CHAPTER - II
MOTIVATION – THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1 INTRODUCTION
Motivation is mainly a psychological concept. It refers to the forces, operating within an individual, which impels him to act or not to act in a certain way. Motivation is one of the most important factors affecting human behaviour. Motivation, in most general sense, is an attempt to explain why behaviour takes place.

Motivation may be defined as the complex force inspiring a person at work in the organisation to intensify his/her desire and willingness to use his/her potentialities for achievement of organizational objectives.¹ According to Likert, motivation is the core of management.²

2.2 CONCEPT OF MOTIVATION
The word motivation is derived from the Latin word “movere” which means “To move”. Motivation is an internal state or condition (sometimes described as a need, desire or want) that serves to the activate or energize behaviour and to give it direction to internal state or condition that activates behaviour desire or want that energizes and directs goal oriented behaviour influence of needs and desires on the intensity and direction of behaviour.³


² L.M Prasad., Organisational Behaviour, Sultan Chand and Sons

Motivation refers to a state that directs the behaviour of the individual towards certain goals. Motivation has been defined as: the psychological process that gives behaviour purpose and direction.\footnote{Kreitner R., \textit{Management}, 6\textsuperscript{th} Edition, Houghton Mifflin Company, New York, USA.1995.pp 466-507.}

It is necessary to distinguish between the meanings of the terms need, motive, goal and drive.

\textbf{a. Need:}

‘Need’ is a condition of lack or deficit of something required, which the organism finds necessary to satisfy in order to maintain its existing balance.

\textbf{b. Motive:}

The term ‘motive’ refers to a goal directed behaviour and energizing conditions within the organism that drives behaviour.

\textbf{c. Goal:}

‘Goal’ is something one thinks that it will contribute to the satisfaction of a need or motive.

\textbf{d. Drive:}

A drive connotes psychological feelings, which may or may not have physiological sources.
2.3 CHARACTERISTIC FEATURES OF MOTIVATION:

1. Motivation is internal to person:

   Motivation is an internalized feeling. It is a psychologically generated behaviour which forces a person to act.

2. Motivation is an ongoing process:

   Motivation is a continuous activity. It goes on endlessly because needs and desires are many. One need may give rise to the other. They are numerous and motivate persons for their satisfaction.

3. Motivation varies from person to person and time to time:

   Motivation is different for different persons and also varies according to time and place because wants are different to different people at different times and places. Moreover, motivation is a psychological phenomenon and it is difficult to make a clear assessment as to what exactly is the cause of motivation.

4. Motivation may be Positive or Negative:

   Positive or incentive motivation is based on Reward. According to Flippo “Positive motivation is a process of attempting to influence others to do one’s will through the possibility of gain or Reward.”\(^5\) People work for incentives in the form of four “P”s of Motivation: Praise, Prestige, Promotion and Pay cheque.\(^6\)

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Negative or fear motivation is based on fear and force. Fear causes persons to act in a certain way because they are afraid of the consequences if they do not act. If workers do not work, they are threatened with mechanism.

2.4 TYPES OF MOTIVATION

Extrinsic motivation has been the fuel for many of man’s activities – from education to the workplace. It is what is done to or for people to motivate them. It is related to ‘tangible’ Rewards such as salary and fringe benefits, security, promotion and condition of work. It is easily controlled by the superiors.  

Extrinsic motivation is concerned with external motivators which employees’ enjoy-pay, promotion, status, fringe benefits, retirement plans, health insurance schemes, holidays and vacations and the like. Mostly these motivators may be associated with financial Rewards.

Intrinsic Motivation:

Intrinsic motivation is motivation, which comes from within a person. It is an emotional preference for a task that gives us pleasure and enjoyment. Intrinsic motives are those, which are satisfied by internal reinforces.

Intrinsic motivation is the self-generated factors, which influences people to behave in a particular way or to move in a particular direction. They are related to psychological Rewards such as the opportunity to use one’s ability a sense of challenge and achievement, positive recognition, and being treated in a

caring and thoughtful manner. They are those that individuals receive for themselves. Intrinsic motivation arises from having “a strong emotional interest in an activity and a sense of freedom and autonomy related to it.”

