Motivation

- Meaning of motivation
- Nature of motivation
- Theories of Motivation
- Factors effecting motivation
- Motivation and its relationships
- Management Techniques Designed To Increase Motivation
Every management tries to coordinate various factors of production in such a way that their contribution is maximum in achieving organizational goals. The performance of non-human factors like machines, etc. will depend upon the level of technology and the competence of those who use them. To improve the overall performance in a business it becomes essential to increase the efficiency of human beings. The performance of persons depends upon two factors, i.e.

(i) Ability to do a work, and

(ii) Motivation.

Both these factors taken together will increase the efficiency of human beings. If a person does not have the capability or ability to do work then he cannot increase his efficiency. On the other hand, even if a person has got the ability but is not properly motivated even then his performance will be low.

A key element in personnel management is motivation. Motivation is an important factor which encourages persons to give their best performance and help in reaching enterprise goals. A strong positive motivation will enable the increased output of employee but a negative motivation will reduce their performance.

Known as “the father” of Humanistic Psychology, Abraham Maslow stated that human beings are “perpetually wanting animals” that are driven by needs which drive us into action. Maslow asserted that mostly all human behaviors can be explained in terms of the individual needs we experience. These needs guide our actions and determine what is important to us; therefore they are the true source of human motivation. Maslow stated that people experience tension or discomfort when a need is operating. Our motivation is to relive this discomfort. For this reason we engage in certain behaviors with the goal of accomplishing this. For example, when we are hungry we feel a discomfort that will not be satisfied until we eat. Therefore we are likely to engage in behaviors such as driving to a restaurant, ordering food and ultimately eating until we are satisfied and the discomfort is no longer present. This need will goad one’s behavior until it is satisfied. Once satisfied, this need is no longer a motivator (i.e. when you are full you are no longer motivated to eat). Therefore only unsatisfied needs are true sources of motivation.

In the workplace, motivation is an often talked about concept used to describe efforts to increase employees work performance and productivity. We often
hear statements from frustrated supervisors such as, "He's just not motivated," or "I have got to figure out how to get these guys motivated." The crusade to motivate employees to better or even acceptable performance is one that is often fought with mixed and sometimes disappointing results. The source of this disappointment is based largely on a huge misconception that managers and supervisors have; that is, they believe that they can motivate their employees. The truth is that it is impossible to motivate another human being. Human beings are motivated by their own needs not someone else's. Understanding this fact is the first step of getting your employee's performance to improve. It is also important to understand how different groups have different needs. When dealing with two cultures in the workplace, it is important to understand what cultural and situational factors affect productive behaviors and why.

The term motivation can be traced to the Latin word movere, which means "to move." This meaning is evident in the following comprehensive definition: motivation is a process that starts with a physiological or psychological deficiency or need that activates a behavior or a drive that is aimed at a goal or incentive. Thus, the key to understanding the process of motivation lies in the meaning of, and relationships among, needs, drives, and incentives.

Needs set up drives aim at incentives; this is what the basic process of motivation is all about. In a systems sense motivation consists of these three interacting and interdependent elements:

Motivation refers to the forces either within or external to a person that arouse enthusiasm and persistence to pursue a certain course of action. Employee motivation affects productivity, and part of a manager's job is to channel motivation towards the accomplishment of organisational goals. The study of motivation helps managers understand what prompts people to initiate action, what influences their choice of action and why they persist in that action over time.

A simple model of human motivation is illustrated in the following figure. People have basic needs—such as need for food, achievement or monetary gain—which translate into an internal tension that motivates specific behaviour with which to fulfill the need. To the extent that the behavior is successful, the person is rewarded in the sense that the need is satisfied. The reward also informs the person that the behavior was appropriate and can be used again in the future.


A Simple model of motivation

Motivation has been variously defined by scholars. However, it can be defined in the following manner to express its meaning and concept:

The Encyclopedia of Management: "Motivation refers to degree of readiness of an organism to pursue some designated goal and implies the determination of the nature and locus of the forces, including the degree of readiness."

Motivation is a psychological phenomenon which generates within an individual. A person feels the lack of certain needs, to satisfy which he feels working more. The need satisfying ego motivates a person to do better than he normally does. From definitions given earlier the following inferences can be derived:

1. Motivation is an inner feeling which energizes a person to work more
2. The emotions or desires of a person prompt him for doing a particular work.
3. There are unsatisfied needs of a person which disturb his equilibrium.
4. A person moves to fulfill his unsatisfied needs by conditioning his energies.
5. There are dormant energies in a person which are activated by channelising them into actions.

Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelly (2000:127) say motivation is a concept we use when we describe the forces acting on or within an individual to initiate and direct behavior. We use the concept to explain differences in the intensity of behavior (regarding more intense behaviors as a result of higher levels of motivation) and also to indicate the direction of behavior (e.g., when you’re tired or sleepy, you direct your behavior toward getting some sleep).

