CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF THE MOTIVATION THEORIES
Managers in all types of organizations are continually faced with the fact that notable differences exist in the performance of a group of employees. Some employees always perform at high levels, need little or no direction and appear to enjoy what they are doing. On the other hand, other employees perform only at marginal levels, require constant attention and are often absent from their work situation or take work as a burden. Hence motivation plays a vital role in the performance of an individual employee and in the overall performance of the organization as a whole.

Banking industry, being a service industry and labour intensive, requires highly motivated personnel to impart adequate customer service. Hence motivation plays a vital role in the overall performance of a bank. There is an urgent need for a highly motivated team of officers to meet the ever changing customer needs and demands in an effective manner. Over the years, particularly after nationalization of major banks, it has become a problem to motivate the bank officers due to lack of promotional opportunities, overlapping scales of pay, inconsistent transfer policy, early stagnation, compulsory rural service, political interference, etc. Moreover the sudden burst of liberalization and introduction of financial sector reforms have ushered in a new set of challenges and uncertainties for the bank officers. Therefore, in the present circumstances, what best can be done to motivate the bank officers and provide a better work environment is of great significance and relevance. With this aim in mind, a review of various motivation theories has been undertaken in this
chapter. The views of various management scientists are analysed while conducting this study. What improvement can be made in the present circumstances, and wherever improvement is not possible what alternatives are available is also being looked into.

While the reasons for difference in performance of individual employee may be attributed to certain individual characteristics such as personality, intelligence, or ability, we could also focus on organizational influence such as the job, the supervisor's style, the reward system used by the organization or the human resources administration norms and policies used by the bank etc. The core concept associated with each of these properties is "Motivation".

THE STUDY OF MOTIVATION:

The topic of motivation in organization has received increased attention in recent years among practicing managers and organizational researchers. The three major reasons that account for the emergence of motivation as a principal topic of interest are:

1. The ever increasing external forces of national and international competition, economic, social, technological and governmental conditions have forced management to develop and acquire new techniques and mechanisms to increase - or atleast maintain the levels of organizational efficiency and effectiveness.
This requires the effective utilization of all resources of the organization - financial, material and above all the human.  

2. The second closely related to the first is the growing perspective of considering the human resources of the organization for long term development and growth. Organization had long considered their human resources in terms of infinite labour pool in which frequent changes can occur because of the endless supply of qualified individuals. More concern is being placed by managers on developing, stimulating and maintaining an effective workforce at all skill levels through the use of such strategies as job design, management by objectives and skill training.

3. Thirdly the view of people in the work place has undergone a significant change. Early managerial approaches considered the individual worker as only a "small cog in the wheel" who was motivated only by money. Now the workers are motivated to perform by many different factors including, job challenge, achievement, advancement and money. This is more so in banking industry because the officers are highly qualified and adequately paid.

In short, it is apparent why the topic of motivation remains one of the most important while considering organizational behavior and performance. The view that the individual employee is solely motivated by economic means is far too simplistic. What managers today need are approaches to acquire, motivate, and retain valuable human resources.
Concept of Motivation:

The term motivation originates from the Latin word "MOVERE" which means "to move". This concept is far too narrow to describe a very complex process. Given the obvious importance and complexity of motivation, it still remains an illusive concept to define and understand. Motivation theorists have developed slightly different viewpoints of motivation, which place emphasis on different concepts. In general the differing views about motivation lead to a number of different conclusions:

1. The analysis of motivation should concentrate on factors that arouse or invite a person's activities.
2. Motivation is process oriented and concerns choices, direction and goals.
3. Motivation also concerns how behaviour is started sustained or stopped and what kind of subjective reaction is present in the person while this is going on.

These viewpoints will serve as the basis for our discussion of contemporary theories of motivation.

EARLY MOTIVATION THEORIES:

In the olden days, the only known theory of motivation was the "carrot and stick" theory. Motivation can be positive or negative. Positive approach, otherwise
known as carrot approach, offers something valuable to the person. It includes rise in pay, promotion, appreciation etc. On the other hand stick approach which is negative, threatens punishment like reprimands threats of demotion, threats of being fired etc. Mature self disciplined persons do not require much external discipline from others, or the "stick". But it seems that our world is still populated by many persons who must depend on others for their discipline.2

Most theories of motivation both early and current and are based on the principle of hedonism. The underlying principle of hedonism is that individuals behave in a manner to seek pleasure and to minimize displeasure. The concept dates back to the early Greek philosophers and later emerged in the writings of Locke, Mill and Bentham. Although this philosophical approach provided some basis for identifying why individuals act the way they do, it did not provide a framework for understanding why people choose a particular behaviour over another. At the turn of the century, the major theme of motivation theory began moving from a philosophical to a more psychological and a more managerial approach. The theories that evolved attempted to explain the behaviour of individuals through an investigation of variables that focussed both on the individual and the situation in which the individual interacted.3
The early managerial motivational theories (1910-1960) have been identified as prescriptive models because they purport to tell the manager how to motivate employees. Here we shall discuss two approaches, namely, that of Taylor and McGregor.