2.5 THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

Motivating employees has become an important task on the part of the management. During the last seven decades numerous thinkers, experts and researchers have studied different aspects of organisational behaviour and individual interaction which have a bearing on motivation. The researchers have developed numerous theories.

The static or content models of work motivation provides perspective approach to work motivation. On the other hand, the more dynamic theories often termed as ‘the process theories’, are more complex. The major process theories make allowance for individual cognitive responses as being a major contributor to work motivation behaviour. All the theories can be classified into two broad categories-early theories and contemporary theories. Contemporary theories are further classified into (a) content, (b) process and (c) reinforcement categories.

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Traditional Theory
Efforts and Rewards theory

This theory tried a direct relationship between efforts and Rewards. Taylor conceived this idea in his piece rate system of wages. He said,” Give a man more money and he will produce more”. This approach involves the offer of some Reward and good Working Conditions to motivate people to work harder and better; their demands are satisfied and harmony achieved. To practice this theory, managers should establish the standards of performance, monitor the behaviour of employees and decide about the Rewards and penalties based on the degree of performance. But there are difficulties in this approach. They continually expect more, but they give less and less.10

Fear and Punishment Theory

This approach involves the use of coercion and threat, close Supervision and tight control of behaviour. The basic idea behind this approach is that people work for the sake of money and they will work only to ensure that the job is not lost. The philosophy “might is right” characterizes the thinking of aggressive and authoritarian managers. Managers developed a strategy of forcing people to work by threatening to punish or dismiss them or to cut their Rewards if they didn’t work well. This theory is based on the military principle, “Neither make reply

nor reason out why, but do or die”, and the assumption is that people would work efficiently and with interest if they were driven by fear and punishment.\textsuperscript{11}

**Monastic Theory**

This is almost like efforts and Rewards theory. Here, the management assumes that people work for money only. This theory seeks a single cause of behaviour. It assumes that all the activities of men are directed only towards earning money. More effort will provide more wages, which will further encourage the workers to more effort. This is also known as the “Effort-Reward-Effort theory”\textsuperscript{12}

**Carrot and Stick Theory**

This theory suggests a judicious combination of both Rewards and penalties for motivation. This theory is based on the strategy of putting a carrot in front of a donkey and hitting it with a stick from behind so that it may run. The carrot refers to incentives like money and other inducements, and the stick refers to penalties, fear of dismissal, and demotion.\textsuperscript{13}

**Paternalistic Theory**

Paternalistic theory was successful in its approach and effectively competed with the “Be strong” and “fear and punishment” theories. After

\textsuperscript{11} Moorhead G, and Griffin R.W., loc cit.


\textsuperscript{13} Ibid.,
experiencing the ‘Be strong’ theory and its limitations, some managers implemented a new strategy.

They were kind, generous and had the interests of the employees at heart. They functioned much as parents towards their children. But they expected loyalty, demanded respect and provided their employees what they thought was good for them. High wages, job security, good facilities for education, health, recreation and good work environments were provided to gain loyalty and increase efficiency and productivity.¹⁴

Content Theories of Motivation

Content theories offer ways to profile or analyze individuals to identify the needs that motivate their behaviours. Content theories are primarily concerned with what it is within an individual or his or her environment that energies and sustains the person’s behaviour. Content theories are useful because they lend insight into people’s need and help the managers understand what people will and will not value as work Rewards on need satisfiers.