Motivation is the process of stimulating an individual to take action that will accomplish a desired goal." (Barron’s; 236). There are numerous definitions of motivation, which is logical, because there are many different personalities
that are motivated through different factors, as well as there exist various motivation theories and programs. Motivation is getting more important every day since the competition in the workplace is increasing on a daily basis as well as the unemployment rate. Management has to find an effective way of motivate not only themselves, but more to motivate their employees, therefore management has to take into account theories and has to consider the differences in personality of its workforce, to imply a successful motivation program.

When a manager wants to get more work from his subordinates then he will have to motivate them for improving their performance. They will either be offered incentive for more work, or may be in the space of rewards better reports, recognition etc., or he may instill fear in them or use force for getting desired work.

**NATURE OF MOTIVATION**

Experts in the organizational behaviour field have a divided opinion as to whether workers are motivated by factors in the external environment such as rewards or fear or whether motivation is self generated without the application of external factors. It is quite well understood that under the same set of external factors all workers are not equally motivated. Some of these motivational sources are:

**a) Positive Motivation**

Positive motivation involves proper recognition of employee efforts and appreciation of employee's contribution towards the organizational goal and a sense of achievement. Such motivations improve the standards of performance, lead to good team spirit and pride, a sense of cooperation and a feeling of belonging and happiness. Some of the positive motivators are:-

- Praise and credit for work done.
- A sincere interest in the welfare of subordinates.
- Delegation of authority and responsibility to subordinates.
- Participation of subordinates in the decision making process.

**b) Negative or Fear Motivation**

This motivation is based upon the use of force, power, fear and threats.
The fear of punishment or unfavourable consequences affects the behavioural changes. Some examples of negative motivation include the fear of failing in the examination, and fear of being fired or demoted. Fear of failure in the examination induces motivation in many students to work harder and pass the course. Similarly, fear of being fired keeps the workers in line with the organizational rules and regulations as well as do a satisfactory job.

**Punishment:** Punishment is the imposition of unpleasant outcomes on an employee. Punishment typically occurs following undesirable behaviour. For example, a supervisor may berate an employee for performing a task incorrectly. The supervisor expects that the negative outcome will serve as a punishment and reduce the likelihood of the behaviour recurring. The use of punishment in organisations is controversial and often criticized, because it fails to indicate the correct behaviour. However, almost all managers report finding it necessary to occasionally impose forms of punishment ranging from verbal reprimands to employee suspensions or firings. Punishment, when referred in general, is an unfavorable condition introduced into the environment to eliminate undesirable behavior. This is used as one of the measures of Behavior Modification. Action resulting in punishment will demotivate repetition of action.

**Aggression:** Aggression is generally used in the civil service area where units are devoted to maintaining law and order. In some environments officers are grounded by their superiors in order to perform better and to stay out of illegal activities.

**Stress:** Stress works in a strange way to motivate, like reverse psychology. When under stress and difficult situations, a person feels pressured. This may trigger feelings of under-achieving, which results in a reverse mindset, to strive to achieve. This is almost sub-conscious. The net amount motivation under stress may motivate a person to work harder in order to "compensate" for his feelings.

Psychologists differentiate between this constructive form of stress, called eustress, and the unhelpful state of distress.

**Secondary goals:** These important biological needs tend to generate more powerful emotions and thus more powerful motivation than secondary goals. This is described in models like Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs. A distinction can also be made between direct and
indirect motivation: In direct motivation, the action satisfies the need; in indirect motivation, the action satisfies an intermediate goal, which can in turn lead to the satisfaction of a need. In work environments, money is typically viewed as a powerful indirect motivation, whereas job satisfaction and a pleasant social environment are more direct motivations. However, this example highlights well that an indirect motivational factor (money) towards an important goal (having food, clothes etc.) may well be more powerful than the direct motivation provided by an enjoyable workplace.

Coercion: The most obvious form of motivation is coercion, where the avoidance of pain or other negative consequences has an immediate effect. When such coercion is permanent, it is considered slavery. While coercion is considered morally reprehensible in many philosophies, it is widely practiced on prisoners, students in mandatory schooling, and in the form of conscription. Critics of modern capitalism charge that without social safety networks, wage slavery is inevitable. However, many capitalists such as Ayn Rand have been very vocal against coercion. Successful coercion sometimes can take priority over other types of motivation. Self-coercion is rarely substantially negative (typically only negative in the sense that it avoids a positive, such as undergoing an expensive dinner or a period of relaxation), however it is interesting in that it illustrates how lower levels of motivation may be sometimes tweaked to satisfy higher ones

Extinction: Extinction is the withdrawal of a positive reward, meaning that behaviour is no longer reinforced and hence is less likely to occur in the future. If a perpetually tardy employee fails to receive praise and pay raises, he or she will begin to realise that the behaviour is not producing desired outcomes. The behaviour will gradually disappear if it is not continually reinforced. Some executives use reinforcement theory very effectively to shape employees' behaviour.

While the fear of punishment and actual punishment has resulted in controlling individual misbehavior and has contributed towards positive performance in many situations and is necessary and useful in many other situations such as disciplining a child or handling a riot, it is not recommended or considered as a viable alternative in the current business and industrial environment. This is based upon the trend and changes in the workforce including higher level of employee education
and extensive employee unionization.

