Chapter-2
An Overview of Employee Job Satisfaction

Introduction

Human resource is considered to be the most valuable asset in any organisation. It is the sum-total of inherent abilities, aptitudes of the employed persons who comprise executives, supervisors and the rank and file employees. The human resources should be utilised to the maximum possible extent, in order to achieve individual and organisational goals. It is thus the employee’s performance which ultimately decides the attainment of goals. Hence, the employee’s performance is to a large extent influenced by motivation and job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction is all about how one feels about (or towards) one’s job. An employee who expresses satisfaction is said to have a positive attitude towards the job, unlike a dissatisfied employee who has a negative attitude towards the job. A person having negative attitude shows a personality disposition which is inclined to experience nervousness, tension, worry, upset and distress, whereas those with positive attitude will feel happy with themselves, others, and with their work.

Job satisfaction reflects the extent to which people find gratification or fulfillment in their work. Job satisfaction shows that personal factors such as an individual needs and aspirations determine his/her attitude, along with group and organisational factors such as relationships with co-workers and supervisors and working conditions, work policies, and compensation. A satisfied employee tends to be absent less often, to make positive contributions, and to stay with the organisation. The effect of job satisfaction goes beyond organisational setting. Satisfied employees are more likely to be satisfied citizens. These people will hold a more positive attitude towards life in general and make for a society of more psychologically healthy.

Job satisfaction has been considered as state of condition where people are:
1) Induced to do work efficiently and effectively;
2) Convinced to remain in the enterprise;
3) Prepared to act efficiently during contingencies;
4) prepared to welcome the changes without resistance;
5)Interested in promoting the image of the organisation; and
6) More happy and satisfied with their job. The level of job determines the job satisfaction.
People in higher level jobs find most of their needs satisfied than those in lower level. The job satisfaction is a collection of attitudes about specific factors of the job. Employee can be satisfied with some elements of the job while simultaneously dissatisfied with others. The relationship between man and work has attracted the attention of philosophers, scientists and novelists. A major part of man’s life is spent at the place of work. The nature and significance of work is important as it occupies so much of man’s life span. A persons’ job is more than just the obvious activities of shuffling papers, waiting on customers or driving a truck. Jobs require interaction with co-performers and bosses; following organisation rules and policies; meeting performance standards; living with working conditions that are often less than ideal and the like. Job to an individual is not only a means of earning a living but also serves other functions of individuals’ expectations of job and rewards that the job provides. This means that an employee’s assessment of how satisfied or dissatisfied he or she with his or her job is complex summation of number of discrete job elements.

This assessment of employees is very important to management because they affect organisational behaviour. Specific employee attitudes relating to job satisfaction and also towards organisational commitment are of major interest to the field of organisational behaviour. Therefore, in simple words job satisfaction is how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs. It is the extent to which people like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs.

A major part of man’s life is spent in work, which is a social reality and social expectation. Even then, only economic motive has never satisfied man. It is always of greater interest to know why man works and at which level and how he or she is satisfied with job.

2.1 Meaning and Definitions of Employee Job Satisfaction

Employee satisfaction is a function of perceived performance and expectations. It is a person’s feeling of pleasure or disappointment resulting from comparing a product’s outcome to his/her expectations. If the performance falls short

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of expectations, the employee is dissatisfied and if it matches the expectations, the employee is satisfied.

1. Job satisfaction is defined as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experience”\(^7\).

2. “...job satisfaction is defined as the amount of overall positive effect (or feelings) that individuals have towards their jobs”\(^8\).

3. “Job satisfaction is the amount of pleasure or contentment associated with a job. If you like your job intensely you will experience high job satisfaction. If you dislike your job intensely, you will experience job dissatisfaction”\(^9\).

4. “Job satisfaction is the favourableness or unfavourableness with which employees view their work”\(^10\).

Job satisfaction can be measured based on morale, opinion, attitude, work climate, and quality of work life.

2.2 Dimensions of Job satisfaction

There are three important dimensions to job satisfaction:

1. Job satisfaction refers to one’s feeling towards one’s job. It can only be inferred but not seen.

2. Job-Satisfaction is often determined by how well out-comes meet or exceed expectations. Satisfaction in one’s job means increased commitment in the fulfilment of formal requirements. There is greater willingness to invest personal energy and time in job performance.

3. The terms job satisfaction and job attitudes are typically used interchangeably. Both refer to effective orientations on the part of individuals towards their work roles which they are presently occupying. Positive attitudes towards the job are conceptually equivalent to job satisfaction and negative attitudes towards the job indicate job dissatisfaction\(^11\).

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2.3 The Nature and Scope of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is often thought to be synonymous with job attitudes, but is important to recognise that those with different theoretical orientations may use the term somewhat differently. Some measure job satisfaction in terms of the gratification of strong needs in the work place. Others see it as the degree of discrepancy between what a person expects to receive from work and what that person perceives is actually relieved. It can also be defined as the extent to which work is seen as providing those things that one considers conducive to one’s welfare. In yet another view, job satisfaction is considered a purely emotional response to job situation.

During the 1980s, however, it became apparent that, although one’s job situation is important to that person’s job satisfaction level, people who exhibit considerable job satisfaction at one point of time are likely to be happy with their job several years later, even if they have changed occupation or employer or both. Others, apparently remain dissatisfied across numerous work situations. It may be that some people continue to seek out situations where they will be satisfied, while others drawn towards situations where they will not. Or people’s attitudes about facets of their environment unrelated to their work situation may be manifested in ways that affect job satisfaction.

Closely linked to the psychological approach to motivation is the job satisfaction. The need and importance of fitting job to individual is highlighted. The characteristics of job which give the job satisfaction to the employees are the dependent variables of job satisfaction; some of them are listed by Locke and others. Important among them are given below.

1) **Challenging Job:** Job must have scope for application of skill, knowledge and initiative. Herzberg’s Satisfiers and Characteristic Theory are relevant here.

2) **Equitable Rewards:** More than the rewards, equity and fairness of reward is equally important. Equity theory of motivation is relevant.

3) **Supportive Working Conditions:** Supportive working conditions are equally important as the condition of work itself improves job satisfaction. Persons are interested to accept even a lower pay if the work place is near to their home.

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4) **Supportive Colleagues/Supervisors:** This is yet another aspect which satisfy an employee. Herzberg’s absence of dissatisfiers, Mc Clellands affiliation needs theory and Social Information Processing Model, etc. are relevant.  

**2.4 The Importance of Job Satisfaction**

When employees are allowed to operate freely, job satisfaction can contribute substantially to the organisational effectiveness. It can contribute to productive output in the form of high quantity and quality of products or services, as well as to organisational maintenance as represented by low absenteeism and turnover. Yet in a great many instances, aspects of the individual, the organisation, or the environment constrain the satisfaction-productivity relationship to the point where its practical importance is minimal. Ultimately stress may catch up with such a person and signs of poor corporate citizenship may appear, but such denials of natural satisfaction-output patterns can maintain themselves for long periods.

Hence, job satisfaction is often much more important to the individual than to the employing organisation. Individuals can change jobs, thereby obtaining more satisfying work. Organisation can shift people from job to job within the firm, but their capacity to move people from organisation to organisation is very limited. The obvious exception is when a firm provides outplacement assistance to its laid-off workers.

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2.5 Causes of Job Satisfaction

Organisational Factors: There are six major organisational factors which contribute to an employee’s attitude towards his or her job: pay, opportunities for promotion, the nature of work, policies of the organisation and working conditions.

Wages: Wages play a significant role in influencing job satisfaction. This is because of two reasons. First, money is an important instrument in fulfilling one’s needs. Secondly, employees often see pay as a reflection of management’s concern for them.

Employees want a pay system which is simple, fair, and in line with their expectations. When pay is seen as fair, based on job demands, individual skill level, and community pay standards, satisfaction is likely to result. What needs emphasis is that it is not the absolute amount paid that matters, rather it is one’s perception of fairness.

Promotions: Promotional opportunities affect job satisfaction considerably. The desire for promotion is generally strong among employees as it involves change in job content, pay, responsibility, independence, status and the like. An average employee in a typical government organisation can hope to get two or three promotions in his entire service, though chances of promotion are better in the private
sector. It is no surprise that the employee takes promotion as the ultimate achievement in his career and when it is realised, he feels extremely satisfied.

**Nature of work:** Most employees crave intellectual challenges on jobs. They tend to prefer being given opportunities to use their skills and abilities and being offered a variety of tasks, freedom, and feedback on how well they are doing. These characteristics make jobs mentally challenging. Jobs that have too little challenge create boredom. But too much challenge creates frustration and a feeling of failure. Under condition of moderate challenge, employees experience pleasure and satisfaction.

**Organisational policies and procedures:** Organisational policies include the basis for effecting promotions (seniority versus merit), transfer of people, foreign assignments, lay-off and retrenchment, appraisal and reward systems, motivational methods, skill based versus job based pay, and the like.

**Working Conditions:** Working conditions that are compatible with an employee’s physical comfort facilitates doing a good job which contributes in turn to job satisfaction. Temperature, humidity, ventilation, lighting and noise, hours of work, cleanliness of the work place, and adequate tools and equipment are the features which affect job satisfaction.

**Reward System:** Individual can be motivated for good performance by proper design of the rewards for good performance, which itself depends on design of their work environment and praise for their performance. Punishment for poor performance can also reduce the negative performance. Only thing, which is required, is the analysis of work situation to determine what causes workers to act the way they do and then initiate changes required eliminating troublesome areas and obstructions to performance. Specific goals are to set with workers participation and assistance. Prompt and regular feedback of results should be made available and performance improvements should be rewarded with recognition and prise. Even when performance does not equal goals, ways should be founded to help people and prise them for the good things they do. The psychologist B.F Skinner of Harvard developed theory called reinforcement Theory having positive and negative reinforcement. Perhaps the strength of the Skinner approach is that it is closely akin to requirements of good managing. It emphasizes removal of obstructions to performance, careful planning and organizing, control through feedback and the expansion of
communication. Clear contingencies between performance and rewards are describable in the recent scenario.

**Group Factors:**
Group factors wielding influence on job satisfaction include group size and supervision.

**Size:** The size of the group, larger the size of the group, lower the level of satisfaction. As size increases, opportunities for participation and social interaction decrease, so the ability of members to identify with the group’s performance. More members mean dissension, conflict, and groups and within groups. All these don not augur well for satisfaction of members.

**Supervision:** Perceived quality of supervision is another determinant of job satisfaction. Satisfaction tends to be high when people believe that their supervisors are more competent, have their best interests in mind, and treat them with dignity and respect. Communication is another aspect of supervision. Satisfaction of members tends to be high when they are able to communicate easily with their supervisor.

**Individual factors:**

**Respect:** When it’s lacking the respect level varies widely throughout the organisation. Rules and policies have a patronizing tone. Employees are often told what to do—instead of being free to figure things out for themselves. When it’s thriving Employees show respect for one another regardless of rank and title. When decision are made, there’s a thoughtful assessment of how each option may affect people are treated like adults. The golden rule is an implicit working principle throughout the organisation.

**Relevance:** When it’s lacking people often find themselves going through the motions of meetings, protocol, and tradition. The organisation is infested with valueless rules and policies. There’s a constant struggle between employees and the organisational bureaucracy. When it’s thriving the system allows employees to use their time efficiently; they can spend it on any activities that are relevant to the mission. Rules and red tape are kept to absolute minimum.

**Self Identity:** when it’s lacking great importance is placed on fitting in sameness rules. Requests for an “away” space are routinely turned down, even when the request is well justified. Differences are viewed as something to “deal with” – as opposed to something to value and “capitalize on”. When it’s thriving individuality is
encouraged. People are comfortable being themselves. The organisation respects the fact that people sometimes need their own space (even in this era of teams).

In addition to organisational factors, there are certain personal variables that have a bearing on job satisfaction.

First, several personality variables have been linked to job satisfaction among these are self-esteem, TYPE A behaviour pattern and the ability to withstand job stress. Stronger an individual is on these traits. More satisfied employee tends to be on his or her job.

Secondly, status tends to influence one’s job satisfaction. Generally speaking, the higher the position of an individual is in an organisational hierarchy, the more satisfied the individual tends to be. Dissatisfied employee may not stay at one place to reach higher positions in organisational hierarchy.

Thirdly, job satisfaction is related to the extent to which people perform jobs congruent with their interests.

Finally, job satisfaction has been found to be related to one’s general life satisfaction. The more the people are satisfied with aspects of their lives unrelated to their jobs, the more they also tend to be satisfied with their jobs. This effect has been explained in part, in terms of tendency for one type of satisfaction to “spill over” into other. For example, an individual experiencing happy family life tends to be satisfied in his or her job at work place too.15

Work itself: By and large, the work itself plays a major role in determining the level of job satisfaction. The job content has two aspects. One is the “job scope” that involves the amount of responsibility, work pace and the feedback provided. The higher the level of these factors, is the higher the job scope and thus higher the level of satisfaction. The second aspect is variety. It has been found that a moderate amount of variety is most effective. Excessive variety produces confusion and stress and too little variety causes monotony and fatigue that are dissatisfiers. Additionally, lack of autonomy and freedom over work methods and work pace creates a sense of helplessness. It is not very motivating for the employees to have their every step and

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every action determined by their supervisor. It is highly dehumanising and causes dissatisfaction.