People have many needs and various content motivation theories help profile these needs in different ways. The content theories of motivation approaches that have led to our understanding of motivation are Maslow’s need hierarchy theory, Herzberg’s two-factor theory, Alderfer ERG theory and McClelland’s achievement theory.¹⁵

¹⁴ Ibid.,

¹⁵ Moorhead, Gand Griffìn R.W., loc.cit.,
Maslow’s Need Hierarchy Theory

Maslow’s basis was human behaviour. He conducted his investigation between 1939 and 1943. The hierarchy of needs has five sets of goals that are called basic needs. Maslow’s idea was “people will not be healthy and well adjusted unless they have their needs met”\textsuperscript{16}

An employee has five levels of needs-physiological, safety, social, ego and self-actualizing. Maslow argued that lower level needs had to be satisfied before the next higher level need would motivate employees.\textsuperscript{17}

Abraham Maslow developed a theory that humans have five sets of needs that are arranged in a hierarchy. He contends that people start by trying to satisfy their most basic or compelling needs and progress towards the most fulfilling. These needs are as follows.

\textbf{a. Physiological Needs}

These include need for the food, water, shelter, clothing and money. Until an individual has access to these necessities there can be no further progress. These needs are very basic and for the most part, society and our social network have ensured that they are present. Intrinsic values include personal comfort and satisfaction, while the organisation helps to satisfy employees’ physiological needs by a pay cheque.

\textsuperscript{16} Greenberg J., \textit{Managing Behaviour in Organisation}, 2\textsuperscript{nd} ed, Prentice Hall, New Jersey, USA, 1999, p74,136

\textsuperscript{17} Maslow H, \textit{A Theory of Human Motivation, Psychological Review}, Harper and Row Publisher, New York, USA, 1943, P.370
b. Safety Needs

These include security, stability and a structured environment. Here the individual expects and pursues job security, a comfortable work environment, pension, and insurance plans, and freedom to organize in order to ensure continuation of these benefits. Personal motivation may include the peace of mind that can be provided as a result of these needs being secured. The organisation helps to satisfy employees’ safety needs by benefits.

c. Social Needs

Relationship needs include socialization, affection, love companionship and friendship. The individual at this level participates for Personal or intrinsic Rewards. Since no person can live for extended periods without interaction with other people, the individual may be drawn to participate simply to fulfill this need. The organisation can assist by ensuring that the opportunity for social and relationship expectation are created and met. The supervisor can help to fulfill social needs by showing direct care concern for employees.

d. Esteem Needs

These include feelings of adequacy, competency, independence, confidence, appreciation and Recognition by others. Again the individual is driven more by internal or intrinsic needs. The external environment is needed more to provide Recognition than to provide material Rewards. The organisation helps to satisfy employees’ esteem needs by matching the skill and abilities of
the employee to the job. The supervisor can help to fulfill esteem needs by showing workers that their work is appreciated.

e. Self-Actualization Need

This area is the most difficult to define and therefore may be the most difficult to explain. Organizational requirements may include the opportunity for creativity and growth. Frequently individuals aspiring to this level often operate outside existing organisation and instead build their own structures to suit their own individual’s needs. Self-actualisation needs are the desires for self-fulfillment and the realization of the individual’s full potential. The supervisor can help fulfill self-actualization needs by assigning tasks that challenge employees’ minds while drawing on their aptitude and training.18

Herzberg’s Two-Factor Theory

Motivation is usually considered to be intrinsic when individuals perceive themselves to have control over environment factors and over their own behaviour. Motivation is extrinsic if these conditions are absent. In terms of Herzberg’s two factor theory, intrinsic motivating factors, those that determine the degree of job satisfaction, relate to job content whereas extrinsic hygiene factors, those that determine the degree of job dissatisfaction relate to job context.19


Herzberg maintained that feelings of satisfaction are different in kind from feelings of dissatisfaction: that the opposite of satisfaction is no satisfaction and that the opposite of dissatisfaction is no dissatisfaction. He had drawn this conclusion from a broad range of research findings indicating that the job characteristic that result in employees’ feelings of satisfaction differ in type from those that would result in employees’ feelings of dissatisfaction.\(^{20}\)

The essence of the motivation-hygiene model is that the various features of a job can be classified according to the type of needs to which they relate. Job elements that can gratify employees’ psychological growth needs cause feelings of satisfaction when present and adequate; these job elements are called motivational factors. Job features that can gratify employees’ pain avoidance needs cause feelings of dissatisfaction when absent or inadequate; these job elements are called hygiene factors. The two types of factors are defined below and the particular job aspects making each type are also specified.

