Benefits and Barriers of Work-Life Balance and Employees’ Motivation for Effective Realization of Organizational Goals in Nigerian Organizations

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Abstract

At the early stage in this twenty-first century, there is increasing evidence that, for some, the value of work is changing. While the 1980s were characterized by the idea that “lunch is for wimps”, there has been a shift, perhaps encouraged by increasing intensification and pressure, towards valuing a lower and gentle pace, which allows more room for personal interests, environment and family. In the 1990s the notion of downshifting appeared, which has been described as swapping a life of total commitment to work and possible high rewards, for less demanding, or part-time work or self-employment, or a combination of the three. This notion has been considerably expanded to form a wider range of legitimate work options under the banner of “Work-Life Balance or Work-Life Integration” which is being supported by government initiatives and as a key issue, rather than a key practice in Nigerian organizations. This work assessed the benefits and barriers of work-life balance and
employees’ motivation as panacea for effective realization of organizational goals in Nigeria. The paper adopted literature review to obtain relevant information. Analysis of information gathered revealed that there is increasing legislation encouraging employers to support work-life balance, but the emphasis is on family-friendly measures, and not on work-life balance for all. The paper recommended that bundles of work-life balance policies should be related to higher organizational performance.

Key Words: Benefits, Work, Life, Balance, Employees’, Motivation, Organization, Goals, Barriers, Performance.

Introduction
Much of the pressure for work-life balance policies originated from the changing demographic make-up of our potential workforce, changing social roles, the changing responsibilities of organizations and legislative pressure. Increasing numbers of women in the workforce wishing to combine family and work responsibilities is an obvious driver for what were initially called “family-friendly” policies (Kodz, Harper and Dench, 2002) and which quickly became work-life balance policies. This legacy does cause some problems for the implementation of work-life balance. The aging workforce is another demographic change which has raised the importance of work-life balance for employers. Older employees may wish to remain in work, but work fewer hours or different shift patterns. A study by the Royal College of Nursing (RCN) identified the large number of nurses, working very difficult shift patterns, over the age of 50 who were going to retire. Many of these nurses would have been prepared to stay on in work if they had access to shift patterns which allowed them a better work-life balance, or if they could work part-time at the same job level. Such is the level of concern that the government has sponsored a drive to improve work-life balance (Mahoney, 2002). In addition, the fact that people are living longer means that many employees or potential
employees have caring responsibilities, not only for children but also for elderly parents.

In a tight labour market with a shortage of needed skills employers are forced into developing policies which can attract and retain groups of workers who might previously have left the organization. IRS (2002) found that the most popular reasons for employers to introduce work-life balance policies were recruitment and retention. The importance of this issue is underlined by the fact that the government is encouraging work-life balance. A further influence is the need for employers to respond to what is now termed a 24/27 society. Noon and Blyton (1997) argued that individual working hours are being decoupled from operating hours, and that more flexibility is needed to cover round-the-clock peaks and troughs. They are that, this now applies to a much wider range of business areas than hotels, hospitals, and continuous processes operations. Financial services and retail operations are now subject to similar pressures. There is much evidence of work intensification over the past decades and this faster pace has been associated with much greater levels of stress in organizations. Holbeche and McCartney (2003) found that employees were experiencing anxiety, work overload, loss of control, pressure, long hours and insufficient personal time. Such experiences are likely to encourage a reassessment of values in workers, and there is also evidence that younger people entering the labour market are much less willing to sacrifice their personal lives for total commitment to work. Values and expectations appear to be changing. Associated with such changes organizations have been facing, and sometimes losing, lawsuits in respect of stress resulting from work. From a legal perspective employers have a duty of care, so in terms of self-protection work-life balance measures have an attraction. On a more positive note there is some evidence that employers are more concerned about promoting a healthy environment and are more aware of their social responsibilities as an employer.
Benefits of Work-Life Balance in Organizations

Work-life practices have been shown in some instances to reduce absence, especially unplanned absence, raise morale and increase levels of job satisfaction. Increased levels of performance have also been discovered as employees are less tired and so work more effectively when they are working. Kodz, Harper and Dench (2002) in their study found that productivity and quality of work had both improved, as had staff retention and the ability to recruit staff. Perry-Smith and Blum (2000) discovered that bundles of work-life balance policies were related to higher organizational performance in a US survey of 527 firms. In the early 1970s the United Kingdom experienced some intensive industrial action which caused the government to introduce a three-day week throughout the economy, accompanied by regular power cuts to conserve energy. For that short period industrial production dipped by less than the 40 percent, that working hours were reduced. Thus, control and choice are important characteristics of working life, and Kodz, Harper and Dench (2002) found that, “there is increasing acceptance that choice, control and flexibility are important in work, that personal fulfillment is important outside work, and, further, that satisfaction outside work may enhance employees’ contribution to work”.