However, punishment or fear of it is still the most common technique of behaviour modification or control in today's life. When a child misbehaves, he is still spanked. If a worker does not behave according to the way the organization wants him to behave, he is fired. If a person does not behave as the society and law wants him to behave, he is punished by arrest and jail. All religions threaten punishment in the life hereafter if a person does not behave according to God's and religious rules.

Does the punishment system work? Does it change behaviour? Does the prison system reform the criminal? Does spanking make a "good" child? This area has received considerable attention and has become highly controversial. It has been proposed that while punishment has immediate and short-term effect in affecting and changing behaviour, the long term effects are highly questionable. A driver who gets fined for running a red light where he is supposed to stop may vow never to do it again at that time, but as the time passes, he will do it again.

In the context of organizational behaviour, no worker likes to be criticized or threatened with employment termination. Specifically, if the worker is punished for an occasional undesired behaviour, it will have a negative effect on his morale; make him bitter with a hostile state of mind, affecting negatively his social interaction as well as his sense of loyalty, perhaps resulting in poor performance and productivity and quality.

c) **Extrinsic Motivation:**

This type of motivation is induced by external factors which are primarily financial in nature. It is based upon the assumption that the behaviour which results in positive rewards tends to be repeated. However, the reward for the desired behaviour should be sufficiently powerful and durable so that it improves the probability of occurrence of desirable behaviour. Money is probably the most important incentive for positive behaviour since money can be used for a number of other resources.

These financial incentives and rewards have been a subject of debate whether they really motivate the employees or simply move them to
work and perform. These include higher pay, fringe benefits such as retirement plans, stock options, profit sharing scheme, paid vacation, health and medical insurance, sympathetic supervision and people oriented company policies.

d) **Intrinsic Motivation:**

Intrinsic motivation stems from feelings of 'achievement and accomplishment' and is concerned with the state of self actualization in which the satisfaction of accomplishing something worthwhile motivates the employee further so that this motivation is self-generated and is independent of financial rewards. For example, there are many retired doctors who work free in the hospital because it gives them a sense of accomplishment and satisfaction. Mother Teresa's work in the slums of Calcutta, India, not only motivates the people who work with her but also many others who simply hear about her work and then want to join the team. Similarly, Peace Corps workers work in uncomfortable environments at a minimal pay. Some of the intrinsic motivators are praise, recognition, responsibility, esteem, power, status, challenges and decision making responsibility.

**THEORIES OF MOTIVATION**

The concept of motivation can be traced back nearly twenty-three centuries in the Greek and Indian writings. The idea that we are motivated to do what brings us the best results for our benefit is found in the early Indian philosophy through such writings as "Charvak". The most ancient concept of "Nirvana", as proposed and propagated by earliest Aryan thinkers and religious scholars, motivates us to be "good" people so that we can achieve the final "oneness with God".

The Greek view of motivation has been dominated by the concept of hedonism which is a view that people seek pleasure and comfort and avoid pain and discomfort. This view was based upon intuition and common sense that an individual does what he does because he believes that it will give him more pleasure than anything else he might do. This philosophy, though still popular, depends excessively upon rational evaluation and does not take into consideration the effect of instincts or even the value system. Hedonism, based on maximizing personal pleasure cannot explain why some people
would sometimes risk their own lives to save others in times of crisis or why volunteers would spend so much of their time in collecting money for charitable causes. However, this view prevailed right up to the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries and is evident in the social and economical philosophies of such famous men as Adam Smith, Jeremy Bentham and John Stuart Mill.

The principles of hedonism seems to be too narrow minded and is empirically insignificant since it does not attempt to evaluate just what the individuals anticipate to be the results of their behaviour and how do they measure pleasure. For example, a person who risked his own life to save another had rationally decided to become a "hero" or did he act on "impulse," believing that it was the right thing to do irrespective of cost or consequences? The principle of hedonism can be more easily explained "after the fact" when the behaviour has already been explained. Thus, even the acts of simple kindness can be explained with the motives of "feeling good" about them or earning the gratefulness of those who have been helped by these acts. Since hedonistic explanations work best in explaining actions after they occur, they cannot be relied upon in predicting behaviour. These limitations of hedonistic viewpoints brought motivation under different light during the late 1800s and early 1900s. William James and Sigmund Freud argue that instinctive behaviour and unconscious motivation are also important elements in human behaviour and these largely determine an individual's interpretation of, and response to, situations.

Instincts, which are inborn or innate predispositions, which are not consciously rational can explain certain aspects of human behaviour. These instincts which influence human behaviour include the need for autonomy, curiosity, sociability, sympathy, fear, jealousy, love, dominance, harm avoidance, play, and sex. The large number of identified instincts identify a variety of possible behaviours. The instinct behaviour is like a reflex action, meant for survival and hence caters primarily to physiological needs. It is not learnt and is not dependent upon the consequences of an action. Most instincts are common to all people and would exhibit similar behaviour under similar circumstances. For example, if somebody has a flat tire while driving, the first instinctive reaction is to get mad.

