of Higher Degrees and
Research, Kampala
International University Uganda.

RE-INTRODUCTION LETTER FOR WAZIRI MUSA REG. NO.
MPA/41646/133/DF TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN OUR
ORGANISATION

Reference to your letter dated May 26th 2014, on the above subject matter, I write under directive to acknowledge the receipt of your introduction and to inform you that the above named student has been accepted to conduct his research in this organization.

Accept the assurance of our highest regards, please.


Muazu Buhari M.K.
Principal Executive Officer (Adm)
For: Director, Administration

INFORMED CONSENT

I am giving my consent to be part of the research study of Mr. Waziri Musa that will focus on incentive schemes for employee and community development in Kontagora Local Government, Niger State.

I shall be assured of privacy, anonymity and confidentiality and that I will be given the option to refuse participation and right to withdraw my participation anytime.

I have been informed that the research is voluntary and that the results will be given to me if I ask for it.

Initials: _____

Date _____

RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

Profile Characteristics of the Respondents

Please tick (✓) the appropriate option

1) Gender

☐ Male

☐ Female

2) Age

☐ 20-39 years (early adulthood)

☐ 40-59 years (mid adulthood)

☐ above 60 years (late adulthood)

3) Level of education

☐ Certificate

☐ Diploma

☐ Degree

☐ Masters

☐ PhD

4) Work experience

☐ 1-5 years

☐ 6-10 years

☐ 11-15 years

☐ Above 15 years

QUESTIONNAIRE TO DETERMINE THE LEVEL OF INCENTIVE SCHEMES KONTAGORA LOCAL GOVERNMENT

For Council Chairperson, Councilors, Departmental Directors and Local Government staff members only.

Instruction:

- Using the scale provided below, please indicate in the available space the rating that best describes the level of incentive schemes in Kontagora.

Score	Response	Description
4	Strongly Agree	You agree with no doubt at all
3	Agree	You agree with no doubt
2	Disagree	You disagree with no doubt
1	Strongly disagree	You disagree with no doubt at all

Incentive schemes

A. Cash incentives	4	3	2	1
1. This institution gives employees bonuses for jobs well done.				
2. This institution provides commission to employees for good performance.				
3. This institution provides employees with premiums for going the extra mile in their jobs.				
4. I prefer cash to non cash reward.				
5. There is a good reward scheme in this institution.				
B. Recognition				
6. This institution has employee recognition program.				
7. I love being appreciated for job well done.				
8. I love public acknowledgement from my superiors.				
9. I prefer verbal recognition to rewritten recognition.				

10. I prefer being recognized by fellow colleagues for an outstanding group work.				
C. Special opportunities				
11. Employees in this institution are given special trainings as a way of motivating them.				
12. Employees are given a chance to participate in special assignments.				
13. The working conditions are favorable.				
14. The institution is not strict on work holidays or vacations.				
15. Employees are offered chances to have special dinners with top management				
16. Employees are given opportunity to participate in decision making during board meetings.				
17. Employees are offered opportunities to participate in chairing board meetings.				

QUESTIONNAIRE TO DETERMINE THE EXTENT OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT IN KONTAGORA LOCAL GOVERNMENT

For members of the civil community only

Instruction:

- Using the scale provided below, please indicate in the available space the rating that best describes the level of incentive schemes in Kontagora.

Score	Response	Description
4	Strongly Agree	You agree with no doubt at all
3	Agree	You agree with no doubt
2	Disagree	You disagree with no doubt
1	Strongly disagree	You disagree with no doubt at all

Community development

A. Agricultural Productivity	4	3	2	1
1. Agriculture is part of my everyday life.				
2. A agriculture is important in this community.				
3. Through agriculture, I have enough food for feeding my family and for sale.				
4. Most of the community members here participate in agricultural activities.				
5. The community participates in both food and commercial farming.				
6. Every home state here has a garden for agricultural activities.				
7. The community does not suffer food shortage because the home states participate in agriculture.				
B. Information Access				
8. I own a radio for easy access to information.				
9. I own a television set for easy access to information.				

10. The programs in the radio stations are community-development oriented.				
11. There is easy access of newspapers in this community.				
12. The community has internet connectivity.				
13. The community has good road networks.				
14. Most community members have personal handset phones.				
C. Political Participation				
15. I love politics.				
16. I participate in voting.				
17. I belong to a political party.				
18. I participate in public demonstrations				
19. I have ever distributed leaflets with political contents.				
20. I often attend political meetings.				
21. I have close contacts with politicians.				
22. I have ever donated money to support a political group.				

THE END

INTERVIEW GUIDE

1. Are there cash incentive programs in this institution?

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2. What kind of cash incentives are majorly offered to employees in this institution?

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3. What kind of cash incentives will you prefer to be offered to employees in this institution?

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4. How are employees recognized in this institution for their good job?

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5. Are employees satisfied with the recognition method used in this institution for their good job?

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6. What kinds of recognition programs are in these institutions?

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7. What kind of recognition programmes will you prefer to be used in this institution?

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8. Does this institution offer employees special opportunities in order to motivate them?

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9. What kinds of special opportunities are offered to employees?

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10. What are the draw backs of such special opportunities to the employees who don't get them?

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The End



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