Public-Private Partnership in Nigeria: The Challenges of Human Relations Management

Prof. E.A. Egboh
Dean, Faculty of Social Sciences
Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka Nigeria

Emma Chukwuemeka, Ph.D
Department of Public Administration,
Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka, Nigeria
Tel: 08060967169 and 0805267139

Abstract

Public-Private Partnership in Nigeria and other developing nations in Africa were adopted for developmental purposes and not on ideological ground. For PPP to work out successfully depends on how effective and positively disposed is the work force. Therefore this paper examines the theoretical and conceptual dimensions of human relations management in PPP. Some approaches in the study of organization were critically examined; leadership and motivation were also examined as forces that determine the failure or survival of PPP. An empirical case of a Leader who did not apply sufficient human relations principles in the discharge of his duty in a manufacturing PPP was surveyed and analysis made. The paper therefore concludes that the human side of Public-Private Partnership should be handled with care to ensure organizational goal attainment. Leadership in PPP should adopt contingency model as a leadership style.

Keywords: Public Private partnership, Leadership, human relations, productivity.

Introduction:

Policies and programmes a manager of an organization adopts to meet its employees’ motivational needs are of vital importance and significance because the success or failure of any organization is largely determined by the output of such organization. Output determination is based on workers productivity for productive organization, but for the governmental organizations, output is measured by amount of services delivered to the people. There have been cases of inefficiency in organisations wholly or partly owned by the government. The resultant effect is that many of governmental organizations find it difficult to meet up with their set goals and objectives.

There is no gainsaying that, all activities of any organisation whether governmental or non-governmental are initiated and determined by the persons who make up that institution. According to Azhar (1999), working organizations presumably begin with ideas but their next requirement is people. Whatever may be their organizational goals and objectives, they can be implemented only through the efforts and capabilities of people. The ability of managers to motivate the workers so employed will go a long way to enhance the organizational output. For instance the N18,000 minimum wage controversy in Nigeria today is a case in point. Wage increase is long overdue in Nigeria. Though Frederick Herzberg in his thesis claimed that money is not a motivator but a hygiene factor. It would be recalled that Hertzberg
conducted his research among elite engineers in America who aspire for self actualization, but Nigeria as a new state, money is still a strong motivator considering a number of intervening variables like poverty, economic hardship, high cost of living, chains of family dependants etc. Patton cited in Chukwuemeka (2008) echoed it that money no matter which ever way we look at it is still a strong motivator.

**Statement of Problem**

One of the most fundamental problems currently militating against the success of businesses under the umbrella of Public –Private participation (PPP) is simply the failure of leadership (Chukwuemeka, 2006). Ugwu (2009) argues that, many PPP organization workers are very often restless and confrontational in their approach to issues which affect them as a group, such as the leadership and management not fulfilling some of the employment contracts between it and the workers. The leaders oftentimes treat the workers as machine not taking into consideration that they need to work and squeeze out living especially now there is economic meltdown.

**Conceptual Framework**

**Two Contending approaches to the study of organisation**

(a) **The Classical Model.**

It operates on the grand assumption that workers are motivated by economic gains to work. The model is championed by Frederick Taylor and his contemporaries (Chukwuemeka, 2008). It therefore proceeds to design structures and rules necessary to cash in on these worker characteristics. Because it focuses primarily on structures and treats workers as tools, it has been nick-named “organisation without people”. Its tiding Slogan seems to be that the most efficient organisation will be the most satisfying one. It therefore constructs super-structures and then hunts for men to be filled like nuts into the structures. “organisation as big daddy”. This approach has an incomplete view of the organisational behaviour and a dangerous one too. Consequently, it failed, ab-initio, to serve as effective tools for organizational evaluation. After all, in the last analysis, man is at the centre and purpose of organizations