a. Motivational Factors

Motivational factors are the aspects of a job situation that can motivate when presented and fulfill employees’ needs for psychological growth. They tend to be intrinsic to the work associated with the job; they pertain to the content of the job. These factors are:

i) Achievement  
ii) Recognition  
iii) Work Itself  
iv) Responsibility  
v) Advancement  
vi) Possibility of Growth

Hygiene Factors:

Hygiene factors are the aspects of a job situation that can, when present and adequate, fulfill employees’ pain-avoidance needs. They tend to be extrinsic to the work itself, they pertain to the context in which the work is performed. When such hygienic factors are not present in a job situation, it creates a feeling of dissatisfaction. But when present, ample and positive they do not generally cause feelings of satisfaction. The eight hygiene factors are:


Alderfer’s ERG Needs Theory

Clayton Alderfer developed another need based theory that supports in many ways developed by Maslow but consists of three rather than five basic needs. Alderfer also observes his three levels, which includes Existence, Relatedness and Growth (ERG) needs as being hierarchal and thus are influenced by personal growth and extrinsic and intrinsic Rewards.

a. Existence

These include needs that may be satisfied by material substances or conditions. They correspond closely to the physiological needs identified by Maslow and those safety needs that can be satisfied by material rather than Interpersonal Rewards or conditions. They include the need for food, water, air, shelter, safe Working Conditions, pay and fringe benefits.

b. Relatedness

These are needs that may be satisfied by communication or exchange and interaction with other individuals. There is a dependence on feedback from other organisational or community of intrinsic and extrinsic Rewards. These Rewards include accurate and honest feedback, which may involve direction and advice rather than unconditional pleasantness or agreement.

c. Growth

These are needs that are fulfilled by strong personal involvement that fully utilize one’s skills, abilities and creativity. They include Maslow’s self-actualization as well as esteem needs that rely on intrinsic Reward.22

ERG theory includes a unique frustration – regression component. This suggests that an already satisfied need can become activated when a higher need cannot be satisfied. Thus, if a person is continually frustrated in his or her attempts to satisfy growth needs, relatedness needs, can again surface as key motivators. ERG theory offers a more flexible approach in understanding human needs than does Maslow’s theory.23


McClelland’s Need Achievement Theory

David McClelland (1961)\(^\text{24}\) contends that we develop a relatively stable personality early in life that once acquired remains unchanged. McClelland therefore does not see motivation as hierarchical. He does not address the issue of growth but has been more concerned with the behavioural consequences of need. David McClelland, has spent time in studying the need Achievement theory. Although similar to the theories of Maslow and Alderfer in its attention to middle and upper level needs, need Achievement theory is much more “applied” than any other content theory. The three areas of the need he has identified include the need for Achievement, the need for affiliation and the need for power.\(^\text{25}\)

a. Need for Achievement

Individuals in this category have strong desire to perform challenging tasks well. They have a preference for situations where personal responsibility can be taken for successful outcomes. The goals they set provide for moderate and calculated risk and the individual seeks performance feedback to allow for modification and to ensure success.

Need for Achievement has been studied at both individual and societal levels. At the individual level, the primary aim of research has been to pinpoint the characteristic of high need achievers, the outcomes associated with high need Achievement and methods for increasing the need for Achievement tend to set


moderately difficult goals, make moderately risky decisions, want immediate feedback, become preoccupied with their task and assume personal responsibility.  

b. Need for Affiliation

People in this category display a need to establish and maintain friendly compatible relationships. They have a need to like other people and want others to like them. They have an ability to create social networks that will result in meeting these needs.

Affiliation motivated people are usually friendly and like to socialize with others. This may distract them from their performance requirements. They will usually respond to an appeal for cooperation.

c. Need for Power

People in this category have a strong need to have influence over others. They wish to make a significant impact and impression on those with whom they come in contact. This need for power corresponds in many ways to Maslow’s esteem needs where power is used to get attention or to build personal prestige.