**Taylor's Scientific Management Approach:**

The approach to managerial motivation developed from the works of F.W. Taylor has been termed as scientific management. Taylor's approach to motivation addressed the study and design of work that would maximise worker efficiency. The framework of Taylor's approach was based on the following premises about the individual in the workplace:

1. The problem of inefficiency is a problem for management, not the worker.
2. Workers have a false impression that if they work too rapidly, they will become unemployed.
3. Workers have a natural tendency to work at less than their capacities;
4. It is management's responsibility to find suitable individuals for a particular job and then train them in most efficient methods for their work.
5. Employee performance should be tied directly to the pay system on an incentive or piece-rate wage system. In other words, Taylor believed that employee efficiency would improve significantly by motivating employees through a piece-rate system.
and by designing the work in such a way that a "single best method" could be utilized. 4

The most fundamental problem with Taylor's approach from a motivational viewpoint concerned his rather simplistic assumptions about the nature of human motivation. Accordingly the individual worker is motivated to work by more than money. More recent approach suggests that workers seek to satisfy a variety of needs in the workplace - the need for security, social fulfillment, and a challenging job and that they will respond to a variety of incentives including pay to productivity.

In an effort to overcome such problems, managers began to reexamine the assumptions and processes of motivation and to investigate and develop different methods to increase production and to provide an environment for secure jobs for their workers. Pay still remained a central aspect of motivational approaches in organizations. However, managers began looking at other aspects such as leadership style, the nature of the job and other benefit systems, as possible factors affecting human motivation.
Human Relations Movement (1940 - 1960):

After trying the scientific management approach by many organizations, a growing number of managers recognized that this approach had many shortcomings in the workplace. The two major shortcomings observed are:

1. It was incorrect to view all employees as lazy individuals who required constant close supervision and were motivated solely by money. Manager could point to a number of workers who not only were self starters but could work very effectively without constant supervision.

2. Workers are motivated to perform their jobs by factors other than money such as challenging nature of the job, satisfying interactions with coworkers, recognition, achievement and the possibilities of personal growth and development. Recognition of the individual, the group and the job situation as influences in worker motivation developed into a movement which is termed as the Human Relations Movement. The human relations movement was characterized by a number of prescriptions or techniques designed to assist managers in motivating employees.

This set of techniques focussed on three primary managerial activities.

1. Encouraging workers to participate in managerial decisions.
2. Redesigning jobs to allow for greater challenge and a broader range of participation in the organization's activities, and

3. Improving the flow of communication between superior and subordinate employees.  

One of the major contributors to the human relations movement was Douglas McGregor (1960). In his principal work, McGregor advanced two beliefs about human behaviour that could be held by different managers: Theory X and Theory Y. Theory X represents the traditional approach to managing and is characterized by the following basic assumptions about human beings:

1. The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if possible.

2. Because of this human characteristic, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organizational objectives.

3. The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition and wants security above all.

Theory Y was based on a quite different set of assumptions:

1. The expenditure of physical and mental effort is as natural as play or rest.
2. External control and threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing about effort toward organizational objectives. People will exercise self direction and self control in the services of objectives to which they are committed.

3. Commitment to objectives is a function of rewards associated with their achievements.

4. The average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept but to seek responsibility.

5. The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely not narrowly, distributed in the population.

6. Under the condition of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized.

Theory X was widely accepted management practice prior to the human relations movement. Through the early behaviour studies and the growing acceptance of behaviorally oriented concepts, many practicing managers recognised that the total acceptance of the assumptions about human behaviour in the work place were questionable and in part, unacceptable. By contrast, the acceptance of 'theory Y' approach with its fruits of participation and concern for worker morale, encouraged managers to begin practicing such activities as: a) Delegating authority for many decisions; b) Enlarging and enriching jobs of workers by making them less repetitive; c) Increasing the
variety of activities and responsibilities and d) Improving the free flow of communication within the organization.

This particular approach to the motivation of individuals in organizations has its major limitations. For example, the human relations movement provided little understanding of the basic elements of human motivation - that is, how to motivate workers - nor did it take into account the fact that different individuals can be motivated by completely different aspects. In addition, it appears that too much emphasis was put on informal group processes without knowledge of the complexities of group dynamics. Still others pointed to the fact that what is successful in one may not be successful in another, quite differently designed organization. Even with its major limitations the human relations approach to motivation proved to be of great value not only by creating a reorientation of thinking and managerial practice but also by influencing behavioral scientists and practicing managers alike to seek better ways of understanding the motivation process in organizations. The movement toward further inquiry provided the foundation for the development of the contemporary theories of motivation.9
CONTENT THEORIES:

Content theories of individual motivation focus on the question of what it is that energizes, arouses or starts behaviour. The answers to this basic question have been provided by various motivational theorists in their discussion of the concepts of needs or motives that drive people and the incentives that cause them to behave in a particular manner. A need or motive is considered to be an internal quality to the individual. Hunger (the need for food) or a steady job (need for security) are seen as motives that arouse people and may cause them to choose a specific behavioral act or pattern of acts. Incentive on the otherhand, are external aspects, associated with the goal or end result the person hopes to achieve through his or her actions. The income earned from a steady day of work (motivation by a need of security) is valued by the person. It is this value or attractiveness that is defined as incentive.