(b) **The Human Relations Approach**

The protagonist of this model is Elton Mayo. The central theme of this approach is -the worker. In a series of experiments now known as the famous “Harthorne Experiment”, the school came to some important conclusions designed to challenge the operational premises of the classical model (Osisioma and Osisioma, 2002)i. For a proper understanding of the organizational behaviour the school proposes a more explicit recognition of the place and effects of values; much more attention to methodology; a new conception of jobs or positions; a recognition of the fact that employees are individuals who work as members of a group as organisations that must be defined as social institutions; the role of communications and informal relationships within organisations. It proposes a re-evaluation of the concept of organizational leadership. Because the model leans very heavily in favour of workers, it is cynically referred to as
“people without organisation”. Consequently, it becomes the other side of the classical model. The two models-classical and human relations appear to have gone to the extreme in an effort to salvage the organizational behaviour problems. The guiding slogan of the human relation model is that the most satisfying organisation will be the most efficient. In a nutshell, Mayo’s human relation model presupposes that the workers in the organisation have their personal needs; the organisation where they work has its own needs. This therefore is a point of intersection and critical point. For the organisation to satisfy its needs only through the worker is a bad management practice. For the workers to be too selfish about their personal needs, thus allowing them to override the organizational needs and goals certainly will spell doom to the organisation. Where do we then go from here. Mayo postulates that the certain degree of the workers personal needs and desires should be integrated into the organizational needs for a good working relations. In Africa for instance most organisation now allow their workers some hours daily to do their school runs.

**Literature Review**

**Public-Private partnership- A pedagogical and conceptual analysis**

Public-private partnership (PPP) describes a government service or private business venture which is funded and operated through a partnership of government and one or more private sector companies. These schemes are sometimes referred to as PPP (Johnson, 2010).

PPP involves a contract between a public sector authority and a private party, in which the private party provides a public service or project and assumes substantial financial, technical and operational risk in the project. In some types of PPP, the cost of using the service is borne exclusively by the users of the service and not by the taxpayer. In some types of PPP, the cost of using the service is borne exclusively by the users of the service and not by the taxpayer. In other types (notably the private finance initiative), capital investment is made by the private sector on the strength of a contract with government to provide agreed services and the cost of providing the service is borne wholly or in part by the government. Government contributions to a PPP may also be in kind (notably the transfer of existing assets). In projects that are aimed at creating public goods like in the infrastructure sector, the government may provide a capital subsidy in the form of a one-time grant, so as to make it more attractive to the private investors. In some other cases, the government may support the project by providing revenues subsidies, including tax breaks or by providing guaranteed annual revenues for a fixed period.

Typically, a private sector consortium forms a special company called a “special purpose vehicle” (SPV) to develop, build, maintain and operate the asset for the contracted period. In cases where the government has invested in the project, it is typically (but not always) allotted an equity share in the SPV (Thompson, 2009). The Consortium is usually made up of a building contractor, a maintenance company and bank lender(s). It is the SPV that signs the contract with the government and with subcontractors to build the facility and then maintain it. In the infrastructure sector complex arrangements and contracts that guarantee and secure the cash flow and make
PPP projects prime candidates for project financing. A typical PPP example would be a hospital building financed and constructed by a private developer and then leased to the hospital authority. The private developer then acts as landlord, providing housekeeping and other non-medical services while the hospital itself provides medical services.

The Importance of Public-Private Partnerships

Over the past two decades more than 1400 PPP deals were signed in the European Union, which represent an estimated capital value of approximately 260 billion euro (Moxzoro, 2008). Since the onset of the financial crisis in 2008, estimates suggest that the number of PPP deals closed has fallen more than 40 percent (Internet source). These difficulties have placed significant strains on governments that have come to rely on PPPs as an important means for the delivery of long-term infrastructure assets and related services (Allen and Overy: 2010). Moreover, this has occurred precisely at a time when investments in public-sector infrastructure are seen as an important means of maintaining economic activity during the crisis, as was highlighted in a European Commission communication on PPPs (Jacob, 2009). As a result of the importance of PPPs to economic activity, in addition to the complexity of such transactions, the European PPP Expertise Centre (EPEC) was established to support public-sector capacity to implement PPPs and share timely solutions to problems common across Europe in PPPs (Ugo, 2011).