Power motivated individuals see almost every situation as an opportunity to seize control or dominate others. They love to influence others. They like to change situations whether or not it is needed. They are willing to assert themselves when a decision needs to be made.

\[\text{Ibid.,}\]

\[\text{Ibid.,}\]
People having these needs have certain ways of dealing with their jobs. People who are high in the need for Achievement tend to be mostly concerned with performing better than others perform. They are usually more innovative and prefer long-term goal involvement. People with high need for affiliation are more concerned with establishing Interpersonal Relationships with other people. They tend to communicate more frequently.\(^{28}\)

**An Integrated Model of Four Motivational Theories**

Each of the four content theories attempts to explain behaviour from a slightly different perspective. None of the theories has been accepted as the sole basis for explaining motivation. Although some critics are skeptical, it appears that people have innate and learned needs and that various job factors result in a degree of satisfaction.\(^{29}\) Thus each of the theories provides the manager with some understanding of behaviour and performance.

The four theories are compared in Figure-2.1 McClelland proposed no lower order needs. However his needs for Achievement and power are not identical with Herzberg’s motivators, or Maslow’s higher order needs, or Alderfer’s growth needs, but there are some similarities. A major difference between the four content theories is McClelland’s emphasis on socially acquired needs. The Maslow theory offers static need hierarchy system. Alderfer presents


\(^{29}\) Ibid.,
a flexible three need classification approach and Herzberg discusses intrinsic job factors. The four prominent theories of motivation allow us to reach on some general conclusions. They are

1. People seek security. There are certain “insecurity” needs fundamental to people’s existence. If these needs are not addressed people will put their main focus on job performance.

2. People seek social system. Whether we call this need relatedness, affiliation, Interpersonal Relations or belongingness we cannot neglect the sociability aspect of effective organisations.

3. People seek personal growth. Whether we call this self-actualization advancement growth or need for achievement, “what is in it for me” is a powerful need. We cannot neglect the development aspect of effective organisations. We believe that Figure-2.1 demonstrates that leadership model must incorporate these three basic need categories.

Figure-2.1
An Integrated Model of Four Motivation Theories

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<th>Maslow</th>
<th>Alderfer</th>
<th>Herzberg</th>
<th>McClelland</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-Actualization</td>
<td>Growth</td>
<td>Motivators</td>
<td>Need for Achievement</td>
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<td>Esteem</td>
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<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>Relatedness</td>
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<td>Need for Affiliation</td>
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<td>Safety</td>
<td>Existence</td>
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<td>Hygiene Factors</td>
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<td>Physiological</td>
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Process Theories of Motivation

Process theories seek to understand the thought processes that take place in the minds of people and act to motivate their behaviour. The process theories focus on how behaviour originates and operates. These theories actually deal with approaches that can aid a manager to motivate an employee.\(^\text{31}\)

Process theories offer a more dynamic alternative. They strive to provide an understanding of the cognitive process that takes place within the minds of people acts to influence their behaviour. These are Adam’s Equity theory, Vroom’s Expectancy theory and Goal Setting theory.

Adam’s Equity Theory

Adams’ theory states that employees strive for equity between themselves and other workers. Equity is achieved when the ratio of employees’ outcomes over inputs is equal to other employees’ outcomes over inputs.\(^\text{32}\)

Equity theory comes from the field of social psychology and is based on a series of studies examining social comparison processes. According to social comparison theory, people evaluate their social relationships in much the same way economists describe economic exchanges in the market place.

The basic comparisons of equality theory can be illustrated by the following formula comparing the input output ratios of a person in relation to the input output ratios of others.


In this formula, \( \frac{O_p}{I_p} \) divided by \( \frac{I_p}{O_p} \) refers to the ratio of person’s outcomes to inputs while the \( \frac{O_o}{I_o} \) divided by \( \frac{I_o}{O_o} \) refers to the outcomes to inputs ratio of others, a state of equity when the two ratios are essentially equal. But changing any of the four values can destroy this state of equity.