The unconscious motivation, of which an individual is unaware, was brought up by Sigmund Freud who suggested that unconscious motives are primarily sexual and aggressive in nature and even though unconscious, they greatly influence everyday behaviour. These unconscious motives are revealed in
dreams, symbolism, slips of speech (known as Freudian slip) and hypnotic suggestions.

Both the instinctive motivation and unconscious motivation do not stand the scientific analysis and contemporary psychologists explain behaviour by complex cognitive and environmental interactions.

The concept of motivation came under scientific scrutiny during 1930s and has led to formulation of many theories and models that try to scientifically explain the concept of motivation.

FOUNDATIONS OF MOTIVATION

A manager’s assumptions about employees’ motivation and his or her use of rewards depends on his or her perspective on motivation. Three distinct perspectives on employee motivation are the traditional approach, the human relations approach and the human resources approach. The most recent theories about motivation represent a fourth perspective, referred to as contemporary approaches.

TRADITIONAL APPROACH

The study of employee motivation really began with the work of Frederick W. Taylor on scientific management. Scientific management relates to the systematic analysis of an employee’s job for the purpose of increasing efficiency. Economic rewards are provided to employees for high performance. The emphasis on pay evolved into the perception of workers as economic people – people who would work harder for higher pay. This approach led to the development of incentive pay systems, in which people were paid strictly on the quantity and quality of their work outputs.

HUMAN RELATIONS APPROACH

The economic man was gradually replaced by a more sociable employee in managers’ minds. Beginning with the landmark Hawthorne studies at a Western Electric plant, non-economic rewards, such as congenial work groups that met social needs, seemed more important than money as a motivator of work behaviour. For the first time, workers were studied as people, and the concept of social man was born.
HUMAN RESOURCE APPROACH

The human resource approach carries the concepts of economic man and social man further to introduce the concept of the whole person. Human resource theory suggests that employees are complex, and motivated by many factors. For example, the work by McGregor on Theory X and Theory Y, argued that people want to do a good job and that work is as natural and healthy as play. Proponents of the human resource approach believed that earlier approaches had tried to manipulate employees through economic or social rewards. By assuming that employees are competent and able to make major contributions, managers can enhance organisational performance. The human resource approach laid the groundwork for contemporary perspectives on employee motivation.

CONTEMPORARY APPROACHES

Contemporary approaches to employee motivation are dominated by three types of theories, each of which will be discussed in the following sections. The first are content theories, which stress the analysis of underlying human needs. Content theories provide insight into the needs of people in organisations and help managers understand how needs can be satisfied in the workplace. Process theories concern the thought processes that influence behaviour. They focus on how employees seek rewards in work circumstances. Reinforcement theories focus on employee learning of desired work behaviour. In Exhibit, content theories focus on the concepts in the first box, process theories on those in the second, and reinforcement theories on those in the third

1) CONTENT THEORY ON MOTIVATION

Content theories emphasize the needs that motivate people. At any point in time, people have basic needs such as those for food, achievement or monetary reward. These needs translate into an internal drive that motivates specific behaviour in an attempt to fulfill the needs. An individual’s needs are like a hidden catalogue of the things he or she wants and will work to get. To the extent that managers understand worker needs, the organisation’s reward systems can be designed to meet them and reinforce employees for directing energies and priorities towards attainment of organisational goals.
Employees bring to a work situation their feelings, beliefs and a repertoire of behaviors which determine their modus operandi on day-to-day basis. It is for this reason that managers constantly seek to understand, explain and if possible to predict the nature of their employees’ behavior. Content theories of motivation attempt to explain and describe factors within the person that energize, direct, sustain and stop behavior. They provide a framework for managers to gain insights about their employees’ internal state. The major content theories of motivation include:

1. Maslow’s need hierarchy
2. Aderfer’s ERG theory;
3. McClelland’s learned needs; and
4. McGregor’s Theory X and Theory Y
5. Ouchi’s Theory Z
6. Herzberg’s two-factor theory

**Maslow’s Hierarchy of needs theory**

One of the most widely cited and discussed motivation theory is the need hierarchy model proposed by Abraham Maslow. Probably the most famous content theory was developed by Abraham Maslow. Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory proposes that humans are motivated by multiple needs and that these needs exist in a hierarchical order as illustrated in Exhibit. Maslow identified five general types of motivating needs in order of ascendance:

1. **Physiological needs**.- These are the most basic human physical needs, including food, water and sex. In the organisational setting, these are reflected in the needs for adequate heat, air and a base salary to ensure survival.

2. **Safety needs**.- These are the needs for a safe and secure physical and emotional environment and freedom from threats – that is, for freedom from violence and for an orderly society. In an organisational workplace, safety needs reflect the needs for safe jobs, fringe benefits and job security.