The three most publicised and researched content theories of motivation are: Maslow's Need Hierarchy, Herzberg's Two Factor Theory and Alderfer's ERG theory. These theories have received considerable attention in both research studies and managerial application.
Maslow's need hierarchy theory postulates that people in the workplace are motivated to perform by a desire to satisfy a set of internal needs. Maslow's framework is based on three fundamental assumptions:

1. People are wanting beings whose needs can influence their behaviour. Only unsatisfied needs can motivate behaviour; satisfied needs do not act as motivators.
2. A person's needs are arranged in an order of importance, or hierarchy, from the basic (e.g. food and shelter) to the complex (e.g. ego and achievement).
3. The person advances to the next level of hierarchy, or from basic to complex needs only when the lower need is at least minimally satisfied. That is, the individual worker will first focus on satisfying a need for safe working conditions before motivated behaviour is directed toward satisfying need for achieving the successful accomplishment of a task.

Maslow proposed five classifications of needs, which represent the order of importance to the individual. These needs have been identified as: a) Physiological needs, i.e. food, clothing and shelter etc.; b) Safety and security needs, i.e. protection against threat, deprivation; c) Social and belonging needs, i.e. fellowship, friendship and love. d) Ego, status and esteem needs, i.e. self esteem, self respect and self confidence;
e) Self actualization, i.e. needs for self fulfillment, the need for continued self
development and self actualization.

The physiological needs are the most dominant of all needs. As Maslow puts it:
"It is quite true that man lives by bread alone - when there is no bread. But what
happens to man's desires when there is plenty of bread and when his belly is chronically
filled?"\textsuperscript{10} Maslow's answer is that higher level of needs emerge at once to demand
satisfaction. This process continues from "belly to brain" through the satisfaction of
needs at each level. This continuing emergence of new needs is what is meant by
hierarchy of needs.

As soon as the physiological needs are met, safety needs begin to dominate. It
is not necessary that physiological needs should be fully met for safety needs to
dominate. Safety needs are of considerable importance for any employee. Any arbitrary
decisions or actions which create a feeling of insecurity affect the behaviour of
employees. Once the physiological and safety needs are satisfied, the need of the
individual to associate, gain acceptance and to receive affection and friendship increases.
The desire for belongingness and affiliation is the main reason for the formation of
informal groups in many of the organizations. But many times managers consider
formation of informal groups as a threat to organization and try to break such groups.
The resistant actions from employees are consequent to the feeling that the employees have been deprived of their social needs.

Self esteem needs include those for self confidence, achievement, competence, knowledge, self respect, and for independence and freedom. If the major esteem need is properly utilized it can subsequently help for high organizational performance. Self actualization need is partially satisfied through an interesting and challenging job. It is a feeling of attainment and accomplishment and of being satisfied with the self. The specific form of this need varies from person to person. Physiological needs are the most imperative ones, but psychologically the need for self realization is highly important to each individual. Once an individual reaches self actualization level, the motivation does not stop. Maslow’s theory takes this into account. The more self actualized the person becomes, the greater the need for self actualization.

The study conducted by Hall and Nougaim (1968) found that the need intensity correlated positively with need satisfaction. Except to the self actualization need level, the study is in direct opposition to the need hierarchy theory of Maslow. According to the study of Hall and Nougaim the more a need is satisfied, the more important it becomes.
J. W. Atkinson suggested that there are two different motivational influences: a) The desire to achieve success; and b. The desire to avoid failure. The strengths of these influences vary among individuals. Thus, whether or not a person will take risk largely depends on the strengths of personal needs for success or for avoidance of failure. This in turn largely depends on past experience.

Maslow’s theory is built on the framework that unsatisfied needs serve as factors that arouse people to behaviour. When a need has been minimally fulfilled it then ceases to be a motivator. An important point to consider is that highly deficient needs or needs that have gone unsatisfied for a long period of time, serve to cause such behavioral responses as frustration, conflict and stress. Individual reaction to frustration, conflict and stress differs from person to person depending upon environmental, organizational and personal factors. These reactions to need deficiencies take the form of at least four different “defensive behaviours”.

1. **Aggression**: is a physical or verbal defensive behaviour that can be directed towards a person, or the organization. Physical aggression can take the form of such things as stealing or equipment sabotage. Verbal aggression can result in emotional outburst toward fellow employees or superiors.

2. **Rationalization**: is a defensive behaviour that takes the form of such behaviour as blaming others or having a “take it or leave it” attitude.
4. **Compensation**: concerns the behaviour of a person going overboard in one area to make up for problems or need deficiencies in another area.

5. **Regression**: is a defense that significantly alters the individual's behaviour. On not getting promotion an employee may behave negatively.