Sabbaticals in particular can give individuals space and time to develop in other ways. Davidson (2002) reported on Elan, IT company, that funds sabbaticals for employees to develop in new ways if there is a possibility this can transfer back into the workplace. They have supported such interests as horse whispering, surging, performance music and neuro-linguistic programming, and argued that sabbaticals give people the security of knowing they have a job to return to, and they bring fresh ideas back into the workplace. In a baseline study covering employers and employees, conducted by the Institute for Employment Research at the University of Warwick and IFF Research Limited, discovered that 91 percent of employers and 96 percent of employees felt that people work
better when they can balance their work with other aspects of their lives. Employers can also find that such policies can meet business needs for flexibility and can be a way of addressing diversity issues (Hogarth, Hasluck, Pierre, Winterbotham, and Vivian, 2001). Some employers have argued that staff on shorter working hours are still producing the same amount of work that they did on full-time hours; however, this was found to be, at least in part, due to the fact they were working longer than part-time paid hours.

**Legislative Context: Family-Friendly Law**

In recent years a significant contribution to the development of workplace which offer a better work-life balance has been made by the government and other institutions in Nigeria (Okere, 2013). This has involved the introduction of new regulations which require employers to take account of the needs of people with family responsibilities as well as substantial improvements to existing statutory rights. Campaigners pressing for greater family friendly working practices would like to see much further extension of this kind of legal right, and this may well happen over time. For now, though the government has chosen to take an incremental rather than a radical approach to policy development in this area, taking care to balance the interests of employees and employers. The major ways in which the law plays a part in promoting family-friendly working practices are set out as follows.

**Ante-Natal Care**

A well established statute gives pregnant employees the right to take reasonable time off work to attend medical appointment connected with a pregnancy without losing any pay. The right is expressed as follows: “not to be unreasonably refused time off for the purpose of attending ante-natal care appointments”. This means that permission must be sought and gained before the leave is taken. There is no general right simply to leave employer’s premises and then later state that this was for the purposes of
attending ante-natal care appointments. If an employer unreasonably refuses a request, a claim can be taken to an employment tribunal. In many cases the employer’s action will constitute sex discrimination and will lead to compensation being awarded. More common are situations in which the time off is agreed to, but not on a paid basis, or in which employers insist that any “lost” time is made up at a later date. In such cases that tribunals make an award equal to any salary that has been lost. A common situation in which an employer can reasonably refuse a request is where the woman concerned works on a part-time basis and could arrange her appointment at a time when she is not working.

Maternity Leave
The right for a mother to take time off before, during and after her baby is born has applied for many years. The scheme specifies three different types of maternity leave.

1. **Ordinary Maternity Leave (OML):** This applies only to employees but there is no qualifying period of service. It can last for up to 26 weeks, i.e. six months, and can start at any time within 11 weeks of the date that the baby is expected to be born. In this situation, no information needs to be supplied to the employer in writing, nor are any statements of intentions about taking further leave or returning to work required. The woman must, however, inform her employer of the weeks in which she expects to have her baby and give three week notice of her intention to take the leave. OML normally begins on the intended date, i.e. on the date the employee informed the employer that it would start, but it starts automatically at an earlier time if the baby arrives early or if the woman is absent for a pregnant – related reason in the four weeks prior to the expected date of birth. During OML the contract of employment continues in all respects except for pay. The woman is entitled to retain any contractual benefits such as company cars, portable computers and mobile phones, and her holidays continue to accrue. Any health insurance provided by the employer is retained and all
the general duties owned by employers to employees and vice versa continue. Moreover, there is a general right for the woman to return to the same job on the same terms and conditions following OML. All pay rises and other improvements to terms and conditions must be honoured so that after her return to work the contractual situation is as if the maternity leave had not occurred. The only exception is where the job becomes redundant during OML, in which case the right is to return to a suitable alternative job with similar terms and conditions. It is important to remember that the right is to return to the same job and not necessarily to the same work. It may be that changes have been made in her absence that mean the detailed work the woman does on her return may be somewhat different.