3. **Belongingness needs**.- These needs reflect the desire to be accepted by one’s peers, have friendships, be part of a group and be loved. In the organisation, these needs influence the desire for good relationships with co-workers, participation in a work group and a positive relationship with supervisors.
4. Esteem needs.- These needs relate to the desire for a positive self-image and to receive attention, recognition and appreciation from others. Within organisations, esteem needs reflect a motivation for recognition, an increase in responsibility, high status and credit for contributions to the organisation.

5. Self-actualisation needs.- These represent the need for self-fulfillment, which is the highest need category. They concern developing one’s full potential, increasing one’s competence and becoming a better person. Self-actualisation needs can be met in the organisation by providing people with opportunities to grow, be creative, and acquire training for challenging assignments and advancement.

According to Maslow’s theory, low-order needs take priority – they must be satisfied before higher-order needs are activated. The needs are satisfied in sequence: physiological needs come before safety needs, safety needs before social needs, and so on. A person desiring physical safety will devote his or her efforts to securing a safer environment and will not be concerned with esteem needs or self-actualisation needs. Once a need is satisfied, it declines in importance and the next higher need is activated. According to Maslow, a satisfied need ceases to motivate. Maslow’s theory assumes that a person attempts to satisfy the more basic needs (physiological) before directing behavior toward satisfying upper level needs (self actualization). The hierarchy does explain aspects of human behavior in society, but it’s not accurate or thorough enough to explain individual level behavior, including the fact that:

1. It is one directional in approach. It sees the satisfaction of lower order needs as a prerequisite for one to move to the next level of need. It does not say what happens when a higher order need such as self-
actualization is frustrated or is no longer motivating. Does one uses lower order needs to motivate one?

2. It does not take into consideration cultural variations of people. For example, needs, work styles, and work ethics may differ across cultures.

3. The theory cannot be used to predict the behavior.

**Alderfer's ERG Theory**

Clayton Alderfer proposed a modification of Maslow’s theory in an effort to simplify it and respond to criticisms of its lack of empirical verification. His ERG theory identified three categories of needs:

1. **Existence needs.** These are the needs for physical well-being. Needs satisfied by such factors as food, air, water, pay, and working conditions.

2. **Relatedness needs.** These relate to the need for satisfactory relationships with others or needs satisfied by meaningful social and interpersonal relationships.

3. **Growth needs.** These focus on the development of human potential and the desire for personal growth and increased competence. The needs satisfied by an individual making creative and productive contributions.

The ERG model and Maslow’s need hierarchy are similar because both are in hierarchical form and presume that individuals move up the hierarchy one step at a time. However, Alderfer reduced the number of need categories to three and proposed that movement up the hierarchy is more complex, reflecting a frustration-regression principle - namely, that failure to meet a high-order need may trigger a regression to an already fulfilled lower-order need. Thus, a worker who cannot fulfill a need for personal growth may revert to a lower-order need and redirect his or her efforts towards making a lot of money. The ERG model therefore is less rigid than Maslow’s need hierarchy, suggesting that individuals may move down as well as up the hierarchy, depending on their ability to satisfy needs.

**Mc Clelland’s learned theory of needs**

The final content theory was developed by David McClelland. The acquired needs theory proposes that certain types of needs are acquired during the
individual's lifetime. In other words, people are not born with these needs but may learn them through their life experiences. The three needs most frequently studied are these:

1. **Need for achievement.** These are the desire to accomplish something difficult, attain a high standard of success, master complex tasks and surpass others.

2. **Need for affiliation.** These are the desire to form close personal relationships, avoid conflict and establish warm friendships.

3. **Need for power.** These are the desire to influence or control others, be responsible for others and have authority over others.

Early life experiences determine whether people acquire these needs. David C. McClelland has proposed a learned needs theory of motivation closely associated with learning concepts. He believes that many needs are acquired from the culture of a society. Three of these learned needs are the need for achievement (n Ach), the need for affiliation (n Aff), and the need for power (n Pow).

If children are encouraged to do things for themselves and receive reinforcement, they will acquire a need to achieve. If they are reinforced for forming warm human relationships, they will develop a need for affiliation. If they get satisfaction from controlling others, they will acquire a need for power.

For more than 20 years, McClelland studied human needs and their implications for management. People with a high need for achievement tend to be entrepreneurs. They like to do something better than competitors and take sensible business risks. On the other hand, people who have a high need for affiliation are successful 'integrators', whose job is to coordinate the work of several departments in an organization. Integrators include brand managers and project managers, who must have excellent people skills. People with a high need for affiliation are able to establish positive working relationships with others. A high need for power often is associated with successful attainment of top levels in the organizational hierarchy. For example, McClelland studied managers at AT&T for 16 years and found that those with a high need for power were more likely to follow a path of continued promotion over time. More than half of the employees at the top levels had a high need for power. In contrast, managers with a high need for achievement but a low need for power tended to peak earlier in their careers,
and at a lower level. The reason is that achievement needs can be met through the task itself, but power needs can be met only by ascending to a level at which a person has power over others.