A state of inequity exists whenever the two ratios are unequal and it can be caused by either ratio being greater than the other. In other words, inequality can exist because people are either overpaid or underpaid. The available research suggests that people are easily upset by underpayment. Therefore, people are more willing to accept overpayment in a social exchange than underpayment. Nevertheless, according to equity theory, both conditions of inequity motivate individuals to establish a more equitable exchange.

**Vroom’s Expectancy Valence Theory**

Vroom’s theory is based on the belief that employees’ effort will lead to performance and performance will lead to Reward, the more likely the employee will be highly motivated. Conversely the more negative the Reward the less likely the employee will be motivated\(^{33}\).

Expectancy theory is a decision – making model of motivation that explains how individuals decide what to do, by evaluating the outcomes of their

\(^{33}\) Ibid.,
behaviour and the probabilities associated with them. Several disciplines have contributed to the development of expectancy theory, including economics. Decision theory has been presented in the literature and it has also been called expectancy/valence theory, instrumental theory and Valence Instrumentality Expectance (VIE) theory.

The basic idea of expectancy theory is that motivation is determined by the outcome people expect to take place as a result of their actions. These elements are outlined in the Figure-2.2. The amount of effort an individual is willing to exert depends on (1) the perceived relationship between effort and performance (expectancy), (2) the period relationship between performance and the outcomes (instrumentality), and (3) the value of the outcomes (valence).

![Figure-2.2](image)

Vrooms Expectancy Valence Theory

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<th>Effort</th>
<th>Performance</th>
<th>Outcomes</th>
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<td></td>
<td>Expectancy</td>
<td>Instrumentality</td>
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Latham and Locke have done some of the most important work in goal setting. Goal setting theory is the specification of goal to increase performance. Assigning difficult goals usually results in higher performance. Goal setting has three components that have to be used to apply this concept successfully. First the identification of the process, then the characteristic and finally the feedback.

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The characteristic of goal setting consists of making the goal specific and challenging. The goal must be challenging to increase self-efficacy. It has been noted that a difficult task tends to increase an employee’s performance. This may be because, usually people work harder to reach a challenging goal, as long as it is believed that it can be done.\textsuperscript{35}

Goal setting occurs in three ways. Participative goals allow employees to participate in the process of setting goals by providing information and contributing to the goal selection. If they believe the goals are too high or too low, they can express their opinions and try to influence the goal statements. Assigned goals are determined by management and simply assigned to the employees. In scientific management, industrial engineers determine the standards of performance with almost no input from the employees. Do your best goals allow employees to control their own goals. Management simply asks the employees to do their best without getting involved in approving or vetoing their goals.

**Applicator of Goal Setting Theory:**

The effect of goals setting on behaviour is influenced by four major goal setting attributes: goal specificity, goal difficulty, goal acceptance and goal commitment.

**a. Goal Specificity:**

Numerous studies have found a direct relationship between goal specificity and increased performance. When employees are working toward

\textsuperscript{35} Ibid., p.361.
specific goals, they consistently perform at higher levels than when they are simply told to do their best or are allowed to work at their own rate with no instruction at all.\textsuperscript{36}

\textbf{b. Goal Difficulty:}

According to Wheaton and Cameron, studies on the effect of goal difficulty have found a direct linear relationship showing that an increase in goal difficulty is associated with an increase in task performance. In other words, higher goals lead to higher performance. The relationship between goal difficulty and task performance however does not hold for unreasonably difficult goals. When the goals are so high that they become unreasonably difficult or impossible, individuals tend to ignore the goals and performance may be only slightly better than no goals at all. When a goal is perceived as so difficult that it is virtually impossible to attain, the result is often frustration rather than achievement.\textsuperscript{37}

\textbf{c. Goal Commitment:}

The model suggests that effort, ability and goal setting attributes combine in a multiplicative fashion to produce performance. A multiplicative model means that if any of the three factors is zero or missing, there is no performance. This idea ought to seem quite reasonable since zero effort should produce zero performance regardless of the person’s ability. Similarly nothing will be

\textsuperscript{36} Ibid., p.435.

produced if the person has no ability or does not understand what to do. Likewise, it suggests that work design and the organizational environments influences performance since people cannot perform well, if their jobs or the organisation prevents them from translating their efforts into productive outcomes. The motivational model will examine work design and the kinds of organizational environments that contribute to outstanding motivation.