These defensive behaviours can result from the inability of an employee to satisfy a personally important need. These behaviours are realities in any organizational setting.

Despite some interesting and supportive research, certain findings have raised a number of issues and criticisms about this theory and the viability of the five need levels. For example, selected data from managers in two different companies found little support that a hierarchy of needs existed. These studies identified two, not five, levels of needs: a biological level and a global need level encompassing the higher order needs.

A second criticism is that an individual's needs should be viewed not in a static but in a dynamic context. Individual needs are constantly changing due to various situations in which people become involved. For example, a manager striving to satisfy ego and esteem needs in his or her work may become concerned with job security needs when adverse economic conditions have resulted in worker layoffs and termination. Finally, more than one level of need may be operational at the same time for an
individual. The project engineer may be striving to satisfy a self actualization need while simultaneously being concerned with safety needs.

Finally, the theory states that a satisfied need is not a motivator. Although in a general sense this may be true, it is also true that individual needs are never fully or permanently satisfied as a result of a single act or actions. As already pointed out, it is the nature of needs that they must be continually and repeatedly fulfilled if the individual is to perform adequately. If a number of needs are operating at one time, they would seem to contradict the idea of need satisfaction occurring in a fixed hierarchical order.

David C. McClelland (1961):

McClelland identified three types of basic motivating needs: a) Need for achievement; b) Need for power; and c) Need for affiliation. These three needs correspond to the social, esteem and self actualization needs of Maslow's hierarchy. The various tests conducted by McClelland proved that a person having predominately the need for power had the need for achievement and also affiliation eventhough not to the extent of power. However, among the three needs, McClelland found the need for achievement as the most important from the point of view of nation's economic progress. According to McClelland, persons with strong achievement needs:
1. Like situations in which they can take personal responsibility for solving problems. This provides the potential for feelings of personal satisfaction, if the problem is successfully solved.

2. Tend to take moderate risks. Too safe a course of action would provide no challenge, while too risky an approach would greatly reduce the chances of goal achievement and need satisfaction.

3. Want feedback concerning their performance. Feedback is necessary for self-evaluation of goal accomplishment.¹⁴

McClelland identified the need for power and affiliation to the need for achievement. The need for affiliation reflects a desire to interact socially with people. An individual with a high need of affiliation is concerned about the quality of interpersonal relationships. For such an individual, social relationships are more important than achieving accomplishments. On the other hand, an individual with a high need for power concentrates on obtaining and exercising power and authority. He is concerned with influencing others and winning arguments. If the individual exercising power is emphasizing dominance and submission, the same will have negative effect. But if the use of power reflects persuasion and inspirational behaviours, it will have positive effect. According to McClelland, the factors determining an individual's performance are: a) The strength of one particular need relative to other needs; b) The possibility of success in performing the task; and c) The value of incentives for performance.
McClelland has also found that training programmes were successful in increasing an individual's needs for achievement.\textsuperscript{15}

However, McClelland's theory is concerned largely with individual motivational patterns and focuses only on learnt drives. The importance of primary motives as determinants of behaviour is not covered by the theory. Similarly, organizational variables of structures and job design which can influence motivation are not highlighted. Further, the maintenance factors are neglected. Finally, organizational motivation is more than the sum of individual personalities.

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory: (1966)

Another popular content theory of motivation, closely related to Maslow's need hierarchy, was proposed by Herzberg. This theory, popularly known as two factor theory or the motivation-hygiene theory, has been widely received and applied by managers concerned with the motivation of their employees.\textsuperscript{16}

The Herzberg research resulted in two specific conclusions:

1. There is a set of extrinsic job conditions that, when not present, result in dissatisfaction among employees. If those conditions are present, this does not
necessarily motivate employees. These conditions are the dissatisfiers or hygiene factors because they are needed to maintain at least a level of no dissatisfaction. These factors are related to the context of the job and are called dissatisfiers. These include: a) Job security, b) Salary, c) Working conditions, d) Status, e) Company policies, f) Quality of technical Supervision, g) Quality of interpersonal relations among peers, supervisors and subordinates, h) fringe benefits.

2. A set of intrinsic job conditions exist that help to build levels of motivation, which can result in good job performance. If these conditions are not present, they do not result in dissatisfaction. These set of aspects are related to the content of the job and are called satisfiers. These include: a) Achievement, b) Recognition, c) Work itself, d) Responsibility, e) Advancement, f) Personal growth and development.

Herzberg has reduced Maslow's five levels of needs into two distinct levels of analysis. The hygiene factors or dissatisfiers are equivalent to Maslow's lower level needs. They are preventive factors that serve to reduce dissatisfaction but do not lead to dissatisfaction. In terms of motivation, hygiene factors in the workplace provide the necessary foundation for the motivator factors to function because they bring motivation to a "zero point" by preventing negative or dysfunctional behaviour. By themselves hygiene factors do not motivate individuals to better performance.
The motivators or satisfiers, are equivalent to Maslow's higher level needs. These are job content factors that motivate people to perform. According to Herzberg, only such aspects as a challenging job, recognition for doing a good job, and opportunities for advancement, personal growth and development function to provide a situation for motivated behaviour.