Public–Private Partnership: Contradictions

A common problem with PPP projects is that private investors obtained a rate of return that was higher than the government’s bond rate, even though most or all of the income risk associated with the project was borne by the public sector. It is certainly the case that government debt is cheaper than the debt provided by finance PFI projects, and cheaper still than the overall cost of finance for PFI projects, i.e. the weighted average cost of capital (WACC). This is of course to attempt to compare incompatible and incomplete economic circumstances. It ignores the position of taxpayers who play the role of equity in this financing structure. Making a simple comparison, however, between the government’s cost of debt and the private sector WACC implies that the government can sustainably fund projects at a cost of finance equal to its risk-free borrowing rate. This would be true only if existing borrowing levels were below prudent limits. The constraints on public borrowing suggests, nevertheless, that borrowing levels are not currently too low in most countries. These constraints exist because government borrowing must ultimately be funded by the taxpayers. Assessment procedures were incorporated in the private finance initiative and its Australian counterparts from the late 1990s onwards (Johnson, 2009).

In 2009, the New Zealand Treasury, in response to inquiries by the new National Party government, released a report on PPP schemes that concluded that “there is little reliable empirical evidence about the costs and benefits of PPPs” and that there are other ways of obtaining private sector finance, as well as that the advantages of PPPs must be weighted against the contractual complexities and rigidness they entail (Briant,).
Nowadays, a new model is also being discussed, called the Public-Private Community Partnership (PPCP) model, wherein both the government and private players work together for social welfare, showing the prime focus of private players on profit. This model is being applied more in developing nations such as India. Success is being achieved through this model too; it mainly helps to ramp up the development process as the focus is shifted towards target achievement rather than profit achievement.

**The Epistemology of Leadership and Public-Private Partnership**

Administration and leadership are vital ingredients in the growth and development equation for public–private partnership. The success of PPP depends largely on effective leadership. There we may be wont to link effective leadership with Maxwell’s model in Osisioma and Osisioma (2002). He put forward what he calls the 7Cs of leadership:

1. **Character** which refuses to compromise on what is right, even when it hurts the leader’s personal interest.
2. **Competence** which relates to the leader’s latent ability and proficiency at task performance.
3. **Conviction** which relates to the leader’s basic persuasion, resolves, and stands on issues. Leaders are not afraid to be quoted on matters that are critical to the life and future of their organizations.
4. **Courage** which refers to the preparedness to face daunting tasks without flinching.
5. **Charisma** which comes with such a winsome personality that he is irresistible to the masses of his followers.
6. **Commitment** – a single-minded and focused allegiance to a cause, without compromise, and,
7. **Compassion**, the vital ingredient that keeps an effective leader from becoming a tyrant.

It is pertinent at this juncture to examine four essential types of leadership, to help us appreciate this discourse more. They are dictatorial, autocratic, laissez-faire and democratic.

1. **Dictatorial leader**: Is always domineering, and fond of giving orders. He gets work done through force. The subordinates of such leader do what they are told in order not to loose the means (e.g. job security, promotion, wage increase etc) of satisfying their wants and needs.
2. **Autocratic Leader**: motivates his subordinates by providing for their need satisfaction if they do what they are told. He gives orders without consulting others and expects to be obeyed at all times.
3. **Laissez – faire (Laissez-faire)**: (This is a French word, meaning policy of freedom from government control): A laissez faire leader avoids contact with the group and permits subordinates to set their own goals and work their own decisions. He allows his subordinates absolute freedom to do what ever they choose.
Democratic Leadership: Is characterized by the degree to which leaders consult with his subordinates on problems, tasks and goals that face them and the group as a whole. This type of leadership encourages the subordinates to function as a unit and make full use of the talents and abilities of the members of the group. The result is that the followers achieve a greater sense of belonging and recognition, which motivates them to greater efficiency. Democratic leadership is intertwined with management by objective (MBO). A successful leader must be sensitive, adaptive and flexible to get work done through people. You can display various traits characteristics and follow various types of leadership in an attempt to motivate human behavior depending on the situation.