Role ambiguity and role conflict are to be avoided because employees feel very unhappy if they do not know exactly what their task is and what is expected of them.\(^7\)

### 2.6 Factors Determining Job Satisfaction

There are number of factors which effect job satisfaction. Value system possessed by an individual and the culture supporting the value system in the organisation can be called as an important and basic for job satisfaction. However, some of the important factors that determine job satisfaction of the employees in the organisation are as under:

![Factors Determining Job Satisfaction Diagram](image)

**Figure No. 2.02 Factors Determining Job Satisfaction**

1) **Work Content:** Content of the work itself is a major source of satisfaction. The work must be challenging. It should lend itself opportunities to use employee skills, ability and experience. The content of the work should be encouraging and interesting and have variety inbuilt in it so that it is not boring. Positive feedback from the job and autonomy has been considered to be important for motivation of employees. Too tough or job having two little challenge brings frustration and feeling of failure. Hence, the job should be moderately tough so that the individual has to stretch his ability, imagination

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and skills. Once such job is completed successfully, the workers get a great sense of satisfaction.

2) **Pay and promotion policy:** Salary and wages play decisive part in the study of job satisfaction. Equitable rewards are multi-dimensional in nature. The benefits are varied in nature namely; pay, perks and rewards are associated with motivation of employees. Pay system and promotion policy of the organisation must be just, unambiguous and in line with the prevalent industry norms and employee expectations. Employee wages and salary must ensure him the social status and should be able to fulfil the expectations. Individual must perceive salary administration and promotion policy as being fair. Organisation should ensure that their policies are growth oriented and incremental in nature so that employees take additional responsibility voluntarily. Apart from financial benefits, organisation must provide adequate perks and non-financial benefits so that they are motivated and display high level of satisfaction.

3) **Supportive Working Conditions:** Working conditions have a modest but lasting effect on job satisfaction. Due to fast development of technology, it is necessary that the organisations are operating on upgraded technology, latest systems and procedures. The layout of workplace must be ideally suited for operational point of view and the employee should display great degree of satisfaction. The place should be neat and clean with necessary facilities as per Factories Act. Light, ventilation, cleanliness, enough space for work, immediate availability of supervision, adequate tools and generally good surrounding will definitely add to job satisfaction. If the work place were closer to home, it would add to employee retention.

4) **Work group:** The concept of work group and work teams is more prevalent today. Work group of multi-skilled persons with one goal will be able to function effectively if they are friendly and co-operative. The work group serves as a source of support, comfort, advice and assistance to individual worker. A good work group makes the job more enjoyable. The factor of work group support is essential for job satisfaction. If the reverse conditions prevail, the people may not be able to get along with each other and the level of job satisfaction will be reduced.
5) **Supervision:** Supervision is one of the moderate factors, which effect job satisfaction. Qualified supervisors should be available for advice, guidance and problem solving. Supervisors should be placed close to the place of work and should be available. They should take personal interest in the affairs of employees both on personal and at official level. Supervision is related to leadership. Such supervision improves the morale and job satisfaction of employees. The concept supervision has changed, and what is vogue in practice today is self-serviced teams and work group. The group prefer more freedom of work in relation to working hours, time management, frequent breaks and autonomy as long as job is completed in time. Flater organisational structure has come into practice and the step-in command structure has reduced. There is a participative management and work has to meet the established standards in terms of quality and quantity. The levels might have been reduced but not the value of supervision as factor of job satisfaction.\(^\text{18}\)

6) **Promotion Chances:** Promotional opportunities affect job satisfaction considerably. The desire for promotion is generally strong among employees as it involves change in job content, pay, responsibility, independence, status and the like. An average employee in a typical government organisation can hope to get two or three promotions in his/her entire service, though chances of promotion are better in the private sector. It is no surprise that the employee takes promotion as the ultimate achievement in his/her career and when it is realised, he/she feels extremely satisfied.

### 2.6 a. Demographic Factors

a) **Occupational level**

People in higher-level jobs experience the highest levels of satisfaction. One significant reason for this is that higher-levels jobs carry most prestige and self-esteem will be enhanced to the extent that other people view that their work is important. High-level jobs are satisfying for many. Other reasons too:

1. They offer excellent opportunities for the expression of the need for power and autonomy.

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2. They reduce financial stringency of the employees.
3. They offer task diversity and job enrichment.

According to their profession, people receive the greatest job satisfaction, followed by salaried workers. Factory workers are the least satisfied with their jobs. Porter substantiated the same fact when he made a job satisfaction study of managers at various levels in the hierarchy. He found that at each successive lower level the managers were less satisfied. Subjective evidence from a verity of sources also continues to suggest that blue-collar workers are often the victims of severe dissatisfaction.

b) Occupation Status

Occupational Status is related to, but not identical with, job satisfaction. It has been observed that employees’ are more dissatisfied in jobs that have less social status and prestige. Occupational status is always valued in terms of others opinion. It has been observed that employees who are working at the lower position seem to look for other job. Where they can have grater job satisfaction. It has been observed that employees are more dissatisfied in jobs that have less social status and prestige. These values are rather constant within a country, but they do vary among some countries and they probably vary from time to time within a country under different conditions.

c) Age

Age also affects job satisfaction among the employees, young employees feel dissatisfied with their jobs because they try to get better and better jobs while the employees of advanced age feel satisfied with their jobs.

The relationship between age of the employees and their satisfaction from the job is both complex and fascinating. Elderly workers are satisfied workers. Job satisfaction usually tends to be high when, people enter the work force; it plummets and then plateaus for several years (say for five to six years) up to the age of roughly thirty years, after which there will be gradual increase in satisfaction.

d) Family Conditions

Family conditions of the employees affect Job Satisfaction to great extent. The employees, who are satisfied with their family conditions and atmosphere, feel more satisfied with their work.

e) Number of Dependents

The more dependents one has, the less satisfaction he has with his job. Perhaps the stress of greater financial need brings about greater dissatisfaction with one’s job.
The more dependence one has, the less satisfaction he has with his job. The culture of the nation as well as of the state believes in “Joint Family”, so, naturally almost all the employees are having round about 3 to 4 dependents. It’s true that as the members of a family are more there would be greater financial requirement and up to that extent employees are dissatisfied.

f) Time and Service on Job

Job satisfaction is relatively high at the start, drops slowly to the fifth or eighth year, then rise again with more time spent on the job. The highest satisfaction is reached after twentieth year.

Employees sometimes serve as “matchmakers,” bringing together different individuals and groups to promote learning, relationship-building, systemic thinking, and (ultimately) improvement. People who want to lead and influence in positive ways have an open field for doing so.

2.6 b. Personal Factors

In addition to these organisational determinants of job satisfaction, there are also several different personal factors that “influence this important work related attitude. First, several different personality variables have been linked to job satisfaction. Moreover, people who are satisfied with their jobs tend to remain longer than those who are dissatisfied. Not surprisingly, the most dissatisfied employees probably do not stay long enough to ever reach the highest positions of their organisation. Third, job satisfaction is related to the extent to which people are performing jobs congruent with their interests. The better their interests, the more satisfied they are with their job; job satisfaction has been found to be related to ones general life satisfaction.

Specialization

Specialization has no doubt resulted in greater efficiency, but it has also contributed to dissatisfaction. Repetitiveness of task is found to be boring and monotonous by workers, Walker and Guest found that workers who carried out a number of operations expressed satisfaction with their job. A technological change led management to enlarge their jobs by increasing the number of duties; all the workers studies reported that their new jobs were much more interesting. Vroom and Maier however, think that greater variety of tasks may not increase satisfaction unless the task form a unified, integrated and meaningful whole. Enlarging the job by adding
diverse unrelated activities or rotating the worker from one job to another unrelated job may not have intended positive consequence on their satisfaction. The relationship between job specialization and job satisfaction is complex. Specialization leads to greater efficiency in general, but at the same time it lower the job satisfaction to some people. The following diagram represents the complex relationship between job satisfaction and job specialization.

**Level of Education**

Level of education affects the feeling of Job Satisfaction among the employees, educated employees feel more satisfied with their jobs than uneducated employees. There is great deal of conflicting evidence on the relationship between education and job satisfaction so no generalization can be made. Organisational policies on advancement in relation to education are important keeping the occupational level of education of employees and their satisfaction. One realistic explanation could be that people with higher educational levels have a tendency to set higher expectations from their jobs. Dissatisfaction will be more when an educated person is employed in lower range.

**Intelligence**

The more intelligent are highly discontented about the working conditions although physically it was the most ideal workplace to work in. It appears that the relation of intelligence to job satisfaction depends on the level and range of intelligence and the challenge of the job.

**Health**

Health of the employees is an important factor affecting job satisfaction among the employees having sound health feel satisfied with their jobs. Physical feature or another that keeps the person from doing a strain kind of work some people are not strong enough to load heavy packages onto trucks, others are not athletic enough to play professional sports, and still others might lack the ability and stamina needed to be a fire-fighter. Thus, although we all may be handicapped in some way, certain physical conditions tend to be the focus of widely held prejudicial attitudes.

**Interests**

The employees, who take interests in their work, feel more satisfied with their work. It is observed that the employees were more dissatisfied if the academic qualification does not match with the nature of job.
**Personality exclusive of intelligence**

One criterion of personality is the existence of neurotic behaviour. Neurotic tendency lead to job dissatisfaction only when the job itself is one of a ‘grater’ strain. Another possible criterion of personality is general satisfaction with non-job conditions.

**Training**

Arrangement of training also satisfies and motivates employee because trained employees can do easily and more efficiently. Advancement carrier is possible in someone’s earlier years only and this chance can be grabbed by all who passes departmental examinations.

**2.6 c. Economic Factors**

**Performance based systems**

Organisational reward systems have traditionally either a fixed salary of hourly rate system or an incentive system. Fixed rewards can be tied directly to performance through merit pay system, whereby people get different pay raises at the end of the year depending on their overall job performance. Many organizations are experimenting with various kinds of incentive systems, which attempt to reward employees in proportion to their accomplishment. Four popular incentive systems include profit sharing, gain sharing, lump sum bonuses, and pay for knowledge.

**Proper Remuneration/Pay**

Management has grandly over emphasized the importance of pay as a factor in job satisfaction. Most studies have found that pay ranks well below security, type of work etc. The relative importance of pay will probably change with the labour market, economic conditions and with employee’s beliefs about the job situation. Remuneration is the main base of job satisfaction. It is expected that benefits should be fairly distributed. A good fair system is considered as an important determinant of job satisfaction. If the attractive and proper remuneration is given to the employees for their job, they will feel more satisfied; it will give him more satisfaction.

**Equitable/Fair Rewards**

Employees want pay systems and promotions and policies that they perceive as being just. Unambiguous, and in line with their expectations. When pay is seen as fair based on job demands, individual skill level, and community pay standards, satisfaction is likely to result. An employee seeks fair promotion policies and
practices. Promotions provide opportunities for personal growth, more responsibility and increased social states.

Employees are more satisfied when they feel they are rewarded fairly for the work they do; it is not only that rewards help to bring up the job satisfaction level of employees but rewards for genuine contributions to the work and organisation consistency in the reward policies is what that boosts employees moral which is again directly related to job satisfaction as an added benefit or what we call fringe benefits such as subsidy on LPG, free medical services to family members, free transportation to local area etc., employees who are awarded fringe benefits experiences less stress.

**Security**

An average employee will think of job security first rather than other factors to get settle in life. The employees secured in job are more satisfied in their job. But security is of less important to the better educated person, perhaps because there is not so much fear of layoff in the kind of jobs that the highly educated obtain, or the highly educated are justifiably more confident of being able to find other jobs if necessary.

**Benefits**

Benefits such as housing, canteen etc are some of the personal benefits that have been ranked next to pay. But highly educated people having good pay give more importance to benefits and facilities.

Hence, in a nutshell it can be summarized that job satisfaction is the result of effect of so many factors. The terms are highly personalized, as the level of satisfaction differs from time to time and situation. Moreover, the attitude of any employee affects a lot. One gets satisfaction in any of the activities depending upon how he/she perceives the situation and what is expected in exchange of effort. There may be the difference between two employees, working at a different place and one different cadre. It all depends upon viewing of the situation and the effect of rest of the factors which are crucial at any point of time.

**2.7 Job Satisfaction and its Relationships**

**2.7 a. Attitudes and Job Satisfaction**

Attitude measures various aspects of work and peoples’ jobs. This measure is not analogous to a job analysis, where the actual tasks and behaviours required for those tasks are delineated. Rather, attitude scales measure the perceptions of a given position. These perceptions can affect how well individuals perform in their positions.
There are numerous factors that affect job satisfaction which can be measured, and include such issues as, role clarity, role conflict, autonomy and participation in decision making.

Role clarity is knowledge of exactly what behaviour is expected in ones’ job, e.g., knowing what ones’ responsibilities are, and by knowing beforehand ones’ responsibilities one can perform efficiently and effectively which ultimately leads to job satisfaction.