Rewards should be based on performance. The lines between performance and Rewards are intended to suggest that the relationship for intrinsic Rewards is more direct than for extrinsic Rewards, since people administer their own intrinsic Rewards while extrinsic Rewards depend on uncertain organisational practices. Job satisfaction is determined largely by the kinds of Rewards people receive from their work. However their perceptions of whether their Rewards are fair and equitable or not are the important considerations.38

**Behaviourists Theories of Motivation**

The classical methods certainly have their place, but they do have limitations and there are areas that they do not address. Behavioural modification is a method used to improve productivity and to motivate personnel. If a manager reviews the work of various groups or individuals and determines that performance is below average, the established behaviour of the individual or group needs to be modified to improve performance.39

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Reinforcement Theory

Reinforcement theories (both operant conditioning and social cognitive theory) claim that behaviour is a function of the consequences associated with the behaviour. Very simply, people tend to do things that lead to positive consequences and avoid doing things that lead to unpleasant consequences. The relationship between behaviour and its consequences is called a reinforcement contingency. Knowing the reinforcement contingencies associated with a person’s behaviour, allows one to diagnose and predict that person’s behaviour. To change behaviour it requires changing the reinforcement contingencies. Positive reinforcers refer to desirable consequences that people normally report as pleasant and enjoyable. Negative reinforcers refer to negative consequences and are described as undesirable and disliked.  

a. Reinforcers:-

The greatest problem in applying reinforcement theory to human behaviour is to know what is reinforcing. Many objects and events reinforce people and there are important individual differences in what people find attractive. Efforts to study reinforcers have focused on classifying reinforcers as positive or negative, primary versus secondary and intrinsic versus extrinsic. Another way to classify reinforcers is to distinguish between extrinsic and intrinsic Rewards.

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b. **Extrinsic Rewards**

Extrinsic Rewards are administered by external sources such as coworkers, supervisors or the organization. Financial compensation is clearly the most popular form of extrinsic Rewards, including wages, salaries, bonuses, profit sharing and incentive plans. Promotions to higher jobs and Recognition from peers are also extrinsic Rewards since they too are administered by external sources. Even though these Rewards are not physical and tangible, they are classified as extrinsic Rewards since others administer them. Compliments from friends and supervisors are likewise extrinsic Rewards.

c. **Intrinsic Rewards**

Intrinsic Rewards are associated with the job itself and refer to the positive feelings the individuals derive from the work they do. Intrinsic Rewards are self-administered and are based upon the personal values of each individual. For example, individuals who have a strong work ethic will derive satisfaction from successfully performing an outstanding job. Individuals who value being considerate and helpful will derive intrinsic satisfaction from helping someone in need. Individuals who have a high need for Achievement feel rewarded when they achieve challenging goals.

There are four basic forms of reinforcement: Positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement, extinction and punishment.

- Positive Reinforcement: The provision of Rewards or further encouragement as performance increases.
Negative Reinforcement: The removal of negative aspects of a job as a Reward for increased production.

Punishment: Demotion or the introduction of negative aspects of the job as a consequence of poor performance.

Extinction: The withholding of positive reinforcement until, over time, the undesired behaviour disappears

Doughlas McGregor’s Theory:

Doughlas McGregor, an American psychologist, proposed his famous X-Y theory. Doughlas McGregor has identified, at the two extremes, two styles of managing: Theory X, or autocratic, and Theory Y, or participative.

Theory X stands for the set of traditional beliefs held, while theory Y stands for the set of beliefs based upon researches in behavioural science and is concerned with modern social views on man.