2. **Compulsory Maternity Leave (CML):** Compulsory maternity leave is straightforward. It is simply the two weeks after the births, during which there is now a compulsory period of maternity leave. The onus is on the employer to make sure that no work is done during this period. Except in the case of very premature births, CML and OML overlap, so CML only applies where a woman decides she does not wish to exercise her right to OML.

3. **Additional Maternity Leave:** Additional maternity leave can only be taken by employees who have completed 26 weeks’ service with their employer at the fifteenth week prior to the date at which the baby is expected. It runs for a further 26 weeks following on from the end of OML, giving women in this position the right to take a full year of leave following a birth. However, the contractual position during OML and AML is wholly different. Unless the contract of employment states otherwise, terms and conditions of employment do not remain in place during AML. The only exceptions are notice provisions, on either side, redundancy compensation, the right to disciplinary and grievance procedures and basic duty of trust and confidence. Annual leave continues to accrue but only to the four weeks required by the Working Time Regulations. The right to return after
AML is, to the same job if reasonably practicable. Otherwise it is to a suitable job on no less favourable terms and conditions.

Whether a woman just takes OML or exercise her right to take AML, she is entitled to return to work before the full period of leave elapses, but to exercise this right she must give 21 days, notice to her employer. There is no longer any requirement to inform the employer in writing of a return to work after 26 weeks, or 52 works in the case of AML. The assumption must be that the woman will return at this time.

**Maternity Pay**

Public sector employers as well as many larger companies continue to pay their employees during maternity leave but this is not a legal requirement. Regulations specify only that Statutory Maternity Pay (SMP) is paid through the payroll to all those who are entitled to receive it. Statutory Maternity Pay (SMP) is payable for 26 weeks, i.e. during OML for employees who have completed 26 weeks’ service with their employers at the fifteenth week prior to the week that the baby is due, and who earn more than the lower earnings limit for national insurance purposes. SMP is paid at the higher rate for the first six weeks, and thereafter at the lower rate (Bibby, 2002)

**Parental, Paternity and Adoption Leave**

Nigerian Law gives both parents of a child the right to take up to 13 weeks’ unpaid leave during the five years of the child’s life or during the five years following the adoption of a child. If the child is disabled, 18 weeks may be taken during the first 18 years of the child’s life. This right currently only extends to employees who have completed a year’s continuous service with their employer. It is only available to parents who have caring responsibilities for the child and the leave must be for the purpose of caring for that child. As with the Working Time Regulations, employers may if they wish enter into a formal “Workplace Agreement” with their
employees setting out how the principles of the law are to be applied locally. In the absence of such an agreement, a statutory default scheme applies which sets out how parental leave schemes should operate in practice. Included are clauses which restrict parents to a maximum of four weeks parental leave per calendar year which give a right to return equivalent to that for additional maternity leave (AML).

According to McCartney (2003), in addition to the right to take unpaid parental leave, since April 2003, United Kingdom Law has given fathers of new babies the right to take two weeks’ paid paternity leave within the first 56 days of the birth. However, Nolan and Wood (2003) reported that, this only applies to employees who have been employed for six months, 14 weeks before the expected date of the birth. As with parental leave, only fathers who expect to have responsibility for the child’s upbringing are eligible. Nolan and Wood (2003) also pointed out that, paternity leave is paid at the same rate as the lower rate of statutory maternity pay (SMP), while return-to-work arrangements and contractual entitlements are the same as those for Ordinary Maternity Leave (OML). Here though multiple births do not give multiple rights. When parents adopt a child, according to McCartney (2003) only one is entitled to take full adoption leave on the same basis as the maternity leave scheme, with pay during the first six months. The other is then entitled to take unpaid parental leave and two weeks’ paid adoption leave. The payment arrangements rules about entitlement, notification procedures and contractual entitlements are for maternity and paternity leave respectively.

**Time Off for Dependents**
Dependants are defined as spouses, children, parents or people who leave in the same household as the worker, but they only become dependants’ once they rely on the worker for assistance when ill, either directly or through arrangements made with a third party. Tenants, lodgers and employees are specifically excluded (Janman, 2002). Therefore, law gives
workers a right to take reasonable amount of time off during working hours for urgent family reasons, employers being informed of the intention to take the leave as soon as is reasonably practicable. The law specifies the following situations in which such leave can be taken:

1. to provide assistance when a dependant falls ill, gives birth or is injured;
2. to make arrangements for the provision of care for a dependant who is ill or injured;
3. on the death of a dependant;
4. due to unexpected disruption or termination of the arrangements for the care of a dependant;
5. to deal with an incident involving a child during the time when an educational establishment has care of that child.