Role conflict is the extent to which two or more pressures occur together such that complying with one would make doing the other more difficult e.g., bending a rule or policy in order to carry out an assignment. If one has to perform without facing any role conflict, they feel more job satisfaction than others.

Autonomy is the extent to which employees have a say in the scheduling of their tasks, as well as decisions regarding the procedures to be followed and equipment to be used in their work, e.g., one is able to act independently of their superiors in performing their job function. The greater is the degree of autonomy and responsibilities, the higher satisfaction tends to be. Hence, it has been found that autonomy also affects the level of job satisfaction.

Participation in decision making is the extent to which employees participate in setting the goals and policies of the organisation, e.g., if one can help in making decisions which affect their work. If employees are consulted from time to time they generally feel that they know much about their jobs and experience a feeling of contentment, which provides them job satisfaction, which ultimately leads to enhance the morale of the individual.

2.7 b. Moral and Job Satisfaction

The morale and job satisfaction are not interchangeable. Job satisfaction is the result of various favorable attitudes the individual holds towards his job, towards related factors and towards life in general. Morale is the composite expression of the attitudes of the various individuals employed by the organisation which is ultimately reflected through the generated feeling of the individual employed both as an individual as well as the member his work group. It is generated by the group and its leadership through the development and maintenance of adequate inter-personal relationship. It is important, therefore, to view industrial or organisational morale within the context of reality of organisation where the leaderships operate through
management/supervision at all levels and functions. Again the effectiveness of such leadership depends on the overall managerial approach, the personnel policy developed on the basis of that, and the uniformity and consistency of the personnel practices which are followed in the organisation.

Moral and job satisfaction of employees can be thought to be in a circular relationship continuously – affecting each other and in turn affecting, also in circular relationship, the attitudes and competence of employees at work. To elaborate further, if the process of the job is technically sound and the employees are dealt with and related properly, then only the satisfactory performance will result in adequate to improve the morale and job satisfaction. If, on the other hand, the process of performance of the job is technically sound but the way of dealing and relating with people is uncongenial, the performance in short run may still be technically satisfying but humanly will inevitably lead to low morale and job dissatisfaction. This is bound to affect the performance adversely in the long run. In this condition, the employees are apt to feel that they are operating in less freedom and excessive control 19.

2.7 c. Job Satisfaction and Performance

Job satisfaction is a key driver of job performance which is linked to valued rewards. Higher performers receive more rewards and are satisfied than low-performing employees who receive less reward. Job satisfaction influence employee’s motivation but does not affect performance in jobs. Where employees have little control over their output. Job satisfaction contribute substantially to organisational growth, in the form of high quality and quality of services, reduce absenteeism and employee turnover.

Employee satisfaction is a function of perceived performance and expectations. It is a persons’ feeling of pleasure or disappointment resulting from comparing the service outcome to his/her expectations. If the performance falls short of expectations, the employee is dissatisfied and if it matches the expectations, the employee is satisfied.

2.7 d. Job Satisfaction and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)

The job satisfaction should be a major determinant of an employees’ organisational citizenship behaviour. Satisfied employees would be more likely to talk positively about the organisation, help others, and go beyond the nominal expectations in their job. Moreover, satisfied employees might be more prone to go beyond the call of duty because they want to reciprocate their positive experiences.

There is a modest overall relationship between job satisfaction and OCB. But satisfaction is unrelated to OCB when fairness is controlled for. What does this mean? Basically, job satisfaction comes down to conceptions of fair outcomes, treatment, and procedures. If the employee doesn’t feel like his supervisor, that organisation’s procedures, or pay policies are fair, his job satisfaction is likely to suffer significantly. However, when he perceives organisational processes and outcomes to be fair, trust is developed. And when he trusts his employer, he will be more willing to voluntarily engage in behaviour that goes beyond his formal job requirements.

2.7 e. Job Satisfaction and Customer Satisfaction

The employees in service jobs often interact with customers. Since the management of service organisation should be concerned with pleasing those customers, it is reasonable to ask: is employee satisfaction related to positive customer outcomes? For frontline employees who have regular contact with customers, the answer is “yes”. The evidence indicates that satisfied employees increase customer satisfaction and loyalty. Why? In service organisations, customer retention and defection are highly dependent on how front-line employees deal with customers. Satisfied employees are more likely to be friendly, update, and responsive for which customers appreciate. And because satisfied employees are less proven to turnover, customers are more likely to encounter familiar faces and receive experienced service. These qualities build customer satisfaction and loyalty. In addition, the relationship seems to apply in reverse: dissatisfied customers can increase an employee’s job dissatisfaction. Employees who have regular contact with customers report that rude, thoughtless, or unreasonably demanding customers adversely affect the employee’s job satisfaction.20

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2.7 f. Satisfaction and Managerial Implications

Job satisfaction has behavioural implications, particularly on such aspects as absenteeism, turnover, and unionisation. A clear understanding of the causes and consequence of job satisfaction can help better diagnose and solve employee problems. In particular, one must be clear that:

i) Employee dissatisfaction is frequently caused by what is perceived to be low pay and boring work;

ii) Employee dissatisfaction is largely influenced by the feelings of inequality;

iii) Individual satisfaction or dissatisfaction is more important, than overall satisfaction or dissatisfaction of employees."

2.7 g. Job Satisfaction and Life Satisfaction

The job satisfaction is strongly related to life satisfaction, or the degree to which employees feel a sense of happiness with their lives. The connection between job satisfaction and life satisfaction makes sense given how much of employee’s lives are spent at work.

2.8 Consequences of Job Satisfaction

2.8 a. Job Satisfaction and Productivity: The relationship between satisfaction and productivity is not definitely established. However, in the long run job satisfaction leads to increased productivity.

On the other hand, job performance leads to job satisfaction and not the other way round. An employee who performs well in his or her job gets both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards which will lead to his or her satisfaction. A poor performer will feel worse about his incompetence and will receive fewer rewards. He or she will be less satisfied with his or her work experiences.

However, there are some conditions under which high productivity more clearly leads to job satisfaction. One condition is that the employees perceive the intrinsic and extrinsic rewards are contingent upon their productivity. The second condition is that the extrinsic rewards (pay, for example) be distributed equitably. Inequitable distribution fails to convince the employee about the close correlation between hard work and rewards.

However, the adage “a happy worker is a productive worker” is not always wrong. True, there may not be a relationship between job satisfaction and productivity, but performance may be affected indirectly by absenteeism or turnover which is related (negatively) to satisfaction.

2.8 b. Job Satisfaction and Employee Turnover

High employee turnover is considerable concern for employers because it disrupts normal operations, causes morale problems for those who stick on, and increases the cost involved in selecting and training replacements. The employer does whatever possible to minimise turnover, making the employees feel satisfied on their jobs.

Unlike the relationship between satisfaction and productivity, the connection between job satisfaction to employee turnover is established beyond doubt. It has been demonstrated that workers who have relatively low levels of job satisfaction are the most likely to quit their jobs and that organisational units with the lowest average satisfaction levels tend to have the highest turnover rates.

However, the withdrawal behaviour of employees is modified by certain factors. Loyalty to the organisation is one such. Some employees cannot imagine themselves working elsewhere, however dissatisfied they are in their present jobs. Availability of other places of employment also influences turnover. If greener pastures are available, an employee does not mind going in search of them, notwithstanding the present level of job satisfaction he or she enjoys.

2.8 c. Job Satisfaction and Absenteeism

Correlation of satisfaction to absenteeism is also proved. Workers who are dissatisfied are more likely to take “Mental Health” days, i.e., days off not due to illness or personal business. Simply stated, absenteeism is high when satisfaction is low. As in turnover, absenteeism is subject to modification by certain factors. The degree to which people feel that their jobs are important has a moderating influence on their absence. Employees who feel that their work is important tend to clock in regular attendance. Besides, it is important to remember that while high job satisfaction will not necessarily result in low absenteeism, low satisfaction is likely to bring about high absenteeism.
2.8 d. Satisfaction and Safety

Poor safety practices are a negative consequence of low satisfaction level. When people are discouraged about their jobs, company, and supervisors, they are more liable to experience accidents. An underlying reason for such accidents is that discouragement may take one’s attention away from the task at hand. In attention it leads directly to the accidents. For example, many hand injuries from power tools can be attributed to the operator not paying careful attention.

2.8 e. Satisfaction and Job Stress

Job stress is the body’s response to any job related factor that threatens to disturb the person’s equilibrium. In the process of experiencing stress is the employee’s inner state change. Prolonged stress can cause the employee serious ailments such as heart disease, ulcer, blurred vision, lower back pain, dermatitis, and muscle aches.

Chronic job-dissatisfaction is a powerful source of job stress. The employee may see no satisfactory short-term solution to escaping this type of stress. An employee trapping in a dissatisfying job may with draw by such means as high absenteeism and tardiness; or the employee may quit.

Employees under prolonged stress stemming from job-dissatisfaction often consume too much alcohol, tobacco and drugs. These employees are costly to the management in terms of time lost due to frequent absences and increased payments towards medical reimbursements.

2.8 f. Unionisation

It is proved that job-dissatisfaction is a major cause for unionisation. Dissatisfaction with wages, job security, fringe benefits, chances for promotion and treatment by supervisors are reasons which make employees join unions. Another dimension is that job-dissatisfaction can have an impact on the tendency to take action within the union, such as filing grievances or striking.

2.8 g. Other Effects of Job Satisfaction

In addition to the above, it has been claimed that satisfied employees tend to have better mental and physical health and learn new job-related tasks more quickly.

2.8 h. Two Faces of Job Satisfaction

An often overlooking dimension of job satisfaction is its relationship to employee health. Employees who are dissatisfied with their jobs are prone to health
setbacks ranging from headaches to heart disease. The effect of job satisfaction goes beyond organisational setting. When employees are happy with their jobs, their life will be better off. In contrast, the dissatisfied employee carries that negative attitude home. Satisfied employees are more likely to be satisfied citizens. These people will hold a more positive attitude towards life in general and make the society more happy psychologically healthy people.

Thus, job satisfaction helps management in terms of reduced turnover, reduced absenteeism, reduced job stress and reduced medical and life insurance costs. Additionally, there are benefits for society in general. Satisfied employees are happy and better citizens.

However, job satisfaction has been over emphasised. Its benefits to the management are contingent upon fulfillment of several other variables. Take turnover for instance. Job satisfaction, may not directly lead to reduced turnover. Other factors like age, financial position, number of dependants and the like will have their own say.

2.9 Consequences of Job Dissatisfaction

Job satisfaction or dissatisfaction is of great concern to management since there is a relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. Job dissatisfaction produces low morale among workers and low morale at work is highly undesirable. Accordingly, managers must be constantly watching for any signs of low morale and job dissatisfaction and take corrective action as soon as possible. Some of the indicators of low morale and satisfaction are:

2.9 a. Employee Unrest: Unrest is a general condition of unhappiness with job and may manifest itself in a number of ways. The worker may not attend to his job properly, may be involved in day dreaming, be forgetful or just may not care. He may start complaining about work conditions and find faults with everything that goes on in the work environment. He may register formal grievances excessively, and start coming late to work or be absent from work periodically. Sometimes, this unrest becomes so frustrating that it may lead to such undesirable habits as excessive drinking. At its extreme, unrest may affect the mental health and well being of the worker. If this unrest affects a sufficient number of workers they may take collective action such as go-slows, work stoppages, strikes and other allied group actions.

2.9 b. Absenteeism: Job satisfaction is highly related to absenteeism. Studies have found that less satisfied employees are more likely to be absent from work due to “avoidable reasons”. This is known as voluntary absenteeism as against involuntary absenteeism due to illness or other emergency reasons that are unavoidable and are not related to job satisfaction23.

2.9 c. Tardiness: Similar to absenteeism, tardiness is also generally believed to reflect job dissatisfaction. It is assumed that this tardiness is not due to some explainable reason such as getting children ready for school, but only due to the fact that employees really do not care much for the job. This is indicated by such employee tardiness as spending excessive time in rest rooms, lingering in the parking lot before coming to work, spending too much time on personal telephone calls, and in general, an attitude of passing time at work rather than spending time for useful productivity.

2.9 d. Employee Turnover: High employee turnover disrupts normal operations and continuously replacing the employees who leave, is costly and both technically and economically undesirable. According to Arnold and Feldman24, organisational units with the lowest average satisfaction levels tend to have the highest turnover rates.

Managerial concern ought to be for such turnover that is primarily the result of dissatisfactory organisational climate. There are other reasons for voluntary turnover such as alternative places of employment, geographical constraints, family responsibilities, highly marketable employee’s special skills and simply an environment change25. Additionally, if such turnover is among poor performers, than the change may be in the best interests of the organisation.

2.9 e. Union Activity: Satisfied employees are generally not interested in unions and they do not perceive them as necessary. The evidence is strong that job dissatisfaction is a major cause of unionisation26. Furthermore, the employees feel that individually they are unable to influence changes that would result in the elimination


of such factors that cause job dissatisfaction. This job dissatisfaction is primarily caused by lower level needs in Maslow’s model of hierarchical needs, such as working condition and job security rather than higher level needs such as creativity or challenging opportunities. The level of union activities is related to level of job dissatisfaction. Lower levels of jobs dissatisfaction may result in grievances while higher levels of job dissatisfaction may result in employee strikes.