Herzberg's two-factor theory has received a great deal of attention from behaviour scientists. Herzberg made his interviews based on his interest in employees who are or were potentially internally committed to their work and thus to the organization. With the so-called scientific results which he produced, he then claimed universality for a theory of internal work commitment. This is the single most important aspect of Herzberg's theory and the fundamental reason for its enduring popularity.17

Despite the important contributions made by Herzberg, the two-factor theory has been criticised. Criticisms have focussed on the manner in which the two-factor theory may oversimplify the nature of job satisfaction.18 Satisfaction or dissatisfaction can reside in the content and context of the job jointly. Critics have also pointed out to the fact that little attention has been directed toward testing the motivation and performance implications of the theory. That is, the emphasis of the theory, has been on "Satisfaction" not on the motivation or performance of individual employee.
Alderfer's ERG Theory:

Alderfer's ERG theory is more recently proposed motivation approach that seeks to establish "human needs in organizational settings."\(^{19}\) Alderfer condenses the Maslow hierarchy into three need categories: Existence (E), Relatedness (R), and growth (G).

Existence needs are all the various forms of physiological and material desires, such as hunger, thirst, and shelter. In organizational settings, the need for pay, benefits, and physical working conditions are also included in this category. This category is comparable to Maslow's physiological and certain safety needs. Relatedness needs include all those that involve interpersonal relationships with others in the workplace. This type of need in individuals depends on the process of sharing and mutuality of feelings between others to attain satisfaction. This need category is similar to Maslow's safety, social and certain ego-esteem needs. Growth needs are those needs that involve a person's efforts toward creating personal growth on the job. Satisfaction of growth needs results from an individual engaging in tasks that not only require the person's full use of his or her capabilities, but also may require the development of new capabilities.

Maslow's self actualization and certain of his ego-esteem needs are comparable to these growth needs. ERG theory is based upon three major propositions:
1. The less each level of need has been satisfied, the more it will be desired (i.e. need satisfaction). For example, the less existence needs (e.g. pay) have been satisfied on the job, the more they will be desired.

2. The more lower levels needs have been satisfied, the greater the desire for higher level needs (i.e. desire strength). For example, the more existence needs have been satisfied for the individual worker (e.g. pay), the greater the desire for relatedness needs (e.g. satisfying interpersonal relationships).

3. The less the higher level needs have been satisfied, the more the lower level needs will be desired (i.e. need frustration). For example, the less growth needs have been satisfied (e.g. challenging work), the more relatedness needs will be desired (e.g. satisfying inter-personal relationships).

Two important differences between ERG theory and the need hierarchy should be pointed out. First, the need hierarchy theory is based upon a satisfaction-progression approach; that is, an individual will progress to a higher order need once a lower order need has been satisfied. ERG theory on the other hand, incorporates not only a satisfaction progression approach but also a frustration-regression component. Frustration regression describes the situation where a higher order need remains unsatisfied, or frustrated, and greater importance or desire is placed on the next lower need. For example, frustration of growth needs results in greater desire for relatedness needs. The second major difference is closely related to the first, that is, unlike need
hierarchy approach, ERG theory indicates that more than one need may be operative at any one time.

A number of studies have been performed to examine the ERG theory using samples of students, managers and bank employees. Some researchers recommend ERG theory over Maslow's theory because the latter was not specifically aimed toward the study of employee motivation in organizational settings.

PROCESS THEORIES:

The content theories of motivation provided managers with a better understanding of the particular work-related factors that arouse employees to motivated behaviour. These theories however, provide little understanding as to why people choose a particular behaviour pattern to accomplish work goals. This choice aspect is the objective of what we have termed process theories. Expectancy theory and equity theory are the two major process theories that concern this approach to motivation in organizations.
Expectancy Theory: (1964)

In its basic form Expectancy theory relates to choice behaviour. According to this theory individuals will evaluate various strategies of behaviour (i.e. working hard each day versus working hard three days out of five) and then choose the particular strategy that they believe will lead to a pay increase, expectancy theory would predict that this would be the behaviour he or she will choose. Building on the earlier work of Tolman, Lewin, and Atkinson, Vroom presented a process theory of work motivation that he calls instrumentality or expectancy theory. The key variables in Vroom's formulation are expectancies, Valences, outcomes, instrumentalities, and choice.

1. Expectancy is the perceived belief concerning the likelihood that a particular behavioural act will be followed by a particular outcome. The degree of belief can vary between 0 (complete lack of a relationship between the act and a given outcome) and 1 (complete certainty that an act will result in a given outcome).