In the study carried out by a group of scholars from Ohio State University under the leadership of Carrol Shattle cited in Oisioma and Osisioma (2002:105-109) two basic dimensions of leader-behavior. Initiating structure and consideration. Initiating structure refers to behaviour that organizes and defines subordinates activities and relationships, and establishes clear pattern of work organization, channels of communication, and ways of getting work done. Consideration on the other hand, refers to behaviour which indicates friendship, mutual trust, respect, and interpersonal warmth between supervisor and subordinate. While the initiating structure type of leaders is task and project oriented, the consideration type is human relations oriented. Out of these variables, four basic leadership styles have emerged:

- High initiating structure and high consideration
- High initiating structure and low consideration
- Low initiating structure and low consideration and
- Low initiating structure and high consideration

William Reddin built on Carroll Shuttle’s two factor leader-behavior models, by adding a third dimension: Effectiveness. The emerging three-dimensional model postulates that any of the four basic leadership styles identified by the Ohio School could be effective, depending on the situation. From this postulation therefore, four basic styles of leaders have emerged:

- Integrated leader with high task orientation and high consideration. This type of leader uses committees extensively, is future-oriented, emphasizes team work, and strongly identifies with his workers. If effective, he is an executive, if ineffective, he is a compromiser.
- Related Leader with a low task orientation and high consideration. He is the happy-go- lucky kind of leader, who would rather sweep conflicts under the carpet, than upset the apple cart. If effective, he is a developer; if ineffective he is a missionary.
- Separated Leader – with a low task and low consideration. He is a stickler for rules, a leader who writes more than he speaks, and a slave to rules. When effective he is a bureaucrat, when ineffective, he is a deserter.
- Dedicated Leader – a domineering type, the “produce or perish” brand of leader who initiates, directs, and evaluates performance of subordinates. He has a high task orientation and low consideration. He judges subordinates on their productivity and superiors on their skill in the use of power. When he is...
effective, he is a benevolent autocrat, when ineffective; he is an exploitative autocrat. (Osisioma and Osisioma, 2002)

Theories of Leadership

An education administrator usually expected his followers to follow proper official order; leaders may be able to move people to do things far beyond the call of duty. For instance leaders issue executive directives to workers which are obeyed without questioning. We know that leadership is important (Okanya, 1996: 111-112), but are leaders born or made? What makes an effective leader? Does effective leader have some particular style or trait? Are some people always able to be effective leaders, or can any one be an effective leader under the right circumstances?

These are some of the questions that scholars have grappled with for years. Beyond the above, efforts to establish a distinction between leaders and managers, we shall briefly consider the three main leadership approaches.

(1) **Trait theory** (2) **Style theory** (3) **Contingency theory**

**Trait theory:**

Early studies of the life of great men suggested that they had superior qualities that differentiated them from their followers. For instance, capacity, achievement, responsibility, participation and status. This observation leads to trait theory of leadership which explained leadership in terms of personality and character trait. However, the theories produced little evidence, that leaders had traits that differ from their followers and that is important to their success.

Then, the inability to find consistent traits associated with effective leadership lead to the view that leadership is situational, that leadership effectiveness depends on the situation more than the personal characteristics of the leaders. In the situational point of view, effective leadership does not arise from the leader’s trait but is the result of a dynamic relationship between the leader and followers in specific situations.

**Style Theory:**

The assumption behind the style theory is that certain behavioral styles of leadership are more effective than others. Generally, the styles that are considered effective are some various versions of what are called the authoritative and democratic styles. Leaders may be classified as democratic, or somewhere in between. Early studies (especially in 1930s) of democratic and autocratic leadership styles tended to focus on the following questions “is not democratic group life more pleasant but authoritarian more efficient.

However, much like the trait theory of leadership this view over looked the situational nature of leadership. The situational view of leadership leads many to doubt the conclusion that any particular style is always superior. Rather, leadership effectiveness depends on a number of factors of which style is only one.

**Contingency Theory**

The contingency approach to understanding of what makes an effective leader recognizes that leadership effectiveness depends on many variables. Robert Tennenbaum and Varren Schmiet in Abah (1997) have provided a contingency view of the autocratic/democratic leaderships continuum and outlined the factors that are most important in selecting a leadership style.
An administrator may select a leadership style among many arranged in a continuum (at one extreme, the administrator makes a decision, tells the subordinates and expects them to obey (authoritarian). At the other extreme, the administrator permits the group to take decisions within the prescribed limits). Some make use of the management by objective (MBO) principles.