2.9 f. Response to Job Dissatisfaction

The last thing about job satisfaction is the ways through which employees express their job dissatisfaction. There are several ways of expressing employee dissatisfaction. For example, employees can complain, be insubordinate, steal organisational property or avoid a part of their work responsibilities. Most serious is quitting the organisation itself.

a) Exit: Represents behaviour directed towards leaving the organisation. Also includes looking for a new position as well as resigning.

b) Voice: Actively and constructively attempting to improve conditions, includes suggesting improvements, discussing problems with superiors, and some forms or union activity.

c) Loyalty: Passively but optimistically waiting for conditions to improve, includes speaking for the organisation in the face of the external criticism and trusting the management and the organisation to do the right things.

d) Neglect: Passively allowing conditions to worsen, includes chronic absenteeism, reduced effort, and increased error rate.

2.10 Guidelines for Promoting Job Satisfaction

In view of the negative consequences of dissatisfaction, it makes sense to consider ways of raising satisfaction and preventing dissatisfaction on the job. Based on what views of scientists, here are several suggestions.

2.10 a. Make jobs fun: People are more satisfied with jobs they enjoy doing than those that are dull and boring. Although some jobs are intrinsically boring, it’s possible to infuse some level of fun into almost any job. Some creative techniques that have been used include passing bouquets of flowers from one person’s desk to another’s every half an hour and taking fun pictures of others on the job and posting

them on the bulletin board. For some interesting examples of things companies can do to make the workplace fun.

2.10 b. Pay people fairly: People who believe that their organisation’s pay systems are inherently unfair tend to be dissatisfied with their jobs. This not only applies to salary and hourly pay but also to fringe benefits. Consistent with value theory, they feel fairly paid and when people are given opportunities to select the fringe benefits they most desire, their job satisfaction tends to rise.

2.10 c. Match people to jobs that fit their interests: The more people find that they are able to fulfil their interests while in the jobs, the more satisfied they will be with those jobs. With this in mind, the modern organisations offer individualized counselling to employees so that their personal and professional interests can be identified and matched.

2.10 d. Avoid boring, repetitive jobs: Most people tend to find little satisfaction in performing highly boring, repetitive jobs. In keeping with two-factor theory, people are far more satisfied with jobs that allow them to achieve success by freely taking control over how are going to do things.

Although promoting job satisfaction is worthwhile all the time, it is especially important during tough economic times when confidence about the future abounds. Moreover, maintaining job satisfaction during tough times is made especially challenging by the fact that managers are likely to be on edge themselves. With this in mind, it is worthwhile to pay close attention to the special steps to promote job satisfaction when times are tough and people are likely to feel most at risk for losing their jobs.

29 Rochman, B (2001, July). OK, so you don’t have to be a complete SOB. E-Company, pp. 56-57.
Figure No. 2.03 Causes and Consequences of Job Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction

Sources

Wages
Nature of Work
Chances of Promotion
Supervision
Work Group
Working condition

Job Satisfaction

Consequences

Reduced Turnover
Reduced Absences
Reduced Job stress and Reduced Medical and Insurance Costs
Happy and Better Citizens

When favourable

Unionisation
Exit

Insubordination Stealing Property Shirk Responsibilities

When unfavourable

Job Dissatisfaction

2.11 Ways of Measuring Job Satisfaction

The most common ways of measurement include rating scales, critical incidents, interviews, and action tendencies.

2.11 a. Rating Scales

The most common approach for measuring job-satisfaction is the use of rating scales. These scales fall into two general categories. One is called tailor-made scale, which is constructed for a particular setting or a project. The second set comprises standardised scale before it is used, which has been developed to establish group norms on the scale and to ensure reliability and validity of the measuring instrument. It is the tailor made scale which is frequently used in practice.

One of the most popular standardised scales is the job descriptive index (JDI) developed by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin. The JDI has separate scales for satisfaction with pay, promotion, supervision, work and co-workers.

It has been used with a large scale variety of employee samples, and norms are provided for employees according to their age, sex, education, income, and type of community. Requiring only 10-15 minutes administering, JDI has been widely used by behaviour researchers over the years and provides a broad picture of employee attitudes towards the major component of jobs.

2.11 b. Critical incidents: The critical incident approach to the measurement of job satisfaction was developed by Herzberg and his associates in their research on the two factor theory of motivation. Employees were asked to describe incidents on their job when they were particularly satisfied or dissatisfied. These incidents were then content analysed in determining which aspect were closely related to positive and negative attitudes.

2.11 c. Interviews: Employees are interviewed individually and the responses reveal their satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

2.11 d. Action tendencies: These represent the inclinations, people have to avoid or approach certain things. By gathering information about how they feel like acting with respect to their jobs.

2.11 e. Likert Scale

This method of standardised survey was developed by Likert in 1932. In this, an individual is asked to indicate agreement or disagreement with job factors. The individual is also required to state how strongly he or she agrees or disagrees with a
statement. This is normally done on a 5-point scale. The normal practice is to incorporate the various statements in a questionnaire. The subject is asked to respond to these statements, indicating the extent of his or her agreement or disagreement.

A value may be given to each response category in order to produce a numerical score, and the different scores in each category may be added together to arrive at a total score. A high overall score can be viewed as positive, whereas a low score indicates negative.

2.12. A Satisfied employee says

- I like the nature of work that I do
- My work gives me a sense of accomplishment
- The amount of work I am expected to do influences my overall attitude about the job most positively.
- My physical working conditions influence my overall attitude about my job most positively.
- The way my boss treated me and supervised me influenced my overall attitude about my job.
- I feel this organisation has bright prospects.
- My organisation is making the changes necessary to compete effectively.
- I understand our business strategy.
- I see and understand the link between my job and organisation strategy.
2.13 Theories of Job Satisfaction

2.13 a. Two-Factor Theory

Fredrick Herzberg and his associates developed the two-factor theory in the late 1950s and early 1960s. Herzberg’s motivation-Hygiene theory, Herzberg’s original study consisted of interviews with 203 accountants and engineers, chosen because of their growing importance in the business world, from different industries in the Pittsburgh area of America. He used the critical incident method. Subjects were asked to relate times when they felt exceptionally good or exceptionally bad about their present job or any previous job. They were asked to give reasons and description of the sequence of events giving rise to that feeling. Responses to the interviews were generally consistent, and revealed that there were two different sets or factors affecting motivation and work. This led to the two-factor theory of motivation and job satisfaction.

One set of factors are those which, if absent, cause dissatisfaction. These factors are related to job context, they are concerned with environment and extrinsic to the job itself. These factors are the ‘hygiene’ factors (analogous to the medical term meaning preventive and environmental) or ‘maintenance’ factors. They serve to prevent dissatisfaction.

The other set of factors are those which, if present, serve to motivate the individual to superior effort and performance. These factors are related to job content of the work itself. **They are the motivators or growth factors.** The strength of these factors will affect feelings of satisfaction or no satisfaction, but not dissatisfaction.

The hygiene factors can be related roughly to Maslow’s lower-level needs and the motivators to Maslow’s higher-level needs. Proper attentions to the hygiene factors will tend to prevent dissatisfaction, but does not by itself create a positive attitude are motivation to work. It brings motivation up to a zero state. The opposite of dissatisfaction is not satisfaction but, simply, no dissatisfaction. To motivate workers to give their best the manager must give proper attention to the motivators or growth factors.

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30 Herzberg, Fredic; Bernord Mausner and Barbara Snyderman, the Motivation to Work, John Wiley, New York, 1959.
Herzberg emphasises that hygiene factor is not a ‘second class citizen system’. They are as important as the motivators, but for different reasons. Hygiene factors are necessary to avoid unpleasantness at work and to deny unfair treatment. ‘Management should never deny people proper treatment at work’. The motivators to what people are allowed to do and the quality of human experience at work. They are the variables which actually motivate people.\(^{32}\)

**Figure No. 2.04 Herzberg’s Two - Factor theory**

*Representation of Herzberg’s Two - Factor theory*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HYGIENE OR MAINTENANCE FACTORS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Salary, Status</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Security, Personal Life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working conditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level and quality of supervision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company policy and administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inter personal relations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THE DISSATISFIERS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MOTIVATION AND JOB SATISFACTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sense of achievement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature of the work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal growth and advancement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THE SATISFIERS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MOTIVATOR OR GROWTH FACTOR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

According to Herzberg, today’s motivators are tomorrow’s hygiene because the latter stop influencing the behaviour of persons when they get them. Accordingly, one’s hygiene may be the motivators of another.

However, Herzberg’s model is labelled with the following criticism also:

1. People generally tend to take credit themselves when things go well. They blame failure on the external environment.

2. The theory basically explains job satisfaction, not motivation.

3. Even job satisfaction is not measured on an overall basis. It is not unlikely that
a person may dislike part of his/her job, still thinks the job acceptable.

4. This theory neglects situational variable to motivate an individual\textsuperscript{33}.

**Departure from the traditional view**

Traditionally, job satisfaction and dissatisfaction were viewed as opposite ends
of a single continuum. When certain things are present on a job - good pay,
opportunity for growth, healthy working environment-the employee will be satisfied.
When they are absent, he/she is dissatisfied. The absence of dissatisfaction is
satisfaction.

Herzberg’s findings indicate that dissatisfaction is not simply the opposite of
satisfaction or motivation. One can feel no dissatisfaction and yet not be satisfied.
Satisfaction and dissatisfaction appear to be somewhat independent. They are not
viewed as symmetrical items on a single scale; rather, they are viewed as attributes of
different scales. The factors that cause dissatisfaction are different from those that
result in satisfaction. Satisfaction is affected by motivators and dissatisfaction by
hygiene factors\textsuperscript{34}.

Herzberg, two-factor theory classifies all the work related factors into two
categories. First category contains factors that are known as hygiene factors. These
factors prevent dissatisfaction but do not motivate. Some of these factors are wages
and benefits, working conditions, organisational rules and policies, cordial relations
with peers and superiors, job security and so on. These factors are designed to avoid
damage to efficiency or morale and are not expected to stimulate positive growth.
Motivational factors on the other hand have a positive influence on morale,
satisfaction, efficiency and higher productivity, these are the type of jobs one enjoys,
recognition for employee input and performance, a feeling of accomplishment,
increased responsibility and authority and growth and advancement with the
organisation\textsuperscript{35}.

\textsuperscript{33} Khanka SS; Human Resource Management (Text and Cases) Published by S Chand and Company
\textsuperscript{34} Rao VSP, Human Resource Management Text and Cases, Published by Anurag Jain for Excel
\textsuperscript{35} Jit S Chandan, Organisational Behaviour, Third edition, VIKAS Publishing House, Reprint, 2010,
p.68.
Evaluation of the Two-Factor Theory

Like the need hierarchy theory, the hygiene-motivation theory has been the subject of appreciation and criticism. The criticisms of the theory are the following:

a) The procedure that Herzberg adopted is limited by its methodology. When things are going well, people claim credit for themselves. Contrarily, they blame failure on the extrinsic environment.

b) The reliability of Herzberg’s methodology is questioned. Since, the raters have to make interpretations; it is possible that they may contaminate the findings by interpreting one response in one manner while treating another similar response differently.

c) The theory, to the degree that it is valid, provides an explanation of job satisfaction. It is not really a theory of motivation.

d) No overall measure of satisfaction was utilised. In other words, a person may dislike part of his job, yet think the job is acceptable.

e) The theory is inconsistent with previous research. The motivation hygiene theory ignores situational variables.

f) Herzberg assumes that there is a relationship between satisfaction and productivity. But the research methodology he used looked only a satisfaction, not at productivity. To make such research relevant, one must assume high relationship between satisfaction and productivity.

g) The two-factors are not actually distinct. Both motivators and Hygiene’s contribute to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

h) There has been a tremendous emphasis on motivators. The importance of hygiene factors has been ignored.

There are certain merits of the theory. One of the most significant contributions of Herzberg’s work was the tremendous impact it had on stimulating thought, research and experimentation on the topic of motivation at work. Before 1959, little research had been carried out in the area of work motivation and the research that did exist was largely fragmentary. Maslow’s work on the need hierarchy theory and others were largely concerned with laboratory based findings, or clinical observations and neither had seriously addressed the problems of the workplace at
that time. Herzberg filled this void by specially calling attention to the need for increased understanding of the role of motivation in organisation.\(^{36}\)

Second, Herzberg’s theory offers specific action recommendation for managers to improve motivational levels. Herzberg cleared many misconceptions concerning motivation. For example, he argued that money should not be viewed as the most potent force on the job. He advanced a strong case for “content” factors which have a considerable bearing on behaviour. According to Herzberg, it is these context factors and not money that are primarily related to work motivation.

Third, the job design technique of job enrichment is the contribution of Herzberg. Finally, Herzberg has two-dimensionalised the needs, instead of five as was done by Maslow.