2. Valence is the strength of an employee's preference for a particular outcome. Unlike expectancies, valences can be either positive or negative. In a work situation, we would expect such outcomes as pay, promotion and recognition by superiors to have positive valences; such outcomes as conflict with coworkers, job pressure, or reprimands from the supervisor may have negative valences. Theoretically, an outcome has a valence because it is related to the needs of the individual.
3. An outcome or reward is the end product of a particular behaviour, and can be classified as a first or second level outcome. The first level outcomes refer to some aspects of performance, such as work goal accomplishment, and are thought to be the result of the individual's task performance effort. Second level outcomes, on the other hand, are viewed as the consequences to which the first level outcomes are expected to lead, such as pay increases or promotions.

4. Instrumentality refers to the relationship between first and second level outcomes. According to Vroom instrumentality can vary between +1.0 and -1.0. If the first level outcome (e.g. high performance) always leads to a pay increase, the instrumentality would be perceived as having a value of +1.0. If there is no perceived relationship between first and second level outcomes, then the instrumentality approaches zero.

5. Finally, choice concerns the particular behavioural pattern the individual decides upon. The individual weighs the consequences and values of each action taken as a set of possible outcomes that can be attained by choosing a particular behaviour.

To complete the model, Vroom states that expectancy and valence combine multiplicatively to determine force or motivation. Vroom offered expectancy approach to the understanding of motivation. In fact, Vroom's theory does not make any assumptions concerning what anyone's needs or objectives should be.
He suggested that a person's motivation towards an action at any time would be determined by his or her anticipated values of all the outcome, both positive and negative, of the action multiplied by the strength of that person's expectancy that the outcome would yield the desired goal. In other words, he argued that motivation was a product of the anticipated worth to a person of an action and the perceived probability that person's goals would be achieved. Vroom's theory can be stated as follows:

\[
\text{FORCE} = \text{VALENCE \times EXPECTANCY}
\]

Where force is the strength of a person's motivation, valence is the strength of an individual's preference for an outcome, and expectancy is the probability that a particular action will lead to a desired outcome.

A valence of zero occurs when an individual is indifferent about achieving a certain goal, and there is a negative valence when the person would rather not achieve the goal. As a result there would be no motivation. Similarly, a person would have no motivation to achieve a goal if the expectancy were zero or negative. The force exerted to do something will depend on both valence and expectancy.

First of all, a person's unsatisfied needs or dominant objectives are identified at a point of time. Then the emphasis is on selecting rewards that satisfy the person's
needs. Finally the rewards must be arranged so that they are the result of the performance. In contrast to the theory of McGregor, the expectancy or path goal model of motivation does not assume that there is one best way to motivate all persons.\textsuperscript{25}

According to Vroom, the performance level of an individual depends on the individual's personal objectives, the perceived relationship between performance and satisfaction of individual objectives and the person's perceived ability to influence his or her performance level.

One important feature of the expectancy approach to behaviour is its focus on the individual. It does not assume in advance what sorts of needs or objectives are most important to a person. Instead it emphasizes the relationship between what a person wants and work behaviour. The expectancy model of behaviour is useful because it emphasizes the link between personal objectives and an individual's pursuit of the organization's objectives. Whether the person will be productive depends on how the person relates productivity to personal objectives. The expectancy model takes a contingency approach to behaviour because it draws no preconceived conclusions about what kind of rewards will be most attractive to an individual.

However, a number of problems are associated with expectancy theory. For example, Lawler and Suttle note that expectancy theory "has become so complex that it
has exceeded the measures which exist to test it."26 The variables in expectancy theory have typically been measured using survey questionnaires which are usually different from researcher to researcher and have not always scientifically validated. Second is that the complexity of the model makes it very difficult to test fully. It is further stated that research evidence does not support the notion that individuals mentally perform the complex multiplicative calculations required by the model before effort is exerted.

Equity Theory:

A second process approach to motivation is termed equity theory. Equity theory states that if individuals perceive a discrepancy between the amount of rewards they receive and their efforts, they are motivated to reduce it, furthermore, the greater the discrepancy, the more the individuals are motivated to reduce it. Discrepancy refers to the perceived difference that may exist between two or more individuals. The difference may be based on subjective perception or objective reality.

Adams has been associated with the initial development and testing of this theory.27 He defines a discrepancy or inequity, as existing whenever a person perceives that the rates of his or her job outcomes to job inputs in comparison with a reference
person's outcomes to inputs, are unequal. The reference person may be someone in an individual's group, in another group or outside the organization. Here in equity theory, inputs are such aspects as effort, skills, education, and task performance that an individual employee brings to or puts into the job. Outcomes are those rewards that result from task accomplishment: i.e. pay, promotion, recognition, achievement and status.

Adams postulates that individual employees compare inputs and outcomes with other workers of roughly equal status. If the two ratios are not in balance, the individual is motivated to reduce the inequity. The three-step process consists of:

1. Comparison of outcome/input ratios between focal person and reference person;
2. Decision (equity = satisfaction, inequity = dissatisfaction); and
3. Motivated behaviour to reduce inequity.

The equity theory, however, also suffers from certain problems. They are:
1. In most of the reported studies the reference person has not always been clarified.
2. The problem of generalising equity theory among different occupational levels in various types of organizations. This would necessitate the investigation of many different types of tasks in various environmental conditions.
3. The majority of the research generally supports equity theory predictions about underpayment, but consistent overpayment responses not been satisfactorily demonstrated.