Theory X is based on the conventional concept and is based upon the following assumptions:

1. The average human being has an inherent dislike on work and will avoid it if he/she can.
2. Because of these human characteristics of dislike of work, most people must be coerced, controlled or threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort towards the Achievement of organizational objectives.

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41 Raju R.S and Parthasarathy., loc.cit.
3. The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition and wants security above all.

4. The typical worker is self-centered and has little concern for organizational goals.

5. He/she is by nature resistant to change.

6. He/she is gullible, not very bright, the ready dupe of the charlatan and the demagogue.

   Theory Y represents the democratic approach and is based on the following assumptions:

1. Work is a source of satisfaction.

2. Threat or punishment is not the only way to induce people to work; moreover it is not the best way. People who are committed to achieving the organization’s objectives will display self-motivation and self-direction.

3. A person’s commitment to objectives depends on the Rewards he or she expects to receive when goals are achieved.

4. Work is as natural as play or rest and people develop an attitude towards work related to their experience with it.

5. The motivation, the potential for development, the capacity for assuming responsibility, the readiness to direct behaviour towards organizational goals are all present in people.

6. A large percentage of population has a high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organisation problems.
7. People are not by nature passive or resistant to organizational needs. Under the right conditions, the average person will both accept and seek responsibility.

8. The abilities to think creatively, to innovate and to solve problems is widely distributed among people.

9. The intellectual abilities of most people are under-utilized.

10. Motivation occurs at the social esteem and self-actualization levels, as well as at the physiological and security levels.

**Ouchi’s Theory Z**

William Ouchi proposed theory Z as an alternative theory of organizational culture compromises three major characteristics (a) trust, (b) subtlety and (c) intimacy. Theory Z outlines a complete transformation of the motivational principles underlying high performance organization and implies a revolutionary change in management practices. The main characteristic features of the theory are as follows:

i. Long term employment
ii. Collective responsibility
iii. Seniority based Rewards
iv. Implicit, informal control with explicit, formalized measures.
v. Collective decision making
vi. Emphasis on self discipline
vii. Slow evaluation and promotion
viii. Moderately specialized careers

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2.6 APPLICATION OF MOTIVATION:

There are many areas where motivation can be applied, in Human Resources Management (HRM). The first area of HRM is job design, in which traditional concepts like job engineering, job enlargement and job rotation are now replaced by job enrichment approach, thanks to Herzberg's two factor hygiene motivation model. Today, the job should be so designed that, psychological and motivational factor are included. This enables the employee to be highly motivated, as the quality of work life, is improved by means of more importance of the task and operational autonomy.

The next area of application of motivation is performance appraisal. The three appraisal systems are judgmental techniques, behavioural techniques and assessment techniques. The third area of application is Management by objectives (MBO) which is widely used in many organizations successfully and this is a successful motivating technique. Yet another tool of motivation is quality circles which help participative management where a subordinate shares decision-making power. This supports the theory of motivation-hygiene model of Herzberg, where the employees’ needs of achievement, recognition, growth and self-esteem are satisfied. In participative style of management, theory Y is adopted, the other areas of application are performance based compensation, two-tier pay systems, flexible benefits and alternative work schedules.
2.7 CONCLUSION

The questionnaire used for measuring the motivation level is based on Herzberg Two Factor Theory. It is based on hygiene factors and motivators. As per Herzberg theory, hygiene factors must be present and satisfactory before motivation can be activated, as otherwise motivation will not be very effective. People are motivated to work only when motivators are present.\(^{44}\) Two factor theory of motivation is based on the human needs. Herzberg’s motivation-hygiene theory is appealing and has been excessively tested. Herzberg’s two-factor theory had been challenged many times since it was first published, but in overall terms it had stood the best of time.\(^ {45}\)

This theory has contributed substantially in both the fields of work life, business as well as towards the education side.

The next chapter discusses the various factors motivating the women college teachers to be contended with their career to perform well in their jobs.