All things considered, it may be stated that Herzberg’s theory has been widely read and few managers are unfamiliar with his recommendations. The increased popularity since the mid-1960 of vertically expanding jobs to allow workers greater responsibility in planning and controlling their work can be largely attributed to Herzberg’s findings and recommendations.\(^{37}\)

**Table No. 2. 01 The Differences between the Two Models are presented**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issues</th>
<th>Maslow</th>
<th>Herzberg</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Type of theory</td>
<td>Descriptive</td>
<td>Prescriptive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The satisfaction performance relationship</td>
<td>Unsatisfied needs energise behaviour, this behaviour causes performance</td>
<td>Needs cause performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effect of need satisfaction</td>
<td>A satisfied need is not a motivator (except self-actualisation)</td>
<td>A satisfied (hygiene) need is not a motivator, other satisfied need are motivators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need order</td>
<td>Hierarchy of needs</td>
<td>No hierarchy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effect of pay</td>
<td>Pay is a motivator if it satisfied needs</td>
<td>Pay is not a motivator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effect of needs</td>
<td>All needs are motivators at various times</td>
<td>Only some needs are motivators Micro view – deals primarily with work related motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>View of motivation</td>
<td>Macro view - deals with all aspects of existence.</td>
<td>Probably more relevant to white-collar and professional workers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worker level</td>
<td>Relevant for all workers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{36}\) Steers R M and Porter L.W op. cit, p.5.

2.13 b. Maslow’s Need Hierarchy Theory

The need hierarchy model of motivation propounded by Abraham Harold Maslow is undoubtedly the simplest and most widely discussed theory of motivation. The essence of the theory may be summarized thus:

a) People are wanting beings whose needs can influence their behaviour. Only unsatisfied needs can influence behaviour, satisfied needs do not act as motivations.

b) Since needs are many, they are arranged in an order of importance, or hierarchy (hence the nomenclature need-hierarchy theory of motivation), from the basic to the complex.

c) The person advances to the next level of hierarchy, or from the basic to the complex, only when the lower level need is at least minimally satisfied.

d) Further up the hierarchy the person is able to go, the more individuality, humanness and psychological health he will display.

The Needs:

Maslow’s need hierarchy divides human needs into five levels as shown in Figure No. 2.05. Each level represents a group of needs not one need for each level.

**Figure No. 2.05 Maslow’s Need Hierarchy**

- Physiological Needs (Need Food, Clothing, Shelter)
- Safety and Security Needs (Need to free the fear of Physical, Psychological and Financial harm)
- Social Needs (Need for Love and Affection)
- Esteem Needs (Need for Respect and Recognition)
- Self-actualization Needs (Freedom to be Creative and Innovative)

The most basic level of needs comprises the primary or physiological ones. So long as they are unsatisfied, they monopolise a person’s consciousness and have virtually exclusive power to motivate behaviour. However, when they are satisfied, they cease to be motivators.

The satisfaction of primary needs does not produce contentment, instead, it unleashes a new series of discontents. The secondary needs now begin to acquire the power to motivate. People do not stop wanting; after physiological needs are fulfilled, they begin to want, in succession, safety, love, esteem and self-realisation. Maslow also suggested that people can travel down as well as up the hierarchy. Loss of existing satisfaction of primary needs, for example, can reactivate the level and increase its relative importance. A detailed description of each level needs follows.

**Physiological Needs**

The most basic, powerful and obvious of all human needs is the need for physical survival. Included in this group the needs for food, drink, oxygen, sleep, sex, protection from extreme temperature and sensory stimulation. These physiological drives are directly concerned with the biological maintenance of the organism and motivated by higher order needs. Put another way, the person who fails to satisfy this basic level of needs just won’t be around long enough to attempt satisfaction of higher need levels.

Admittedly, the social-physical environment in our country provides for the satisfaction of primary needs for most persons. However, if one of these needs remains unsatisfied, the individual rapidly becomes dominated by that need, so that all other need quickly become nonexistent or decidedly secondary. The chronically hungry person will never strive to compose music, or build a brave new world. Such a person is much too preoccupied with getting something to eat. Maslow adds:

For our chronically and extremely hungry man, Utopis can be defined simply as a place where there is plenty of food. He ends to think that, if only he is guaranteed food for the rest of his life, he will be perfectly happy and will never want anything more. Life itself tends to be defined in terms of eating. Anything else will be defined as unimportant. Freedom, love, community feeling respect, philosophy, may all be waved aside as fripperies that are useless, since they fail to fill the stomach. Such a man may fairly be said to live by bread alone.
Physiological needs are crucial to the understanding of human behaviour. The devastating effects on behaviour produced by a lack of food or water have been chronicled in numerous experiments and autobiographies. One terrifying example of the behavioural effects brought about by prolonged food deprivation occurred when a Peruvian airliner crashed deep in the jungles of South America in 1970. Trapped with a dwindling supply of food, the survivors, including a catholic priest, resorted to eating the victims of the crash. This incident illustrates how deeply ingrained social and moral taboos can give way to biological drives under stressful conditions. Without doubt, physiological needs dominate human desires, forcing themselves on one’s attention before higher order goals can be pursued.

In the organisational context, physiological needs are represented by employees concern for salary and basic working conditions. It is the duty of managers to ensure that these needs of the employees are met so that they can be motivated to strive for gratification of higher order needs.

**Safety Needs**

Once physiological needs are met, another set of motives, called safety or security needs, become motivators. The primary motivating force here is to ensure a reasonable degree of continuity, order structure and predictability in one’s environment. Maslow suggested that the safety needs are most readily observed in infants and young children because of the relative helplessness and dependence on adults.

Safety needs exert influence beyond childhood. The preference for secured income, the acquisition of insurance and owning one’s own house may be regarded as motivated in part by safety seeking. At least in part, religious and philosophic belief systems may also be interpreted in this fashion. Religions and philosophies help a person organise his world and the people in it into a coherent and meaningful whole, thus making the person feel “safe”. Other expressions of the need for safety occur when individuals are confronted with real emergencies, e.g., war, crime, waves, floods, earthquakes, riots, social disorganizations and similar other conditions.

Security needs in to organisational context correlate to such factors as job security, salary increases, safe working conditions, unionisation and lobbying for protective legislation. Managerial practices to satisfy the safety needs of employees include pension scheme, group insurance, provident fund, gratuity, safe working
conditions, grievance procedure, system of seniority to govern lay-off (particularly regarding continued employment), favouritism, or discrimination on the part of superiors hardly create feeling of security in an employee’s mind.

Social Needs

It is also called belonging and love needs; these constitute the third level in the hierarchy of needs. These needs arise when physiological and safety needs are satisfied. An individual motivated on this level longs for affectionate relationship with others, namely, for a place in his or her family and or reference groups. Group membership becomes a dominant goal for the individual. Accordingly, the person will feel keenly the pangs of loneliness, social ostracism, friendliness and rejection, especially when induced by the absence of friends, relatives, a spouse or children.

Unlike Freud who equated love with sex, Maslow believed that love involves a healthy, loving relationship between two people, which includes mutual respect, admiration and trust. Maslow also stressed that love needs involve both giving and receiving love. Being loved and accepted is instrumental to healthy feeling of worth. Not being loved leads to feelings of futility, emptiness and hostility.

In the organisational context, social needs represent the need for a compatible work group, peer acceptance, professional friendship and friendly supervision. Managers do well to encourage informal groups. Besides, supervision needs to be effective and friendly behaviour with subordinated pays.

Unfortunately, many managers view friendly relations of employees with their peers as a threat to the organisation and act accordingly. Managers have often gone to considerable lengths to control and direct employees relationship in ways that are opposed to the natural groupings of human beings. Therefore, when a manager assumes that informal groups always threaten the organisation, and actively strives to break up existing groups, the individuals affected may become resistant, antagonistic and uncooperative. These resistant actions are often consequences or symptoms, not causes, for the manager may have thwarted the satisfaction of social needs and perhaps even safety needs.

Self-esteem Needs

Next in Maslow’s hierarchy are esteem or egoistic needs. Maslow classified these needs into two subsidiary sets: self-respect and esteem from others. The former includes such things as desire for competence, confidence, personal strength,
adequacy, achievement, independence and freedom. An individual needs to know that he is worthwhile and capable of mastering tasks and challenges in life. Esteem from others includes prestige, recognition, appreciated for what they can do, i.e., the must experience feelings of worth because their competence is recognised and value by others.

Satisfaction of the self-esteem needs generates feelings and attitudes of self-confidence, worth, strength, capability and of being useful and necessary in the world. In contrast, the thwarting of these needs leads to feelings and attitudes of inferiority, ineptness, weakness and helplessness. These negative self-perceptions, may, in turn give rise to basic discouragement, sense of futility and hopelessness in dealing with life’s demands and a low evaluation of self vis-à-vis others. Maslow emphasized that the most healthy self-esteem is based on earned respect from others rather than on fame, status, or adulation. Esteem is the result of effort- it is earned. Hence, there is a real psychological danger of basing one’s esteem needs on the opinions of others rather than on real ability, achievement and adequacy. Once a person relies exclusively upon the opinions of others for his own self-esteem, he places himself in psychological jeopardy. To be solid, self-esteem must be founded on one’s actual worth rather than on external factors beyond one’s control.

In the workplace self-esteem needs correspond to job title, merit pay increase, peer/supervisory recognition, challenging work, responsibility, and publicity in company publications. Managerial practices to fulfill these needs include challenging work assignments, performance feedback, performance recognition, personal encouragement and involving employees in goal getting and decision-making.

**Self-actualisation Needs**

Finally, if all the earlier four level needs are satisfied, the need for self-actualisation comes to the fore. Maslow characterized self-actualisation as the desire to become everything that one is capable of becoming. The person who has achieved this highest-level presses towards the full use and exploitation of his talents, capacities and potentialities. In other words, to self-actualise is to become that total kind of person that one wants to become to reach the peak of one’s potential.

The need for self-actualisation is distinctive, in that it is never fully satisfied. It appears to remain important and insatiable. The more apparent satisfaction of it a person obtains, the more important the need for more seems to become.
Though the impulse to realise one’s potential is natural and necessary, only a few, usually the gifted, ever do so. Maslow himself estimated that less than one percent of the population fulfills the need for self-actualisation. Maslow advances three reasons for this. First, people are invariably blind to their own potentialities. Second, the social environment often stifles development towards self-fulfillment. Women, for example, were stereotyped for long, to be housewives. This prevented them from reaching self-fulfillment. A final obstacle is the strong negative influence exercised by the safety needs. The growth process demands a constant willingness to take risks, to make mistakes, and to break old habits. This requires courage. It logically follows that anything that increases the individual’s fear and anxiety also increases his tendency to regress towards safety and security.

In an organisation, self-actualisation needs correlate to desire for excelling oneself in one’s job, advancing an important idea, successfully managing a unit and the like. By being aware of the self-actualisation needs of subordinates, managers can use a variety of approaches to enable subordinates to achieve personal as well as organisational goals.

Maslow’s theory represents a significant departure from economic theories of motivation. As a result the theory has an important impact in two ways. First, the theory presents an entire array of non economic worker needs. If an employee does not respond to economic incentives, managers have alternative sources of employee motivation to consider. Second, Maslow’s hierarchy provides an important explanation for the changing motivation of workers over time. When a new employee first starts on the job, needs lower on the hierarchy-physiological or safety needs-are likely to command the most attention. Later, as these needs are fulfilled, the employee’s attention will turn to the fulfillment of higher- order needs, such as gaining the acceptance and respect of co-workers.

The individual is able to go further up only when his previous needs are satisfied. If unsatisfied, the needs will hold his concentration till they are satisfied. Thus, there is satisfaction progression dimension in Maslow’s model.

What is the role of the typical manager? The task is to life the employees from lower level needs to the higher level one. Employees must be motivated to aspire for self-actualisation needs.
Evaluation of the Model

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Third, it is said that the theory offers some useful ideas for helping managers think about motivating their employees. As a result of their widespread familiarity with the model, the managers are more likely to identify employee needs, recognise that they may be different across employees, offer satisfaction for the particular needs and realise that giving more of the same reward may have a diminishing impact on motivation.

The fourth merit of the theory is that it accounts for both interpersonal and intrapersonal variations in human behaviour. It suggests answers to questions that have puzzled supervisors. Why do some employees seem highly motivated by money while others are not? Why do some workers get engrossed in their work, while others loaf around? The answer may be that they occupy varying levels on Maslow’s needs hierarchy. This has an important implication for the manager. The implication is that the desired behaviour is most likely to occur if it results in the satisfaction of an employee’s prepotent need. Rewards or incentives therefore will be effective when they are linked to the prepotent level.

Fifth, the need hierarchy model is dynamic in that it presents motivation as a constantly changing force, expressing itself through the constant striving for fulfillment of new and higher levels of needs. Man is never satisfied. Instead of resting on his laurels when one goal is reached or a need is satisfied, the individual will typically redirect his efforts and capacities towards the attainment of still higher level needs.
Sixth, Maslow’s approach to human behaviour marks a total departure from earlier approaches. Called humanistic psychology, Maslow’s approach is based on existential philosophy. One of the basic tenets of existential philosophy is that a man is a healthy, good and creative being, capable of carving out his own destiny. The philosophy prompted Maslow to conceptualisation self-actualisation needs. One may not subscribe to existential philosophy, but Maslow deserves to be complimented because of his departure from Freud who was obsessed with sex and skinner who sought to extend observations derived from animal research to human behaviour.