4. The theory has focussed only on the outcomes of pay. The general thrust of contemporary theories of motivation have shown that pay is not only factor that motivates individuals.

Reinforcement Theory:

The Reinforcement theory is broadly based on learning theory and the works of Skinner.\textsuperscript{28} The foundation of this approach is based on three fundamental factors. First, it is believed that an individual is basically passive and merely mediates the relationship between the forces acting and him or her and their output. Behavioural explanations that assume that individuals actively initiate behaviour on their own are rejected. Second, reinforcement theories also reject the explanation that behaviour is based on an individual's "needs", "drives", or "goals" because they believe that such aspects are unobservable and hard to measure. The focus of attention is on behaviour itself, which can be observed and measured. Finally, reinforcement theorists state that a relatively permanent change in behaviour of an individual results from reinforced behaviour or experience.
Reinforcement theory has been operationalised in organizations through the methods of operant conditioning. There are three basic components of operant conditioning: a) Stimulus; b) Response or Performance; and c) Consequences, contingencies of reinforcement, or rewards.

The consequences or types of reinforcement determine the likelihood that a given behaviour, or response, will be performed in the future. Thus to change the behaviour of an individual, the consequences or reinforcement of the behaviour must be changed. Because operant conditioning is concerned with the process of modifying behaviour by manipulating the consequences of various behaviours, we should examine the various categories and types of reinforcement. The four basic types of reinforcement available for behaviour modification are: 1. Positive reinforcement; 2. Punishment; 3. Avoidance Learning and 4. Extinction.²⁹

1. Positive Reinforcement: The application of this type of reinforcement to a given response or behaviour increases the likelihood that the particular behaviour by the individual will be repeated.

2. Punishment: The application of punishment is used to decrease the likelihood that the undesired behaviour or response by the individual will be repeated.
3. **Avoidance**: Just as with positive reinforcement, this type of reinforcement is a method used by managers to strengthen desired behaviour. When a particular reinforcement can prevent the occurrence of an undesired stimulus, it is termed avoidance learning.

4. **Extinction**: Positive reinforcement and avoidance learning are used to strengthen desired responses or behaviour on the part of the individual; punishment and extinction are reinforcement methods that can be used to reduce or eliminate undesirable behaviour. Extinction is the withholding of positive reinforcement for a previously acceptable response or behaviour. With continued non-reinforcement over a period of time, the response or behaviour will eventually disappear or be eliminated.

The objective of each of the four reinforcement type is to modify an individual's behaviour so that it will benefit the organization. Reinforcement will either increase the strength of desired behaviour or decrease the strength of undesired behaviour, depending on the organization's needs and the individual's current behaviour.

Although there are positive implications of this theory, there have developed equally strong criticisms of this approach to motivation. First, operant conditioning techniques tend to ignore the individuality and complexity of a person's behaviour. Critics point out that operant conditioning, with its programmed or rigid
reinforcement methods, oversimplifies the behaviour of individuals, particularly informal organizations. In addition, operant conditioning does not take into account such individual characteristics as needs, desires, or the varying importance of different types of rewards.\(^3\)

Second with its heavy emphasis on external reward systems, operant conditioning ignores the fact that individuals can be reinforced or motivated by the job itself. This approach tends to place too much emphasis on controlling behaviour through the manipulation of "lower level needs" and does not consider that individuals might have other "higher level needs" as motivators.

Finally, critics claim that because the majority of research on operant conditioning originates from laboratory efforts, generalization and application to real life organizational settings remains relatively untested. Although laboratory experiments provide a high degree of control over extraneous variables that is not really available in real organization, we cannot make generalizations of its application to large, complex organizations.
MOTIVATION THEORIES: AN OVERVIEW

Among all the different theories of motivation, the content theories of Herzberg and Maslow have been very influential and popular. So far as Maslow's need hierarchy in concerned, the force of one's motivation depends on the force of one's need; i.e. how strong is your need so strong is your motivation. Herzberg has identified that two emotional states were covered by two different sets of conditions. At the sametime every theory has a valid point and every theory researcher has made valuable contribution to this complex problem of motivation.

Herzberg made his interviews based on his interest in employees who are or were potentially internally committed to their work and thus to the organization. With the so called scientific results which he produced, he then claimed universality for a theory of internal work commitment. This is the single most important aspect of Herzberg's theory and the fundamental reason for its enduring popularity.31

Motivation is based on growth needs. It is an internal engine and its benefits show up over a period of time. Because the ultimate reward in motivation is personal growth, people do not need to be rewarded incrementally. I write a book - a big accomplishment. Then I write an article a lesser accomplishment, but nevertheless an addition to my personal growth.32 In this article Herzberg divides morals into sets of
factors, namely, dissatisfiers and motivators. According to him, the growth or the motivator factors that are intrinsic to the job are achievement, recognition for achievement, the work itself, responsibility, and growth or advancement, while working conditions, salary, status, company policy, etc are hygiene factors. It can be noticed that there are some fundamental similarities between Herzberg's and Maslow's representations. The safety and social needs of Maslow are the areas of Herzberg's dissatisfiers, while Herzberg's motivators include Maslow's self actualization needs.