**Right to Request Flexible Working**
Potentially, the most significant new family-friendly measure is the right to request flexible working. It goes some way to meeting the demands of campaigners that parents with child-rearing responsibilities should be able to work part time as a right, but it falls short of this position by some margin (Rana, 2002a). The right is for parents of young children to request any form of flexible working, but it is likely to be used principally by women returning from maternity leave who would like to cut or alter their hours. The regulations set out a procedure which requires the parent to write formally to their employer asking for a one-half change in terms and conditions, together with an explanation as to how the request could be accommodated to practice (Rana, 2002b). The employer can turn the request down, but only if one of the following eight reasons applies:

1. burden of additional costs;
2. detrimental effect on ability to meet customer demand;
3. inability to recruit additional staff;
4. detrimental impact on quality;
5. detrimental impact on performance;
6. insufficient of work during the periods the employee proposes to work;
7. inability to recognize work among existing staff;
8. planned structural changes.

When a request is turned down, the employee has a right to make a formal appeal, but if this is unsuccessful must wait for a further year before being allowed to make another request to work flexibility.

**Work-Life Balance Practices in Organizations**
Work–life balance options in organizations focus on three different types of work flexibility. First, there is inflexibility in terms of the number of hours worked; second, the exact timing of those hours; third, the location at which the work is carried out (Lea, 2001). Clearly some options may reflect all three types of flexibility. While the legislation only addresses the need of parents, there is a strong lobby for flexible work options to be potentially available for all employees. There are potentially many possible work-life balance options, and clearly not all of these options are appropriate for all jobs or employees, and employers will need to be convinced of the business benefits of any work-life balance option. In addition work-life balance will mean different things to different people, depending on their age, life circumstances, values, interests, personality and so on. At present flexible options are predominantly taken by women (IRS, 2002).

**Barriers to, and Problems with, Work-Life Balance**
1. **Take-Up Gap**
There is considerable evidence that the demand for flexible work options is much greater than the take-up so far, and this has been referred to as the “take-up gap”. Hogarth (2001) in his study reported that 47 percent of employees not currently using flexitime would like to do so, and 36 percent
would like a compressed week. Some work-life balance strategies cost the organization money and financial limits are set for such practices to be viable. Bibby (2002) demonstrated that AA experienced difficulties in setting up teleworking at home. Productivity was greater than that of site-based staff, but in order to offset the cost of technology and infrastructure such workers had to be more than 1.5 times as productive as site – staff. To gain such productivity right, management and measurement of home-based teleworkers is necessary (Bibby, 2002).

Policies and some line managers may limit access to work-life balance to certain groups. There is evidence that some employers fail to have a strategic approach to work-life balance, but use such practices in a fighter-fighting manner to deal with situations when they reach break point (Glynn, Steinberg, and McCartney, 2002).

There is evidence in the literature that work-life balance requests for childcare reasons would be dealt with more favourably than requests or any other basis. An association observed that work-life balance practices with women bringing up children creates two problems. The first is that work-life balance is “ghettoized” (Rana, 2002b), as something done for women with children who are not interested in real careers. The second, is that this causes alienation from the rest of the workforce who are not allowed these special privileges. In particular, working part – time has been a popular option in combining work and other commitments, and yet there is considerable evidence that this limits career development (MacDermid, Lee, Buck, and Williams, 2001).