Finally, the theory deserves appreciation for its simplicity, commonness, humanness and intuitiveness.

The need hierarchy theory has been criticised by many and the number of critics exceeds the number who support the theory.

First, it is said that Maslow’s theory is not a theory of work motivation. In fact, Maslow, himself did not intend that his need hierarchy be directly applied to work motivation. He did not delve into the motivating aspects of humans in organisations until about 20 years after he originally proposed his theory. Despite this lack of intent on Maslow’s part, others, such as Douglas McGregor, in his widely read book “The Human Side of Enterprise”, popularized Maslow’s theory in management literature.

Second, the hierarchy of needs simply does not exist. At all levels, needs are present at given time. An individual motivated by self-actualisation needs, for example, cannot afford to forget his food.

Third, assuming hierarchy does exist among needs, it may not be the same in all countries. Maslow’s hierarchy applies to American and British managers. Japanese managers, however, would seem to have hierarchy that places social and security needs higher, because they are less well satisfied that self-actualisation. Northern European managers would seem to have a hierarchy that reverses Maslow’s positioning of safety and love. These and other variations imply that Maslow’s hierarchy may be better reflection of the culture of its birth than a guide to motivation in other cultures.

Because of the differing need priorities organisations, particularly MNCs, need to adopt different personnel policies and practices to meet local needs. This was what Honda did in the U.S. when it set up its plant.
Fourth, not only are there differences across countries in needs hierarchy, there are variations within countries and among individuals. Within a country, culturally disadvantaged employees may feel stronger deprivation of lower level needs, whereas culturally advantaged employees seek satisfaction of higher level needs.

Maslow himself pointed out that individuals differ in the relative intensity of their various needs. For example, some individuals remain strongly influenced by feeling of insecurity despite objective conditions that satisfy the needs of most similarly situated persons.

Fifth, Maslow’s assumption about psychological health is not acceptable to many. His existential philosophy is also questioned by the critics. Contrary to Maslow’s belief, many individuals may stay content with lower level needs-physiological or safety needs. They may not move farther in the hierarchy of needs in search of satisfaction.

Sixth, it has also been pointed that managers will not have time to leisurely diagnose of where every employee is on Maslow’s hierarchy. Furthermore, they may not be free to supply rewards tailor-made to each of them. Given these constraints in addition to the presence of cultural and individual differences in patterns of need satisfaction, how can manager make any practical use of Maslow’s theory?

In spite of its serious limitations, the need hierarchy theory is important because of its contribution in terms of making management reward diverse needs of humans at work. Their names of hierarchy are not important. But some of them, particularly higher level needs like esteem and actualisation needs, are important to the content of work motivation.

2.13 c. Equity Theory

Jane Pearson graduated last year from the State University with a degree in accounting. After interviews with a number of organisations on campus, she accepted a position with a “Big 5” public accounting firm and was assigned to their Boston office. Jane was very pleased with the offer she received: challenging work with a prestigious firm, an excellent opportunity to gain valuable experience, and the highest salary any accounting major at State was offered last year- $4,550 a month. But Jane
Jane was the top student in her class; she was articulate and mature and expected to receive a commensurate salary.

Twelve months have passed since Jane joined her employer. The work has proved to be as challenging and satisfying as she had hoped. Her employer is extremely pleased with her performance; in fact, she recently received a $200-a-month raise. However, Jane motivational level has dropped dramatically in the past few weeks. Why? Her employer has just hired a fresh college graduate out of State University, who lacks the one-year experience Jane has gained, for $4,800 a month—$50 more than Jane now makes! It would be an understatement to describe Jane in any other terms than irate. Jane is even talking about looking for another job.

Jane’s situation illustrates the role that equity plays in motivation. Employees make comparisons of their job inputs (i.e., effort, experience, education, competence) and outcomes (i.e., salary levels, raises, recognition) relative to those of others. We perceive what we get from a job situation (outcomes) in relation to what we put into it (inputs), and then we compare our outcome-input ratio with the outcome-input ratio of relevant others. If we perceive our ratio to be equal to that of the relevant others with whom we compare ourselves, a state of equity is said to exist. We perceive our situation as fair that justice prevails. When we see the ratio as unequal, we experience equity tension. When we see ourselves as under rewarded, the tension creates anger; when over rewarded, the tension creates guilt. J. Stacy Adams has proposed that this negative tension state provides the motivation to do something to correct it.

The referent that an employee selects adds to the complexity of equity theory. There are four referent comparisons that an employee can use:

1. **Self-inside:** An employee’s experiences in a different position inside his or her current organisation
2. **Self-outside:** An employee’s experiences in a situation or position outside his or her current organisation
3. **Other-inside:** Another individual or group of individuals inside the employee’s organisation
4. **Other-outside:** Another individual or group of individuals outside the employee’s organisation

Employees might compare themselves to friends, neighbours, co-workers, or colleagues in other organisations or compare their present job with past jobs they
themselves have had. Which referent an employee chooses will be influenced by the information the employee holds about referents as well as by the attractiveness of the referent. This has led to focusing on four moderating variables—gender, length of tenure, level in the organisation, and amount of education or professionalism. Research shows that both men and women prefer same-sex comparisons. The research also demonstrates that women are typically paid less than men in comparable jobs and have lower pay expectations than men for the same work. So a woman who uses another woman as a referent tends to calculate a lower comparative standard. This leads us to conclude that employees in jobs that are not sex-segregated will make more cross-sex comparisons than those in jobs that are either male- or female-dominated. This also suggests that if women are tolerant of lower pay, it may be because of the comparative standard they use.

Employees with short tenure in their current organisations tend to have little information about others inside the organisation, so they rely on their own personal experiences. On the other hand, employees with long tenure rely more heavily on co-workers for comparison. Upper-level employees, those in the professional ranks, and those with higher amounts of education tend to have better information about people in other organisations. Therefore, these types of employees will make more other-side comparisons.

Based on equity theory, when employees perceive an inequity, they can be predicted to make one of six choices.

1. Change their inputs (for example, don’t exert as much effort)
2. Change their outcomes (for example, individuals paid on a piece-rate basis can increase their pay by producing a higher quantity of units of lower quality)
3. Distort perceptions of self (for example, “I used to think I worked at a moderate pace but now I realize that I work a lot harder than everyone else.”)
4. Distort perceptions of others (for example, “Mike’s job isn’t as desirable as I previously thought it was.”)
5. Choose a different referent (for example, “I may not make as much as my brother-in-law, but I’m doing a lot better than my Dad did when he was my age.”)
6. Leave the field (for example, quit the job)
The theory establishes the following propositions relating to inequitable pay:

A. *Given payment by time, over rewarded employees will produce more than will equitably paid employees.* Hourly and salaried employees will generate high quantity or quality of production in order to increase the input side of the ratio and bring about equity.

B. *Given payment by quantity of production, over rewarded employees will produce fewer, but higher-quality, units than will equitably paid employees.* Individuals paid on a piece-rate basis will increase their effort to achieve equity, which can result in greater quality or quantity. However, increases in quantity will only increase inequity, since every unit produced results in further overpayment. Therefore, effort is directed toward increasing quality rather than increasing quantity.

C. *Given payment by time, under rewarded employees will produce less or poorer quality of output.* Effort will be decreased, which will bring about lower productivity or poorer-quality output than equitably paid subjects.

D. *Given payment by quantity of production, under rewarded employees will produce a large number of low-quality units in comparison with equitably paid employees.* Employees on piece-rate pay plans can bring about equity because trading off quality of output for quantity will result in an increase in rewards with little or no increase in contributions.

### Table No. 2.02 Equity Theory Equation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ratio Comparisons</th>
<th>Perception</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>O/IA&lt;O/IB</td>
<td>Inequity due to being under rewarded</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O/IA=O/IB</td>
<td>Equity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O/IA&gt;O/IB</td>
<td>Inequity due to being over rewarded</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Where, O/IA represents the employees; and O/IB represents relevant others.

These propositions have generally been supported, with a few minor qualifications. First, inequities created by overpayment do not seem to have a very significant impact on behaviour in most work situations. Apparently, people have a great deal more tolerance of overpayment inequities than of underpayment inequities, or are better able to rationalize them. Second, not all people are equity sensitive. For example, there is a small part of the working population who actually prefer that their
outcome-input ratio be less than the referent comparison. Predictions from equity theory are not likely to be very accurate with these “benevolent types.”

It’s also important to note that while most research on equity theory has focused on pay, employees seem to look for equity in the distribution of other organisational rewards. For instance, it has been shown that the use of high-status job titles as well as large and lavishly furnished offices may function as outcomes for some employees in their equity equation.

Finally, recent research has been directed at expanding what is meant by equity or fairness. Historically, equity theory focused on distributive justice or the perceived fairness of the amount and allocation of rewards among individuals. But equity should also consider procedural justice- the perceived fairness of the process used to determine the distribution of rewards. The evidence indicates that distributive justice has a greater influence on employee satisfaction than procedural justice, while procedural justice tends to affect an employee’s organisational commitment, trust in his or her boss, and intention to quit. As a result, managers should consider openly sharing information on how allocation decisions are made, following consistent and unbiased procedures, justice. By increasing the perception of procedural fairness, employees are likely to view their bosses and the organisation as positive even if they are dissatisfied with pay, promotions, and other personal outcomes. Moreover, as noted in organisational citizenship behaviour is significantly influenced by perceptions of fairness. Specifically, evidence indicates that although distributive justice issues such as pay are important, perceptions of procedural justice are particularly relevant to OCB. So another plus from employee’s perceptions of fair treatment is that they will be more satisfied and reciprocate by volunteering for extra job activities, helping others, and engaging in similar positive behaviours.

In conclusion, equity theory demonstrates that, for most employees, motivation is influenced significantly by relative rewards as well as by absolute rewards. But some key issues are still unclear. For instance, how do employees handle conflicting equity signals, such as when unions point to other employee groups who are substantially better off, while management argues how much things have improved? How do employees define inputs and outcomes? How do they combine
and weigh their inputs and outcomes to arrive at totals? And when and how do the factors change over time?  

**Steps to Enhance Job Satisfaction and Productivity of Subordinates**

A business can increase its productivity and limit its employee turnover by ensuring that its employees are satisfied with their job, which in turn, helps increase their productivity. The more productive an individual is, the more satisfied he will be. And the more satisfied he is, the less likely he will be to leave the company.

To ensure high productivity, it isn’t sufficient for a company for a company to recruit efficient people and pay them high salaries. Enhancing the productivity of the company has more to do with making the employees like the work they are doing for the company and making them realize how important their contribution is to the success of the company.

There are several factors which are known to lead to job dissatisfaction: being in the wrong job, being unclear about one’s responsibilities, poor communication within the organisation, being caught up in red tape and being in a boring job are some of them. Managers and supervisors can influence their subordinates job satisfaction and hence their productivity to a great extent. They need to take the following steps to enhance subordinates satisfaction with the job:

**Clarify responsibilities of subordinates and set goals**

Employees require a clear understanding of their roles and duties in order to excel in their work. Managers should therefore give their subordinates copies of their job descriptions and clearly explain each area to them. When employees are placed in teams, they should be made to understand that cooperative rather than competitive behaviour is essential for the successful completion of the task.

Goals provide a sense of purpose, give direction and guide the behaviour of individual. Managers should ask their subordinates to record several goals are specific and reachable, and stretch over the short-term as well as the long-term.

**Provide subordinates with effective training**

The effectiveness of the training provided to subordinates has a significant impact on their performance. Managers should establish training objectives and

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criteria for the subordinates and ensure that the training provided relates to their work. Trainers should not only be good at their job, they should also enjoy it. Employees placed under a poor trainer or one who resents training them feel very discouraged. For training to be effective, the trainees should receive hands-on practice and immediate, specific and positive feedback about their development.

**Teach Time Management**

Managers can make their subordinates more productive by teaching them how to manage their time efficiently. They can teach their subordinates how to plan projects or tasks before actually performing them, how to set priorities and deadlines, and how to focus one’s efforts on accomplishing important tasks first. Subordinates should be encouraged to complete unpleasant tasks first in instead of postponing them endlessly.

**Ensure Participatory Management**

Managers can enhance the productivity of subordinates by directing their efforts towards accomplishment of the shared goals of the management and the subordinates. They should involve their subordinates in the formulation of the mission statement, in the framing of policies and procedures, and in the determination of the perks and bonuses to be given to them. By so doing, managers can improve their communication with their subordinates and improve their morale. Moreover, by making them feel important, managers can help increase subordinates’ loyalty towards the company.

**Reduce red tape**

Managers should carefully study the policies and procedures of the organisation to eliminate unnecessary paperwork and rules and minimize delay in obtaining approvals. To increase the productivity and satisfaction of their subordinates, managers should simplify work procedures wherever possible.