A number of studies have been reported on Indian situations regarding motivation. Many of the studies have shown money as a major force behind work in India. Prasad's Study (1979), Saiyadain (1979), Srivastava (1985), all have drawn the above conclusion. According to them, job security and working conditions were motivators next only to salary.

Some other studies in India, however, pointed out that workers prefer some aspects other than money and job security. Studies of Lahari and Srivastava (1967), Dayal and Saiyadain (1970), and Pestonjec and Basu (1972), have concluded that people are motivated by sense of achievement and recognition. According to the study conducted by Ganguli, Chaudhary, and Guha (1980), independence and interesting work are more important than monetary incentives. The recent study by Sharma (1987) has also pointed out the importance of social and psychological needs of the employees as
Employee motivation has a vital role to play in the context of improving manpower productivity, particularly in banks. But there is a big gap between theory and practice. Going by Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs, presuming that physiological needs of bank employees are adequately taken care of, greater emphasis should be laid on psychological and self actualization needs like recognition, esteem and the opportunity/drive to reach one's full potential. Given the framework of standard facilities and monetary rewards, efforts must be made to ensure that superior and extraordinary contributions are adequately recognized and appreciated.

If efforts are not made to enlist the active participation of bank employees at various levels and build up a high degree of morale, through job enrichment, job rotations, proper placement and effective communication, the banks will be forced to contend with much deadwood.  

Here our basic design is to identify the satisfying and dissatisfying factors based on Herzberg's two-factor theory as it is better suited to bank work environment. McGregor has opined that the potentialities of individuals are only partially utilized by an organization. This aspect when known to the individual, leads to dissatisfaction.
Further the need for achievement leads men in the above psychological state of dissatisfaction to explore new pastures.

Among the various theories mentioned above, Herzberg’s two factor theory is more applicable to the bank officers. As far as the bank officers are concerned the physiological, safety and social needs of Maslow’s theory of motivation are at present by and large taken care of. However banks were not able to satisfy the higher level needs pointed out by Maslow. The theory X of McGregor does not seem to be applicable to the officers of the banks as it is difficult to conclude that bank officers being highly qualified, prefer to be directed, avoid responsibility, and have little ambition. However, his "theory Y" is applicable to some extent that the desire to work can be strengthened through trust and co-operation.

As regards David McClelland’s basic motivating needs, the need for affiliation has been by and large taken care of with the strengthening of officer’s associations in banks. The need for power and need for achievement, however, could not be satisfied. These needs are similar to the higher level needs mentioned by Maslow.

Victor H. Vroom, on the other hand, offered an expectancy approach to the understanding of motivation. Vroom's theory cannot be applied in the present conditions to motivate the bank officer’s as the theory does not suggest that there is one
best way to motivate all persons. Moreover, the theory does not assume what sorts of needs or objectives are most important to a person. Therefore Vroom's theory also cannot be applied to motivate the bank officers.

After reviewing all the above theories, though Herzberg's two factor theory is more applicable to bank-work environment, yet the central factor that is responsible for motivation or that which exerts force or pressure while performing a job has not been properly identified. The key factor - LOVE - that enkindles the desire, liking, attraction for doing/performing anything is the essence of motivation. Love is the foundation of all types of relationships and is the starting point that is responsible remotely proximately and ultimately for any action or activity.

In this study an attempt is made to find out how need arises, what is the strength or force behind a need and how the strength of one's motivation depends on the strength of one's needs. All the earlier theories are only partially true to the extent that they touch upon only the peripheral factors of motivation whereas LOVE constitutes the central factor of motivation.

There is a feeling in the business and corporate world that motivation can be purchased with money, fringe benefits, working conditions etc and that human person is a factor of production like land, capital and organization. Here, lies the basic fallacy that
we think that we can motivate human beings without love, without respect, without owning them up as members of one family. Human person is a complex being with flesh, blood and a special gift of choice. He has the will power to choose and that makes all the difference. The basic human need is LOVE. Food, clothing, shelter may be his physiological/survival needs but love (consisting of all higher level needs) is a basic psychological survival need. Both levels of needs are equally important and mutually interdependent for self fulfillment or self actualization.

Today the bank officers are looking for love, regard, respect, and acceptance as members of one family. In order to have belongingness they are to be owned up by the owners of the organizations. The owners of the organizations own up only financial and material resources not the human resources. Human resources are treated as machines not as human persons with respect and dignity. The bank officers are suffering from identity crisis like a cog in the wheel. In the comparative study that is undertaken with regard to public and private sector banks an attempt is made to find out whether performance and motivation are affected because of the treatment that is given to human resources. So ultimately its the Human Resource Management policies and practices that are adopted will bring about better motivation in the bank officers.
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