The “take-up” of work-life balance options is often equated with lack of commitment to one’s career or to the organization. In the baseline study Hogarth, Harsluck, Pierre, Winterbortham, and Vivian (2001) found that two-thirds of male employees felt that their career prospects would be damaged if they worked part-time, and CIPD (Rana, 2002b) discovered
strikingly similar results in their survey of work-life balance. In addition, there are many employees who are committed to full-time hours because financial commitments mean that they require full-time pay. This severely limits the type of flexibility that they feel is appropriate for themselves. Heavy workloads may prevent requests for flexible working, and where departments are inadequately staffed, flexible options are severely curtailed. High level of work, combined with pressure from the organizational culture may also have unexpected consequences for those employees opting to reduce their hours to part-time from full-time. Furthermore, in many organizations individuals have to be proactive and come up with flexible solutions which meet business needs and this is difficult when there are few precedents and a lack of understanding of what is available or possible. In addition, the majority of organizations in an IRS (2002) survey had no procedure for employees to use, to request flexible working. The CIPD (Rana, 2002b) reported that 74 percent of respondents believed that working hours is not an indication of commitment, 84 percent felt that individuals working part-time were not less committed and 77 percent believed that organizations should allow employees to attend to personal commitments in working time, and then make the time up. However, while these figures demonstrates that there have been some shifts in attitudes, culture remains a major barrier to take-up. Long hours culture with early and late meetings are hard to shift. It is argued that more middle and senior managers’ role models are needed of flexible working and that, there need to be work-life balance champions.

2. **Managers’ Role in Implementing Work-Life Balance in Nigerian Organizations**

Whether or not there is a work-life balance policy in existence, it is often line managers who will be the “main arbiters” of whether work-balance policies become a reality, both by their attitudes and management practices (Glynn, Steinberg, and McCartney, 2002). The Work Foundation (CIPD, 2003) Found that managers were the main barrier to introducing and
implementing work-life balance policies. Managers have to manage performance targets of the team and often feel that flexible working damages this, and flexible working for some may mean higher work-loads for others. There is a pressure on line managers to be fair and their decisions about who can work flexibly and in what way are under scrutiny and may result in a black-lash. On top of this, managers may receive a bonus for meeting team performance targets, which may be jeopardized by flexible working. MacDermid, Lee, Buck, and Williams (2001) discovered that managers had three concerns relating to employees working reduced hours. The first concerned helping employees develop professionally while not working full-time; the second, what to do if more employees wanted to work reduced hours as it could be a nightmare to manage a host of different alternative work arrangements, and third, that some jobs were just not doable on anything less than a full-time basis. Managing workers who are not visible i.e. working at home for example, is a particular concern for line managers. Felstead, Jewson, and Walter (2003) reported the fear that working at home is a “slacker’s charter”, but they also found that home workers themselves had fears about not being able easily to demonstrate their honesty, reliability and productivity. Some managed this by working more hours than they should in order to demonstrate greater output. To counter this fear, managers in Nigerian organizations will have to introduce new surveillance devices, set output targets and bring management into the home via home visits. Managers in Felstead, Jewson and Walter (2003) study, also felt that home working represented a potential threat to the integration of terms and the acceptance of corporate culture, and that it impeded the transmission of tacit knowledge. There is also a concern that only some employees have the characteristics to be successful home workers, and Felstead, Jewson and Walter (2003) development this idea in some detail.

It is becoming apparent that a range of key management skills is needed in managing flexibility. For instance, Janman (2002) suggested that key skills
are communication, empowerment, performance management and coaching. Glynn, Steinberg, and McCartney (2003), are more specific in their recommendations. They suggested that line managers need to be able to “push back” work demands from other parts of the organization which they feel are unrealistic; plan and schedule; delegate in a fair and equitable way and understand the capacity and skills of those who report directly to them. They also suggested that it is important for managers to be able to crack down hard on individual breaches of trust without cracking down across the board.

The Work Foundation (CIPD, 2003) suggested that implementing work-life balance requires managers to shift the way that they measure staff, requiring more effort, in judging performance and output rather than time spent doing the job. Managers clearly have to learn how to manage at a distance. But all this needs to be supported by the organizational culture. According to McCartney (2003), “to thrive, work-life balance needs a supportive organizational culture that has sympathetic values and practices at its core. Arguably, training practitioners have one of the most important and strategic roles in creating and supporting that culture through imaginative and appropriate training programme”. Unfortunately, Kodz, Harper and Dench (2003) in their study, found that line managers felt abandoned and did not get the support that they needed. McCartney (2003) goes on to give the example of Ford Europe which provides seminars related to work-life topics such as stress management, how individuals should manage their own working arrangements, maternity and returning to work and new fathers’ workshops. Also reported is BT, which offers e-learning packages on skills to enable balance, optimizing the performance of flexible teams and judging which roles are suitable for home working.