For the purpose of this discourse, we shall use these theories as our framework. There is no one way a leader can succeed in his odious task of leading the workers, without getting them involved in decision-making. Oftentimes, situations and events make leaders popular. The contingency approach appears to have gained prominence and heavily applied by most modern leaders. Fieldler (1967) a protagonist of this model contends that the situation facing a leader is determined by three variables.

**Motivation a critical factor in PPP**

The term motivation is derived from the Latin word ‘movere’, which means ‘to move’. Motivation is extremely important for an understanding of individual and organizational behaviour and efficiency. It is without doubt one of the most pervasive concerns of human endeavor. Motivation is a common concept covering the entire factors that initiate, direct and organizes the behaviour of the individual and determine intensity and persistence of the behaviour. Those concerned with productivity believe that motivation is inextricably related to organizational performance; we are convinced that highly motivated individuals working smarter are more productive in quantity and quality. In the words of Nwize (1997), “productivity is achieved through excellence and excellence is achieved by having an organization that has highly motivated individuals”.

According to Khan an Katz (cited in Abah, 1997), people must be attracted not only to join the organization but also to remain in it. People must perform the tasks for which they are hired and must do so in dependable manner and people must go beyond this dependable role performance and engage in some form of creative spontaneous and innovation behaviour at work. In other words, for an organization to be efficient and effective, it must come to grips with the motivational problems of stimulating both the decision to participate and the decision to produce at work.

**Motivation Defined**

Many scholars and management experts have defined the concept motivation variously. However, almost all the definitions are saying the same thing. It is a matter of semantics.

Abah (1997) defines motivation as the immediate (temporary) influence on the direction, vigour and persistence of action. It is in terms of how behaviour gets stunted, energized, sustained, directed, stopped and what kind of subjective reaction is present in the organism while this is going on. It is the innate urge to do a thing because that thing has meaning to the person doing it.

Nwizu (1997) says that ‘motivation is concerned with the whys of human behaviour’. It attempts to account for the drives and wants of an individual rather than just focusing on the individual actions.

Jackson (2009) defines motivation as general term applying to the active class of drives, decision, needs, wishes, and similar forces. Likewise to say that managers
motivate their subordinates is to say that they do those things which they hope will satisfy those drives and desires and induce the subordinate to act in a desired manner.

We can simply say that motivation is the immediate influence on the employees to direct their action. Our definition shows that motivation influences individual’s behaviour most directly by a great variety of external factors and characteristics of the immediate and broader environment at work place and in the community. In which ever way we look or perceive the concept ‘motivation’ we should not ignore the fact that effective performance on the part of the employees is essential for the success of any organization, is it the public or private organization. Such performance will to a great extent depend on the knowledge and skills of the employees. Ubeku (1975) argues that while the knowledge and skills possessed by the employee are important in determining his job performance, those factors alone are not sufficient. An understanding of what motivates the individual is needed to reveal how abilities and skills are activated and their potential realized. Lewis (2006) argues that all the activities of any organization are initiated and determined by the person who makes up that institution – plants, offices, computers, automatic equipment and all those things that make a firm modern are unproductive except for human effort and direction. For instance, we often say that “computerization of the world systems dehumanizes man” . It is not true, hence the computer still require human direction. This statement goes a long way in defining the importance of human resources element in any system and if the human resource is the facilitating factor, the central task of any system would be to co-ordinate and effectively articulate this factor.

Kontz et. al. (cited in Chukwuemeka , 1998) contends that “it takes only a moment thought to realize that at any given time an individual’s motive may be quite complex and often conflicting. Therefore a person may be motivated by desires for economic goods and services (groceries, better house, new car or a trip), and even these desires may be complex and conflicting should one buy a new car or house. Motivation is so complex and individualized that there can be no single best answer.

**Theories of Motivation:**

Since motivation is a very complex and fluid concept, influenced by a great many broader social, organizational and individual factors only some of the important theories of motivation are discussed here. Several theories of motivation have evolved during recent years, all of which tend to complement one another even though advocates of each hold strongly to different tenets of behaviour. Let’s examine these theories in turn:

1. **Hierarchy of need theory:** This theory was propounded by Professor Abraham Maslow, an Industrial Psychologist. He argues that there is a hierarchy of needs which men would strive to satisfy. The operation of these needs would be sequential and fall into two basic categories: lower order needs, which when satisfied would cease to motivate and higher order needs, which on being satisfied would generate a further desire for greater experience in those areas.