McClelland suggested that when a need is strong in a person, its effect is to motivate her to use behavior leading to its satisfaction. For example, a worker with a high n Ach would set challenging goals, works hard to achieve the goals, and use skills and abilities to achieve them. Regardless of his contribution, McClelland was criticized for the use of projective techniques to determine the three needs, because:

- The interpretations and weighing of a story are at best an art than a science. Some scholars question how Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) tests are validated.

- McClelland's claim that n Ach can be learned is in conflict with a body of knowledge/literature stating that motives are normally acquired in childhood and are difficult to alter in adulthood. McClelland acknowledges this problem but points to evidence in politics and religion to indicate that adult behaviors can be changed.

- McClelland's notion of learned needs is questioned on the grounds of whether needs are permanently acquired. Research is needed to determine whether acquired needs last over a period of time (Gibson et al, 2000:136 – 139).

**McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y**

McGregor's Theory X, is based on the assumption that people are inherently bad. This represents a pessimistic view of human nature. According to this theory, people do not really want to work - they have to be pushed, closely supervised, and threatened with some type of punishment. He believed that workers have little or no ambition, prefer to avoid responsibility and will seek security as their major goal. Theory X reflects the "carrot and stick" philosophy, combining punishment and rewards to motivate employees. This approach, however, has two major drawbacks:

1. Managers who accept Theory X as valid tend to use the stick more than the carrot. "If I ever fall behind in my quota," one worker says, "you can bet I hear about it, but if I break my back to get a job done, not a word." The general belief of management under this theory is that workers are
paid to do a good job; management's function is to supervise the work and correct employees if they go off course.

2. The carrot and stick image itself creates a negative attitude toward workers. The manager or supervisor who views others as lazy, incompetent, reluctant to accept responsibility, and interested only in a paycheck often treats subordinates with distrust, suspicion and little respect. This leads to a form of supervision wherein fault finding, blaming, and reprimands are frequent (Reece and Brandt, 1996:163 – 164).

When a manager has low expectations about his employees, his expectations tend to become self-fulfilling prophecies. If a manager believes his employees are bad, employees tend to behave in displeasing ways. This is the negative side of the Rosenthal effect. (Middlebrook, 1980:27).

On the other hand, McGregor Theory Y is premised on the assumption that people are inherently good. This reflects an optimistic view of human behavior. According to this theory, work is as natural to people as play or rest. People's attitudes toward work depend on their previous job experiences and the conditions surrounding the job itself. If employees are able to understand and relate to their personal goals, to their organization's goals, they will tend to be somewhat self-directed and will not need to be threatened or coerced into working. When given the proper encouragement, people will seek, rather than avoid, responsibility, and they will often exercise considerable imagination and creativity in carrying out their duties.

A healthy, mutually supportive relationship based on trust, openness, and mutual respect can create a work climate in which employees want to give more of them (Reece and Brandt, 1996: 164 – 165). The above work climate or environment also promotes a Pygmalion effect (enhanced performance that results from others having positive expectations of us) where workers know that the supervisor/manager expects more from them. As a result, they simply perform more than expected (Gibson et al, 2000:151). When a manager has high expectations about his employees, his expectations tend to become self-fulfilling prophecies. If a manager believes his employees are good, employees tend to behave in pleasing ways. This is the positive side of the Rosenthal effect. (Middlebrook, 1980:27).

From the above, it can be deduced that a manager's negative attitude toward employees, that is characterized by mistrust, punishment and general disrespect, only helps to engender mistrust, disrespect, sabotage and
generally negative attitude in employees. No one wins in this situation. Even the organization that feeds everyone suffers. Conversely, a manager's positive attitude toward employees that is characterized by trust, support, openness, unconditional mutual respect can help in still the same values in employees. This creates a win-win situation for all including the organization.

**Ouchi's Theory Z**

Professor William Ouchi formulated Theory Z to describe characteristics common to certain successful Japanese and American companies. Organizations dedicated to this management style generally have a lifetime employment policy. Even when sales are down, employees are not likely to be laid off and thus have good reason to feel that their own long-term fate is tied to the company's. Workers are likely to perform job tasks conscientiously and enthusiastically to achieve a perfect final product.

There is open communication, both vertically and horizontally, with complete trust amongst groups and individuals, because all employees have the same goal: the good of the company. Employees see themselves as family with the company as the parent that looks after their welfare. Theory Z also assumes that the best management approach involves workers at all levels. In theory Z organizations, employees gain a psychological sense of belonging because most decisions are made in the groups. Collective decision-making in these companies encourages ownership of decisions, and commitment to goals set. No one in the groups will try and sabotage the company or its mission and values (Reece and Brandt, 1996:165–166).

With egalitarianism as a central feature - this theory implies that each person can apply discretion and can work autonomously without close supervision, because they are to be trusted. Trust - the belief that individual and organizational goals correspond, accounts for the high levels of commitment, of loyalty, and of productivity (Kini and Hobson, 2002:605).

**Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory**

Frederick Herzberg developed another popular theory of motivation called the two-factor theory. Herzberg interviewed hundreds of workers about times when they were highly motivated to work and other times when they were dissatisfied and unmotivated at work. His findings suggested that the work characteristics associated with dissatisfaction were quite different from those
pertaining to satisfaction, which prompted the notion that two factors influence work motivation.