3. **Limits on Access to Work – Life Balance**

So far we have treated work-life balance as an option potentially available for a majority of employees, but this is not the case in reality. Felstead,
Jewson and Walter (2003) revealed that the option to work at home is usually the privilege of the highly educated and/or people at the top of the organizational hierarchy. People in these jobs, they suggested, have considerably more influence over the work processes they are engaged in. They also reported that although more women work at home than men, there are more men who have the choice to work at home. Nolan and Wood (2003) also noted that work-life balance is not for the lower paid. They reported that 5 percent of such employees hold more than one job, and usually work in low-paid, low status jobs in catering and personal services. A similar scene is painted by Polly Toynbee (2003). She also reported that many of these low-paid workers work for agencies and as such are distanced from the ultimate employer. In these circumstances work-life balance policies are unlikely to be available in any case. Even working only for one employer Toynbee reported a hospital porter saying, “you cannot survive, not with a family, unless you both work all the hours. Felstead, Jewson and Walter (2003) highlighted an assumption in the work-life balance literature, which portrays working at home as always a “good thing”. They argued that what is important is the option to work at home, as some people work at home doing low-paid unsatisfying jobs with no choice of work location, such conditions not necessarily being conducive to work-life balance. White, Hill, McGovern, Mills and Smeaton (2003) argued that organizations are using flexibility to attempt to offset the damage being caused by high-performance work practices, but they argued that they are only enjoyed by a small proportion of the workforce at the moment, and in any case only have a small effect on the problem. They suggested for more fundamental changes in working practices with safeguards to protect work-life balance, such as giving teams themselves the responsibility for addressing work-life balance issues when setting output targets for themselves. Janman (2002) concluded that “successful implementation of flexible working is a culture-change programme, one that has relatively distinct goals in terms of values and beliefs, processes and behaviours. Viewing flexible working as culture changes places the topic firmly on the
strategic agenda”. Few organizations monitor and evaluate the take-up of work-life balance options or measure their costs and benefits (IRS, 2002). However, McCartney (2003) found that in BT the company used an annual survey, web chats, career life planning discussions, and employee network to do this.

**Arguments Concerning Family-Friendly Legislation**

Views are divided about how, and indeed whether further extension of the family-friendly rights outlined above would be justified. Some mooted changes are uncontroversial, such as allowing a couple to choose whether it is the mother or the father who exercises the right to take Additional Maternity Leave (AML), but others are strongly by employers’ associations. These include paying women at the higher rate of Statutory Maternity Pay (SMP) throughout Ordinary Maternity Leave (OML), giving employees returning from maternity leave a legal right to work part time and requiring larger employers to provide access to “crèche facilities”. Many employers argue that such measures would unacceptably add to their costs and make them less competitive internationally. There is also evidence of growing discontent about such measure from employees who do not have families, and a fear that too much regulation of this kind actually serves to hinder rather than help women’s employment prospects by acting as a disincentive to hiring women of prime child-bearing age (Lea, 2001).

However, strong public policy arguments can also be put in favour of family-friendly legislation and these hold sway in current government circles. In short, it is believed that such measures are needed to provide gateways which allow parents, particularly mothers, to combine working with their family responsibilities and hence to put much needed skills and experience at the disposal of the economy. They also serve to encourage single mothers and those with unemployed partners to come off welfare benefits and to take up paid employment instead. Helping fathers to take a greater share of domestic responsibilities contributes to this aim as much as
removing the barriers which discourage mothers from returning to work following a pregnancy. In a tight labour market, where skills shortages are common, a compelling case can thus be made for family – friendly regulation on purely economic grounds (Collins, 2002).

**Employees’ Motivation and Organizational Goals**

All managers in Nigerian organizations need to be able to motivate their employees and that requires understanding what motivation is. Motivation is the result of the interaction between a person and a situation. Certainly, individuals differ in motivational drive, but overall, motivation varies from situation to situation. Therefore, motivation refers to the processes that account for an individual’s willingness to exert high levels of effort to reach organizational goals, conditioned by the effort’s ability to satisfy some individual need. Although, in general, motivation refers to effort exerted toward any goal. We are referring to organizational goals because our focus is on work-related behaviour. Effort that is directed toward, and consistent with, organizational goals is the kind of effort that we should be seeking. Thus, inherent in our definition of motivation is the requirement that individual’s needs be compatible with the organization’s goals. When the two don’t match, individuals may exert high levels of effort that run counter to the interests of the organization. Motivating high levels of employee performance is an important organizational problem, and managers keep looking for a solution.