**Modify behaviour wherever necessary**

Managers should reinforce the positive and desirable behaviour of subordinates through praise and rewards. If it is necessary to reprimand a subordinate, the manager should ensure that the reprimand is specific and focused on the issue. Most importantly, the subordinates should not be reprimanded in front of others\(^\text{39}\).

\(^{39}\) Adapted from Thomas P. Sattler and Julie E. Mullen, “Enhancing Job Satisfaction and Productivity,” 17 May 2001, Marquette University, http://www.marquette.edu/coa/productivity.html
2.13 d. Fulfillment Theory

The needs/fulfillment theory states that job satisfaction will be determined in part by how much of a reward they receive for their work. What this theory failed to include however, is the individual differences regarding how people feel about what they receive as well as the workers’ preconceived notion regarding what they should receive. One example of this in education may be the well-documented dissatisfaction with educators’ salaries when compared with other professions requiring similar preparation (Vroom 1995).

Vroom (1964) developed two models of need fulfillment theory, subtractive and multiplicative. The subtractive model suggests that job satisfaction is dependent on the difference between the workers’ needs and the degree to which the job fills those needs. The multiplicative model includes the workers’ need for importance. In this model, the perceived degree to which a job meets the workers need is multiplied by the importance of the need to the worker (Vroom, 1964). Since that time Vroom has stated that when explaining the differences in the effort people give their jobs, we have focused too much on extrinsic factors and failed to recognize individual differences (Vroom, 1995).

2.13 e. The Porter and Lawler Expectancy Model (Theory)

Vroom’s expectancy/valence theory has been developed by Porter and Lawler. Their model goes beyond motivational force and considers performance as a whole. They point out that effort expended (motivational force) does not lead directly to performance. It is mediated by individual abilities and traits, and by the person’s role perceptions. They also introduce rewards as an intervening variable. Porter and Lawler see motivation, satisfaction and performance as separate variables, and attempt to explain the complex relationships among them.

Explanation of relationships

These relationships are expressed diagrammatically (fig. no. 2.06) rather than mathematically. In contrast to the human relations approach which tended to assume that job satisfaction leads to improved performance, Porter and Lawler suggest that satisfaction is an effect rather than a cause of performance. It is performance that leads to job satisfaction.

Figure No. 2. 06 The Porter and Lawler Motivation Model.
1. Value of reward: is similar to valence in vroom’s model. People desire various outcomes (rewards) which they hope to achieve from work. The value placed on a reward depends on the strength of its desirability.

2. Perceived effort-reward: probability is similar to expectancy. It refers to a person’s expectation that certain outcomes (rewards) are dependent upon a given amount of effort.

3. Effort: is how hard the person tries, the amount of energy a person exerts on a given activity. It does not relate to how successful a person is in carrying out an activity. The amount of energy extended is dependent upon the interaction of the input variables of value of reward, and perception of the effort-reward relationship.

4. Abilities and traits: Porter and Lawler suggest that effort does not lead directly to performance, but is influenced by individual characteristics. Factors such as intelligence, skills, knowledge, training and personality affect the ability to perform a given activity.

5. Role perceptions: Refer to the way in which individuals view their work and the role they should adopt. This influence the type of effort exerted. Role perception will influence the direction and level of action which is believed to be necessary for effective performance.

6. Performance: depends not only on the amount of effort exerted but also on the intervening influences of the person’s abilities and traits, and their role perceptions. If the person lacks the right ability or personality, or has an in accurate role perception of what is required, then the exertion of a large amount of energy may still result in a low level of performance, or task accomplishment.

7. Rewards: 7A and 7B are desirable outcomes. Intrinsic rewards derive from the individuals themselves and include a sense of achievement, a feeling of responsibility recognition (for example Herzberg’s motivators). Extrinsic rewards derive from the organisation and actions of others, and include salary, working conditions and supervision (for example Herzberg’s hygiene factors). The proportion of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards will vary among individuals.
and in different work situations, but there must be a minimum of both. Porter and Lawler see both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards to be important and desirable outcomes. They suggest, however, that intrinsic rewards are more likely to produce job satisfaction related to performance than are extrinsic rewards.

8. **Perceived equitable rewards:** This is the level of rewards people feel they should fairly receive for a given standard of performance. Most people have an implicit perception about the level of rewards they should receive commensurate with the requirements and demands of the job, and the contribution expected of them.

9. **Satisfaction:** This is not the same as motivation. It is an attitude, an individual’s internal state. Satisfaction is determined by both actual rewards received and perceived land of rewards from the organisation for a given standard of performance. It perceived equitable rewards are greater than actual rewards received the person experiences dissatisfaction. The experience of satisfaction derives from actual rewards which meet or exceed the perceived equitable rewards.\(^{42}\)

   Porter and Lawler’s Model: Lyman porter and Edward Lawler II, two OB researchers, developed an expectancy model of motivation that stretches beyond vroom’s work. This model attempted to-
   a) Identify the source of people’s valences and expectancies, and
   b) Link effort with performance and job satisfaction.\(^{43}\)

   There is no denying of the fact that the motivation model proposed by Porter and Lawler is quite complex than other models of motivations. In fact, motivation itself is not a simple cause-effect relationship rather it is a complex phenomenon. Porter and Lawler have attempted to measure variables such as the values of possible rewards, the perception of effort-rewards probabilities, and role perceptions in deriving satisfaction. They recommended that the managers. Should carefully reassess their reward system, and structure. The effort-performance-reward-satisfaction should be made integral to the entire system of managing men in organisation.\(^{44}\)


\(^{44}\) Khanka SS; Human Resource Management (Text and Cases) Published by S Chand and Company Limited. Reprint 2010, p.195.
2.13 f. Comparison Theory

Lawler (1973) in Dipboye, Smith and Howell (2002) incorporated the concepts of attained versus desired needs in his model of facet satisfaction. This model is an extension of the Porter-Lawler (1968) of motivation explained. It is a facet satisfaction model because satisfaction with various components or facets of a job, such as supervision, pay, or the work itself, is considered. Lawler’s model specifies that workers compare what their jobs should provide in terms.

Figure: 2.07 Lawler’s Model of Facet Satisfaction.

- If the employee perceives that the amount that should be received (A) is greater than the amount received (B), the worker will be dissatisfied or unhappy.
- If the employee perceives that the amount that should be received (A) is smaller than the amount received (B), the worker feel guilty, uncomfortable because of the perceived inequity of job facets, such as promotions and pay, to what they currently receive from their jobs.

However, simple need comparison theory is extended by also weighing the influence of certain worker characteristics (such as skills, training, and age) and job characteristics (such as degree of responsibility and difficulty). In addition, the model draws concepts from the equity of motivation by assuming that workers ultimately determine their job satisfaction by comparing their relevant job inputs and outputs to referent (comparison) others\textsuperscript{45}.

\textsuperscript{45} Neha Sharma and Saxena R K ‘Employees’ Motivation and Job satisfaction in Indian Railways with special reference to Jhansi Division’ PhD Thesis Bundelkhand University, Jhansi(U.P) 2008. Pp.65,66
2.13 g. Goal-Setting Theory

Social learning theory provides insights into why and how goals can motivate behaviour. It also helps us understand how different people cope with failure to reach their goals. The research of Edwin Locke and his associates most clearly established the utility of goal-setting theory in a motivational context.

Locke’s goal-setting theory of motivation assumes that behaviour is a result of conscious goals and intentions. Therefore, by setting goals for people in the organisation, a manager should be able to influence their behaviour. Given this premise, the challenge is to develop a thorough understanding of the processes by which people set goals and then work to reach them. In the original version of goal-setting theory, two specific goal characteristics - goal difficulty and goal specificity - were expected to shape performance.

**Goal Difficulty**

Goal difficulty is the extent to which a goal is challenging and requires effort. If people work to achieve goals, it is reasonable to assume that they will work harder to achieve more difficult goals. But a goal must not be so difficult that it is unattainable. If a new manager asks her sales force to increase sales by 300 percent, the group may ridicule her charge as laughable because they regard it as impossible to reach. A more realistic but still difficult goal - perhaps a 20 percent increase in sales - would probably be a better incentive.

A substantial body of research supports the importance of goal difficulty. In one study, managers at Weyerhaeuser set difficult goals for truck drivers hauling loads of timber from cutting sites to wood yards. Over a nine-month period, the drivers increased the quantity of wood they delivered by an amount that would have required $2, 50,000 worth of new trucks at the previous per-truck average load. Reinforcement also fosters motivation toward difficult goals. A person who is rewarded for achieving a difficult goal will be more inclined to strive toward the next difficult goal than will someone who received no reward for reaching the first goal.

**Goal Specificity**

Goal specificity is the clarity and precision of the goal. A goal of “increasing productivity” is not very specific, whereas a goal of “increasing productivity by 3 percent in the next six months” is quite specific. Some goals, such as those involving costs, output, profitability, and growth, can easily be stated in clear and precise terms.
Other goals, such as improving employee job satisfaction and morale, company image and reputation, ethical behaviour, and social responsibility, are much harder to state in specific terms. Like difficulty, specificity has been shown to be consistently related to performance. The study of timber truck drivers previously mentioned also examined goal specificity. The initial loads the truck drivers were carrying were found to be 60 percent of the maximum weight each truck could haul. The managers set a new goal for drivers of 94 percent, which the drivers were soon able to reach. Thus, the goal was quite specific as well as difficult. Locke’s theory attracted widespread interest and research support from both researcher and managers, so Locke, together with Gray Latham, eventually proposed an expanded model of the goal-setting process. The expanded model, shown in Figure No. 2. 08 attempts to capture more fully the complexities of goal setting in organisations.

**Figure No. 2. 08 The Goal-Setting Theory of Motivation**

The goal setting theory of motivation provides an important means enhancing the motivation of employees. As illustrated here, appropriate goal difficulty, specificity, acceptance, and commitment contribute to goal directed effort. This effort, in turn, has a direct impact on performance.

![Diagram of the Goal-Setting Theory of Motivation](image)

**Source:** Autumn, Gary P. Latham et al., (1979), Organisational Dynamic, “The Goal-Setting Theory of Motivation”. Copyright 1979, with permission of Elsevier

The expanded theory argues that goal-directed effort is a function of four goal attributes: difficulty and specificity, which we already discussed, and acceptance and commitment. Goal acceptance is the extent to which a person accepts a goal as his or her own. Goal commitment is the extent to which he or she is personally interested in reaching the goal. The manager who vows to take whatever steps are necessary to cut costs by 10 percent has made a commitment to achieving the goal. Factors that can
foster goal acceptance and commitment include participating in the goal-setting process, making goals challenging but realistic, and believing that goal achievement will lead to valued rewards.

The interaction of goal-directed effort, organisational support, and individual abilities and traits determines actual performance. Organisational support is whatever the organisation does to help or hinder performance. Positive support might mean providing whatever resources are needed to meet the goal; negative support might mean failing to provide such resources, perhaps due to cost consideration or staff reduction. Individual abilities and traits are the skills and other personal characteristics necessary to do a job. As a result of performance, a person receives various intrinsic and extrinsic rewards that, in turn, influence satisfaction.

**Broader Perspectives on Goal Setting**

Some organisations undertake goal setting from the somewhat broader perspective of Management by Objectives (MBO). MBO is essentially a collaborative goal-setting process through which organisational goals systematically cascade down through the organisation. Our discussion describes a generic approach, but many organisations adapt MBO to suit their own purposes.

A successful MBO program starts with top managers establishing overall goals for the organisation. After these goals have been set, managers and employees throughout the organisation collaborate to set subsidiary goals. First, the overall goals are communicated to everyone. Then each manager meets with each subordinate. During these meeting, the manager explains the unit goals to the subordinate, and the two together determine how the subordinate can contribute to the goals most effectively. The manager acts as a counsellor and helps ensure that the subordinate develops goals that are verifiable. For example, a goal of “cutting costs by 5 percent” is verifiable whereas a goal of “doing my best” is not. Finally, manager and subordinate ensure that the subordinate has the resources needed to reach his or her goals. The entire process spirals downward as each subordinate meets with his or her own subordinates to develop their goals. Thus, as we noted earlier, the initial goal set at the top cascade down through the entire organisation.

During the time frame set for goal attainment (usually one year), the manager periodically meets with each subordinate to check progress. It may be necessary to modify goals in light of new information, to provide additional resources, or to take
some other action. At the end of the specified time period, managers hold a final evaluation meeting with each subordinate. At this meeting, manager and subordinate assess how well goals were met and discuss why. This meeting often serves as the annual performance review as well, determining salary adjustments and other rewards based on reaching goals. This meeting may also serve as the initial goal-setting meeting for the next year’s cycle.

**Evaluation and Implications**

Goal-setting theory has been widely tested in a variety of settings. Research has demonstrated fairly consistently that goal difficulty and specificity are closely associated with performance. Other elements of the theory, such as acceptance and commitment, have been studied less frequently. A few studies have shown the importance of acceptance and commitment, but little is currently known about how people accept and become committed to goals. Goal setting theory may also focus too much attention on the short run at the expense of long-term considerations. The goal setting is clearly an important way for managers to convert motivation into actual improved performance.