The two-factor theory is illustrated in Exhibit. The centre of the scale is neutral, meaning that workers are neither satisfied nor dissatisfied. Herzberg believed that two entirely separate dimensions contribute to an employee’s behaviour at work.

The first, called hygiene factors, involves the presence or absence of job dissatisfiers, such as working conditions, pay, company policies and interpersonal relationships. When hygiene factors are poor, work is dissatisfying. However, good hygiene factors simply remove the dissatisfaction; they do not in themselves cause people to become highly satisfied and motivated in their work. These include salary, interpersonal relations – supervisor, interpersonal relations – subordinates, interpersonal relations – peers, supervision – technical, company policy and administration, working conditions, factors in personal life, status, and job security.

The second set of factors does influence job satisfaction. Motivators are high-level needs and include achievement, recognition, responsibility and opportunity for growth. Herzberg believed that when motivators are absent, workers are neutral towards work, but when motivators are present, workers are highly motivated and satisfied.

![Herzberg's two-factor theory](image)

**Herzberg's two-factor theory**

Thus, hygiene factors and motivators represent two distinct factors that influence motivation. Hygiene factors work only in the area of dissatisfaction. Unsafe working conditions or a noisy work environment will cause people to
be dissatisfied; their correction will not lead to a high level of motivation and satisfaction. Motivators such as challenge, responsibility and recognition must be in place before employees will be highly motivated to excel at their work. The implication of the two-factor theory for managers is clear. Providing hygiene factors will eliminate employee dissatisfaction but will not motivate workers to high achievement levels.

On the other hand, recognition, challenge and opportunities for personal growth are powerful motivators and will promote high satisfaction and performance. The manager’s role is to remove dissatisfiers – that is, to provide hygiene factors sufficient to meet basic needs – and then use motivators to meet higher-level needs and propel employees towards greater achievement and satisfaction. Consider the manager’s role at Outback Steakhouse.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivators (Esteem &amp; Self-Actualization needs) Related to the work itself</th>
<th>Hygiene Factors (Basic, Security &amp; Social needs) Peripheral to the work itself</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Achievement</td>
<td>• Policies and administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Recognition for accomplishment</td>
<td>• Supervision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Challenging Work</td>
<td>• Working conditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Increased Responsibility</td>
<td>• Interpersonal relations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Growth and Development</td>
<td>• Money, security, benefits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>HIGHER LEVEL NEEDS</strong></td>
<td><strong>LOWER LEVEL NEEDS</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Criticism leveled at Herzberg’s motivation-hygiene factor theory revolves around:

- The small sample of accountants and engineers he used as subjects. The issue is whether results from such a small sample could be generalized to other occupational groups and to other countries.

- Other researchers believe that Herzberg oversimplifies the nature of job satisfaction, leading to the assumption that a manager can easily change hygiene factors or dissatisfiers and thus produce job satisfaction. This, of course, isn’t an accurate view of how complex and difficult motivation and job satisfaction are in terms of workplace manipulation.

- The other criticism is a time factor. Herzberg’s methodology requires people to remember critical incidences in their past that made them happy or unhappy. Memory, primacy, and telling ability become crucial
points in this context. They also believed that Herzberg’s analysis ignores subconscious factors.

- Herzberg offered no explanation as to why the various extrinsic and intrinsic job factors should affect performance.

- The two continua of Herzberg’s theory, presents a problem in terms of interpreting job satisfaction. For example, when one has low job satisfaction, does one simultaneously experience high job dissatisfaction? When one has low job dissatisfaction, does one simultaneously experience high job satisfaction (Gibson et al, 2000:134 – 135)

ii) PROCESS PERSPECTIVE ON MOTIVATION

Process theories stress the difference in people’s needs and focus on the cognitive processes that create these differences. These theories explain the way workers select behavioural actions to meet their needs and determine whether their choices were successful. We will now examine process motivation theories, which attempt to explain and describe some of the factors, typically outside the individual, that energize, direct, sustain, and stop behavior. The major process theories of motivation to be discussed hereunder include:

1. Expectancy
2. Equity
3. Social learning theory
4. Operant conditioning
5. Goal setting; and
6. Job Design Theory

**Expectancy theory**

A quite popular explanation of motivation, developed by Victor Vroom, is expectancy theory, rated as one of the most prominent motivation and leadership theories. The majority of the early studies (about 50) tested the accuracy of expectancy theory in predicting employee behavior. Vroom defines motivation as a process governing choices among the alternatives forms of voluntary activity. Expectancy theory suggests that motivation depends on individuals’ expectations about their ability to perform tasks and
receive desired rewards. Expectancy theory is associated with the work of Victor Vroom, although a number of scholars have made contributions in this area. Expectancy theory is concerned not with identifying types of needs but with the thinking process that individuals use to achieve rewards. In his view, most behaviors are under the voluntary control of the person and are consequently motivated. The expectancy theory is explained in terms of four concepts:

1. First and second level outcomes – the first level outcomes resulting from behavior are associated with doing the job itself. These outcomes include productivity, absenteeism, turnover, and quality of productivity. Second level outcomes are those events (rewards or punishments) that the first level outcomes are likely to produce, such as merit pay increase, group acceptance or rejection, and promotion.