   (i) Higher order needs do not apply until lower order needs are satisfied.

   (ii) Lower order needs decrease in strength as they become satisfied and cease to cause motivation.
(iii) Higher order needs are fundamentally different and satisfaction leads to a further demand for even wider goals.

The basis for the theory is that the five levels of needs are sequential and that as a need is satisfied, a new and higher needs take its place. It is recognized that there are exception to this and higher needs may sometimes emerge, not as the result of satisfaction of the lower needs, but as the result of imposed or voluntary suppression of those needs. Examples of this are provided as the result of such things as persecution, rejection and sublimation but Maslow points out that this does not contradict his thesis as it is not claimed that gratification of need is the exclusive determinant of behaviour (Hall and Neugaim, 1986).

Higher order needs: -
Self actualization – self fulfillment
Esteem – self respect, achievement, prestige

Lower order needs:
Belonging – attention, social activity
Safety: - security, shelter
Physiological – food, water, air, sex etc.

(2) Fredrick Hertzberg’s two factor theory:
Frederick Hertzberg has developed Maslow’s theme into what he calls ‘two factor theory’. His research purports to find a two –factor explanation to motivation. In one group of needs are such things as company policy and administration, supervision, working condition, inter-personal relation, salary, status, job, security and personal life. These were found by Hertzberg and his contemporaries to be only dissatisfiers and not motivators. In order words, if they exist in a work environment in high quantity and quality, they do not motivate in the sense of yielding satisfaction, their lack of existence would, however, result in dissatisfaction.

In the second group, Hertzberg listed certain ‘satisfiers’ –and therefore motivators – all related to job content. These include the factors of achievement, recognition, challenging work, advancement, and growth in the job. Their existence will yield feelings of satisfaction or no satisfaction (not dissatisfaction).

Hertzberg contends that motivation occurs when the individual carries out a task because he wants to rather than because he is put under some form of pressure to perform it. When an administrator applies this form of motivation, he is one motivated and wants a specific form of behaviour to occur, the subordinate is the one who is moved (Bobbit and Behling, 1972).

Factor 1:
Factors that are hygiene (Do not motivate) -
Company policies, Administration, Pay, Relationship with other workers, Conditions of work

Factor 2:
Factors that motivate:
Recognitions, Achievement, Responsibility, Advancement, Work itself

(3) Douglas McGregor’s theory X and Theory Y:
Douglas McGregor in his book, the Human Side of Enterprise (1960) propounds two theories related to work behaviour. The first of those theories (theory X) assumes that man is naturally lazy, unco-operative, avoids responsibility and will only work effectively if bribed by the promise of reward or threatened with some form of punishment. He points out that most traditional management behaviour has been based on assumption of this type which has made it logical to adopt the carrot-and-stick style of leadership.

Theory Y rejects those assumptions and states that provided the environment is right, work is as natural as play and that once the lower needs are satisfied man will want to perform effectively, to seek responsibility and achievement in the job for its own sake. The theory ‘Y’ has a lot in common with Maslow’s lower order needs and Hertzberg’s hygiene factor theories.

(4) Victor Vroom Valence Expectancy Theory:

Vroom offered an expectancy approach to the understanding of motivation. He suggests that a person’s motivation toward an action of any type would be determined by his or her anticipated values of all the outcomes (both negative or positive) of the action multiplied by the strength of that person’s expectancy that the outcome would yield the desired goal. In order words, he argues that motivation is a product of the anticipated worth to a person of an action and the perceived probability that that person’s goals would be achieved.

Leadership, Human Relations in PPP the Nexus - Empirical Case 1
Ben Bosah is a Factory Manager of a leading PPP - Manufacturing Industry in Emene Enugu. He often argues with his people, berates them and courses when they make mistakes. Output is high resulting to high turnover, but Bosah could always hire additional people because the pay is good and unemployment situation in Nigeria today is high. The workers despise Bosah but they work very hard because they do not want him on their backs all day. They are actually afraid of Bosah, who has been known to fight with or hit members of the crew from time to time. The crew for fear seldom talks back and they stay out of Bosah’s way as much as possible. Bosah can never leave even for a few minutes because he is of the belief that the crew will loaf around – wile away their time or for fear they will ruin a job.