Thus, motivation is the internal drive to satisfy an unsatisfied need. While motivation is internal to the individual, its strength and direction may be influenced by forces outside the individual. One of the manager’s most important jobs is to influence the motivation of others in the direction of achieving organizational objectives in an effective and efficient manner (Mintzberg, 1981). The manager must utilize his or her knowledge of individual motivation to turn someone’s efforts to satisfy personal needs into organizational performance. That is, motivation can be treated as a
need – satisfying process. Thus, in the real sense, need is an internal state that makes certain outcomes appear attractive. An unsatisfied need creates tension, which an individual reduces by exerting effort. Because we are interested in work behaviour, this tension – reduction effort must be directed toward organizational goals.

A goal is a desired future state the organization attempts to realize (Amite, 1984). Organizational goals are important because organizations exist for a purpose and goals define and state that purpose. Goals are also important because they provide a first stage of refinement for an organizational mission that allows the organization to explain philosophically the areas in which it intends to proceed. Thus, goals are broadly stated, further refinements of organizational mission. They are more specific than mission and address key issues within the organization, such as market standing, innovation, productivity, physical and financial resources, profitability, management performance and development, worker performance and attitude, public responsibility, treatment of employees, growth, efficiency, treatment of customers, returns to owners, and so on (Charles and Dan, 1979). But they are not specific as objectives. They are open-ended statements of purpose to be used when you do not want to be entangled in specifics (Max, 1986). Goals help describe an organization’s philosophy, that is, its purposes and the types of general ends it would like to achieve. Objectives are specific statements of results anticipated.

Conclusions
Demographic factors, the changing composition of the workforce, recruitment and retention problems, work intensification and the 24 – hour society are all drivers for work-life balance initiatives. There is increasing legislation encouraging employers to support work-life balance, but the emphasis is on family-friendly measures and not on work-life balance for all. Work-life balance policies generally provide options around how many hours are worked, exactly when these hours are worked and where they
are worked. When employees are given some control over their work-life balance they are likely to be more satisfied with work, have greater commitment to work, be more productive and stay longer in the organization. However, barriers to work-life balance include understaffing, line manager fears, worries, about career damage and organizational culture. All managers in Nigerian organizations need to be able to motivate their employees and that requires understanding what motivation is. Although, in reality a manager might describe a certain employee as unmotivated, our knowledge of motivation tells us that we cannot label people that way. What we do know is that motivation is the result of the interaction between a person and a situation. Although, in general, motivation refers to effort exerted toward any organizational goal. Organizational goals are important because they provide further definition of the mission; also they define the areas in which the organization will proceed.

**Recommendations**
The paper recommends, based on the literature reviewed and conclusions that:

1. Bundles of work-life balance policies be related to higher organizational performance.
2. In a tight labour market with a shortage of needed skills employers in Nigerian organizations should endeavour to develop policies which can attract and retain groups of workers who might previously have left the organization.
3. There should be new government regulations which will require employers to take into account of the needs of people with family responsibilities as well as substantial improvements to existing statutory rights.
4. The right for a mother to take time off before, during and after her baby is born should be applied in Nigerian organizations.
5. Nigerian organizations should try as much as possible to pay their employees during maternity leave.

6. Employers in Nigerian organizations may if they wish to enter into a formal workplace agreement with their employees by setting out how the principles of the law are to be applied locally.

7. Nigerian law should give fathers of new babies the right to take two weeks’ paid paternity leave within the first 56 days of the birth.

8. Nigerian law should also give workers a right to take reasonable amounts of time off during working hours for urgent family reasons, employers being informed of the intention to take the leave as soon as is reasonably practicable.

9. The most significant new family–friendly measure of the right to request for flexible working should be observed in Nigerian organizations. It will go some way to meeting the demands of campaigners that parents with child-rearing responsibilities should be able to work part time as a right. This requires the parents to write formally to their employer asking for a one-off change in terms and conditions, together with an explanation as to how the request could be accommodated in practice.

10. Work-life balance options should focus on three different types of work flexibility. That is, there should be flexibility in terms of the number of hours worked; the exact timing of those hours; and the location at which the work is carried out.

11. Managers in Nigerian organizations should not be a barrier in introducing and implementing work-life balance policies.

12. Managers in Nigerian organizations should monitor and evaluate the take-up of work-life balance options, and measure their costs and benefits.

13. Employees motivation should be treated as a need satisfying in Nigerian organizations.
14. Organizational goals should provide further definition of the mission; and also define the areas in which the organization will proceed.

References