From the broader perspective, MBO remains a very popular technique. Alcoa, Tenneco, Block and Decker, General Foods, and Du Pont, for example, have used versions of MBO with widespread success. The techniques popularity stems in part from its much strength. For one thing, MBO clearly has the potential to motivate employees because it helps implement goal setting theory on a systematic basis throughout the organisation. It also clarifies the basis for rewards, and it can stimulate communication. Performance appraisals are easier and more clear-cut under MBO. Further, managers can use the system for control purposes.

However, using MBO also how presents pitfalls, especially if a firm takes too many short-cuts or inadvertently undermines how the process is supposed to work. Sometimes, for instance, top managers do not really participate; that is, the goals really are established in the middle of the organisation and may not reflect the real goals of top management. If employees believe this situation to be true, they may become cynical, interpreting the lack of participation by top management as a sign that the goals are not important and that their own involvement is therefore a waste of time. MBO also has a tendency to overemphasize quantitative goals to enhance verifiability. Another potential liability is that an MBO system requires a great deal of
paperwork and record keeping since every goal must be documented. Finally, some managers do not really let subordinates participate in goal setting but, instead, merely assign goals and order subordinates to accept them.

On balance, MBO is often an effective and useful system for managing goal setting and enhancing performance in organisations. In particular, most organisations need to tailor it to their own unique circumstances. Properly used, MBO can also be an effective approach to managing an organisation’s reward system. It requires, however, one-on-one interactions between each supervisor and each employee, and these one-on-one interactions can often be difficult because of the time they take and the likelihood that at least some of them will involve critical assessments of unacceptable performance.\(^{46}\)

12.13 h. Locke’s Value Theory

This theory posits that job satisfaction is the relationship between job outcomes realised as compared to those desired. In other words, satisfaction is high when an employee receives outcomes which he or she values high. Satisfaction is less when the outcomes received are valued less by the employees. Locke’s approach focuses on any outcomes that people value, regardless of what they are and not necessarily lower order needs. The key to satisfaction, according to the theory, is the discrepancy between those aspects of the job one has and those one wants; the greater the discrepancy, lesser the satisfaction.

Locke’s theory calls attention to those aspects of the job that need to be attended for job satisfaction to result. Specifically, the theory suggests that those aspects might not be the same for all people, but any valued aspects of the job about which people perceive serious discrepancy. By emphasizing values, Locke’s theory suggests that job satisfaction may be derived from the many sources.\(^ {47}\)

The Ethics of Job Satisfaction

The job satisfaction is also an ethical issue that influences the organisation’s reputation in the community. People spend a large portion of their time working in organisations, and many societies now expect companies to provide work environments that are safe and enjoyable. Indeed, employees in several countries


closely monitor ratings of the best companies to work for an indication that employee satisfaction is a virtue worth considerable goodwill to employees. This virtue is apparent when an organisation has low job satisfaction. The company tries to hide this fact, and when morale problems become public, corporate leaders are usually quick to improve the situation.

2.13 i. Job Fit Theory

According to John Holland’s Personality–job fit theory satisfaction is highest and turnover lowest when personality and occupation are in agreement. Social individuals should be in social jobs, conventional people in conventional jobs, and so forth. A realistic person in a realistic job is in a more congruent situation than in a realistic person in an investigative job. A realistic person in a social job is in the most in congruent situation possible.

The key points of this model are that

1. There do appear to be intrinsic differences in personality among individuals.
2. There are different types of job, and
3. People in job environments congruent with their personality types should be more satisfied and less likely to voluntarily resign than should people in congruent jobs.

Figure No. 2.09 The Person-Organisation Fit

The person-organisation Fit: It includes matching people to organisation as well as jobs. To the degree that an organisation faces a dynamic and changing

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environment and requires employees who are able to readily change tasks and move fluidly between teams, it is probably more important that employees’ personalities fit with the overall organisation’s culture than with the characteristics of any specific job. People leave organisations that are not compatible with their personalities. People high on extroversion fit better with aggressive and team–oriented cultures. People high on agreeableness will match up better with a supportive organisational climate than one that focuses on aggressiveness; and that people high on openness to experience fit better into organisations that emphasize innovation rather than standardization. If the organisations follow these guidelines at the time of hiring should lead to selecting new employees who fit better with the organisation’s culture, which, in turn, should result in higher employee satisfaction and reduced turnover.

2.13 j. Discrepancy Theory

The concept of discrepancy theory explains the ultimate source of anxiety and dejection. An individual, who has not fulfilled his responsibility feels the sense of anxiety and regret for not performing well, they will also feel dejection due to not being able to achieve their hopes and aspirations. According to this theory, all individuals will learn what are their obligations and responsibilities for a particular function, over a time period, and if they fail to fulfill those obligations then they are punished. Over time, these duties and obligations consolidate to form an abstracted set of principles, designated as a self-guide. Agitation and anxiety are the main responses when an individual fails to achieve the obligation or responsibility. This theory also explains that if achievement of the obligations is obtained then the reward can be praise, approval, or love. These achievements and aspirations also form an abstracted set of principles, referred to as the ideal self guide. When the individual fails to obtain these rewards, they begin to have feelings of dejection, disappointment, or even depression.

Here's a thought, an individual does fulfil those obligations and responsibilities to the company; but the employer punishes the employee regardless of the fulfilment of duties. Agitation and anxiety is the main response toward an

ungrateful employer who refuses to recognize improvement to companies bottom line because of employees endeavour\textsuperscript{51}.

### 2.13 k. Affective Events Theory

Understanding emotions at work has been significantly helped by a model called Affective Events Theory (AET).\textsuperscript{52} AET demonstrates that employees react emotionally to things that happen to them at work and that this influences their job performance and satisfaction.

Exhibit figure no. 2.10 summarizes AET. The theory begins by recognizing that emotions are a response to an event in the individual work environment. The work environment includes everything surrounding the job characteristics of the job such as the variety of tasks and degree of autonomy, job demands, and requirements for expressing emotional labour. This environment creates work events that can be hassles, uplifts, or both. Examples of events that employees frequently see as hassles are colleagues who refuse to carry their share of work, conflicting directions by different managers, and excessive time pressures. Examples of uplifting events include meeting a goal, getting support from a colleague, and receiving recognition for an accomplishment.\textsuperscript{53} These work events trigger positive or negative emotional reactions. But the events-reaction relationship is moderated by the employee’s personality and mood. Personality predisposes people to respond with greater or lesser intensity to the event. For instance, people who score low on emotional stability are more likely to react strongly to negative events. And the individual’s mood introduces like reality that those general affect cycle creates fluctuations. So a person’s emotional response to a given event can change depending on his or her mood. Finally, emotions influence a number of performance and satisfaction variables such as organisational citizenship behavior, organisational commitment, intentions to quit, and level of effort.

\textsuperscript{51} http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Job_satisfaction
\textsuperscript{52} Weiss and Cropanzano, “Affective Events Theory”.
In addition, it suggests that (1) an emotional episode is actually a series of emotional experiences precipitated by a single event. It reflects elements of both emotions and mood cycles. (2) Job satisfaction is influenced by current emotions at any given time along with the history of emotions surrounding the event. (3) Since moods and emotions fluctuate over time, their effect on performance also fluctuates. (4) Emotion-driven behaviors are typically short in duration and of high variability. (5) Because emotions tend to be incompatible with behaviors required to do a job, they typically have a negative influence on job performance (even for positive emotions like happiness and joy).\(^{54}\)

Affective Events Theory offers two important messages.\(^{55}\) First, emotions provide valuable insights into understanding employee behavior. The model demonstrates how daily hassles and uplifts influence employee performance and satisfaction. Second, emotions in organisations and the events that cause them shouldn’t be ignored, even when they appear to be minor. This is because they

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accumulate. It’s not the intensity of hassles and uplifts that lead to emotional reactions, but more the frequency with which they occur\textsuperscript{56}.

2.13 I. An Integrated Theory

The model of work motivation proposed here combines and integrates the two main trends, those of expectancy theories and of need-specific theories of motivation. It also makes use of organisational context which is missing in many theories of work motivation. The conceptual model is summarised in figure No. 2.11

According to this model, work motivation can be conceived of at three levels. The first is at the individual level, in terms of the needs of the individual start independently of each other, and the role of a person in the organisation helps in the psychological interaction of the individual, and the integration of the individual in the organisation. The second and third levels of work motivation follow the individual’s interaction with the environment. The three levels are as follows:

Figure No. 2.11 Expectancy Theories and Need-Specific Theories of Motivation (Integrated Theory)
Level 1: The individual has various psychological needs in different strategies (Box 7). The most important needs are those of achievement (concern for excellence), affiliation (concern for personal relationship), inclusion (concern for social interaction), power (concern for influences and control), dependency (concern for direction), and extension (concern for others).

Level 2: After the interaction of the individual with the organisation through his role in the organisation, work motivation develops in terms of changed strength in his need pattern, and his commitment to work in the organisation (Box 12). The original strengths of the various needs may alter as a result of the individual’s interaction with the organisation and acceptance of his organisational culture. A highly competitive organisation may, for example, increase $n$ Ach (need for achievement) of the individual.

Level 3: The final psychological outcome of the person’s working in an organisation is the satisfaction he derives from his work and role. This is also work motivation (Box 14). Work motivation at this level is defined in terms of his work and role satisfaction.

Since work motivation in the organisation is primarily the second level (Box 12) and the third level (Box 14) it is essential to consider how these develop.

Second-Level Work Motivation: Both the individual and the organisational variables contribute to the development of second-level work motivation (modified needs and commitment to work - Box 12). At the individual level, expectancy (Box 6) influences second-level work motivation. Expectancy is the subjective probability of getting rewards - approval, appreciation, promotion - through the individual’s role enactment in the organisation. Expectancy is influence by three individual-level variables: the personality of the individual (Box 5), his initial motivation (strengths of his various needs Box 7), and his perception of the goals and goal-setting mechanisms of the organisation (Box 8). Take, for example, the personality. If the individual’s locus of control is external, his expectancy is likely to be low. Similarly, the high need for dependency and the low perception of organisational goals will produce low expectancy. Although expectancy influences role perception and role acceptance (Box 11), it is likely to be influenced back.

As the organisational level, motivational climate (Box 2) influences work motivation. Motivational climate is the general culture of the organisation characterized by the dominant psychological needs. For example, an organisation may
have a “power-dependency motivational climate”. In such an organisation the main concern of the people may be to get controlling positions through getting favours with people in power, and then to distribute such gifts to others. Such a climate is operative in many Indian Universities. A combination of two of the needs mentioned above can be used to characterize the motivational climate. Such a climate is influenced by two factors: organisational goals (Box 3) and reinforcing mechanisms (Box 4). If the organisational goals are clear by being challenging and realistic, a climate of achievement and power motivation may develop in the organisation. However, if the goals are unclear and there is no involvement of people in goal setting, dependency motivational climate may develop. Reinforcing mechanisms include reward system. If politicking is rewarded in a system (as in some universities) through election and lobbying, an n power-dominated climate will prevail. Rewarding of academic excellence however, may help develop an n Ach-dominated climate.

Second-level work motivation (Box 12) is directly influenced by two factors: role interactional patterns (Box 10) and role perception and acceptance (Box 11). Such an organisation has a specific pattern of the interaction of various roles. For example, in one organisation such a pattern can be characterized by congeniality or reciprocity. In another organisation the pattern may be more of the clique type-interactions may be high with in some informal groups, but may be rather low between the formal groups. The other factor, role perception and acceptance (Box11), is also important. The degree of acceptance of the role by the individual contributes to the commitment to work, and reinforces certain psychological needs in the individual. This is second-level motivations.

Third-level Work Motivation: The third-level work motivation is the ultimate satisfaction an individual derives from his work (Box 14). This is influenced by his role performance and behaviour (Box 13): The more effective the role performance is, the higher will be work motivation (role satisfaction). Role performance is, in turn, influenced by the second-level work motivation-the modified need pattern of the individual and his commitment to work. It is also influenced by the reinforcing mechanisms (Box 4).

In the model there are two feedback loops – a and b. Third-level work motivation influences both the organisational goals (Loop a) as well as the perceptions of goals and individual goal setting (Loop b). Work satisfaction contributes to setting up challenging goals, and positive perception of such
organisational goals. Work satisfaction also influences the second-level work motivation. Similarly, role interactional patterns influence the motivational climate, and role perception and acceptance expectancy.

The model proposes three levels of work motivation, starting with the patterns of the need strength of an individual (level 1), leading to the modification in this pattern after he/she has worked in the organisation, and the level of his/her commitment to work (level 2), resulting in work satisfaction (level 3). This development of work motivation is set in the organisational context in which role plays a very significant part.

In this model of work motivation the individual’s need assumes a great deal of importance. In fact, the terms motivation and need are interchangeable. We can say that a person has high power motivation or that he has a high need for power. All people have various psychological needs. Some of these psychological needs are more relevant to work, some are less. Motivation or psychological needs have been examined in different ways. These different models have implications for understanding and managing motivation57.

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