Bosah is known and referred by the company customers as a very responsible manager, who gets his job done well and on time and in the way he promised he would do it. They know that once Bosah agrees to do a job it will be done, no matter the situation, come hell or high waters.

Sampled respondents’ (workers’) opinion based on questions asked to elicit information

(1) How do you feel about Bosah’s leadership and motivational approaches?
(2) Would you like to work for Bosah, why?
(3) Would you like Bosah to work for you, assuming you have your own firm?
(4) In your opinion, is Bosah a good leader?

**Analysis of the workers’ opinion**

Bosah in their opinion relies very heavily upon an autocratic, domineering approach to leadership and motivation. It is evident that he has little concern for the human relationships of his employees, evidently his only concern is only with the task at hand. Many were of the opinion that Bosah is a type of leader known as a high task – low person oriented leader. It is therefore, not likely that many would like to work for or with Bosah because there would be little opportunity to satisfy such a high level needs of acceptance, respect, growth, recognition and self-fulfillment that make for good motivation. Many expressed the opinion that they could not leave the firm because of unemployment. They would not also like Bosah to work for them or with him. There is no doubt that in the short run Bosah might get a certain minimum level of performance from his people, but there will be high coils involved in such aspects as turnover rate, absenteeism and poor quality work. In fact most of the real good people will leave the factory at the first opportunity. Many of them decried that Bosah is a bad leader, he does not provide the satisfaction (motivation), needed for his subordinates. He is more interested in getting the work done.

**Synthesis of the Discourse**

From the discussions and analysis so far made, it is simple to note that the failure or success of PPP is dependent on effective leadership. Effective leadership is a leadership that is dynamic. A dynamic leader is a good human relations manager. A public–private partnership outfit, may have a sound motivational strategies aimed at enhancing workers productivity, but extraneous factors, peculiar to individual employees, coupled with the general harsh economic conditions in Nigeria and other new states may hinder the workability. Workers preference prevents such motivators as enunciated by Maslow and his contemporaries from working.

In this context, Patton cited in Chukwuemeka et. al. (1998), is right to have said that money can never be over looked as motivator, whether in the form of wages, piece work or any other way of incentives. Money according to him is important, hence money is often more than money, in that it can be reflection of other motivators. In recognition of this the Public-Private Partnership should adopt as one of its motivational strategies, the payment of high salary and prompt payment too to motivate its employees.

However, our friend Hertzberg, in his two factor model – ‘motivator/hygiene factor’ classified salary as a hygiene factor which does not build strong motivation but merely helps to avoid dissatisfaction. It should be remembered that Hertzberg conducted his research in a developed nation (America) among elite accountants and engineers who were believed to be at the top of the Maslow’s need hierarchy. On the contrary, Africa is a developing Continent, and the nature of the labour primary objective of wage regulation, suggests that an employee in Nigeria has fantasy for salary and wages.

It is very interesting to also note that money even motivates those who are still rearing and training their children more than those who have finished training their children and to an extent have accomplished the major ambitions of their life.
This work therefore rejects the assumptions of Maslow and Hertzberg, rather buys the views of Victor Vroom and Douglas McGregor theory Y and X as motivators in developing economies in Africa. Among other factors that motivate workers of PPP based on research include: career prospect, job redesign, job enrichment, enhanced pay, manpower development /training, carrot-and-stick approach to leadership, promotion and advancement. (Odo, 2010:).

**Concluding Remarks**

From the discussions, it has become clear that the PPP could achieve high result if it considers the human factor. Human beings are not machines and therefore management of the human side of the enterprise is different from the management of material and financial resources. A line should be drawn henceforth, let Bosah’s experience serve as a guide. Leaders should take into cognizance that leadership with human face will make all the difference in the management of PPP. In as much as leaders do not adopt one leadership type, leaders should adopt the contingency approach, which implies that a given situation should determine the leadership style to be adopted. The primary objective is how to get the employees to work towards optimal output and goal attainment.

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