2. Instrumentality refers to the individual’s perception that first level outcomes are associated with second level outcomes.

3. Valance is the preference for outcomes as seen by the individual. For example, a person may prefer a 9% increase in pay over a transfer to another department. An outcome is positively valent when it’s preferred and negatively valent when it’s not preferred or avoided. An outcome has a zero valence when people are indifferent to it.

4. Expectancy refers to the individual’s belief concerning the likelihood or subjective probability that a particular behavior will be followed by a particular outcome such as level of performance (Gibson et al, 2000:160 – 161). In (Gibson et al, 2000: 164), several studies have been quoted for and against expectancy theorists, for example, Humphreys and Einstein (2004:58) expectancy theory focuses on individual perceptions of the work environment and the interactions of that context with one's personal expectations (Fudge & Schlacter,1999). Since we believe a comprehensive model must include aspects of individual personality, an expectancy paradigm is a logical starting point (Gerhart, Minkoff, & Olsen, 1995). In addition, empirical support for the concepts of expectancy, instrumentality, and valences has been rather broad (Isaac, Zerbe, & Pitt, 2001). Based upon this generic framework of expectancy theory, we agree that a comprehensive model of work motivation must include the concepts and elements of effort, individual abilities and perceptions, goal directed behavior, intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, satisfaction, and perceived equity.
Expectancy theory is based on the relationship between the individual's effort, the individual's performance and the desirability of outcomes associated with high performance. These elements and the relationships among them are illustrated in Exhibit. The keys to expectancy theory are the expectancies for the relationships between effort, performance and outcomes, with the value of the outcomes to the individual.

\( E \rightarrow P \) expectancy involves whether putting effort into a task will lead to high performance. For this expectancy to be high, the individual must have the ability, previous experience and necessary machinery, tools and opportunity to perform.

\( P \rightarrow O \) expectancy involves whether successful performance will lead to the desired outcome.

In the case of a person who is motivated to win a job-related award, this expectancy concerns the belief that high performance will truly lead to the award. If the \( P \rightarrow O \) expectancy is high, the individual will be more highly motivated. If the expectancy is that high performance will not produce the desired outcome, motivation will be lower.

Valence is the value of outcomes, or attraction for outcomes, for the individual. If the outcomes that are available from high effort and good performance are not valued by employees, motivation will be low. Likewise, if outcomes have a high value, motivation will be higher. Expectancy theory attempts not to define specific types of needs or rewards, but only to establish that they exist and may be different for every individual. One employee may want to be promoted to a position of increased responsibility, and another may have high valence for good relationships with peers. Consequently, the first person will be motivated to work hard for a promotion and the second for the opportunity for a team position that will keep him or her associated with a group.
Major Elements of Expectancy Theory

A simple sales department example will explain how the expectancy model in Exhibit 16.4 works. If Jane Anderson, a salesperson at the Diamond Gift Shop, believes that increased selling effort will lead to higher personal sales, we can say she has a high E – P expectancy. Moreover, if Jane also believes that higher personal sales will lead to a promotion or pay raise, we can say that she has a high P – O expectancy. Finally, if Jane places a high value on the promotion or pay raise, valence is high and she will have a high motivational force. On the other hand, if either the E – P or P – O expectancy is low, or if the money or promotion has low valence for Jane, the overall motivational force will be low. For an employee to be highly motivated, all three factors in the expectancy model must be high.

As a result, these authors feel strongly that the additional variables are present in the expectancy theory of motivation such:

1. **Follower self-concept** - A contribution of Shamir, House, and Arthur (1993), proposed the motivational importance of the self-concept of followers within the leader/follower dyad. They theorized the transformational effects of charismatic leaders were the result of increased follower motivation by assisting those followers in the maintenance and enhancement of the self-concept.

2. **Follower motivational development** - The work of Leonard et al. (1999) has given rise to a concept of motivational development. The idea being that individuals might move through stages of motivational development whereby initial behaviors may be motivated by simple
enjoyment but maturity and experience may lead that individual to elicit certain behaviors for things like status or personal fulfillment.

3. **Follower self-efficacy** - The idea of self efficacy has an impressive psychological heritage (Wood & Bandura, 1989). In addition, there is evidence supporting the relationship between self-efficacy, effort, and performance (Harrison & Rainer, 1997; Saks, 1995).

4. **Task complexity** - Task complexity must be a part of a meta-theory of work motivation as tasks represent the foundation of the leader/follower relationship (Griffin, 1987). Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) suggest altering the elements of task complexity can alter one's work identity. This could lead to a diminished motivational state, as employees are motivated to create positive self-images of themselves in work settings (Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994). In addition, task complexity has been shown to be potential moderating variable (Jehn, Northcraft, & Neale, 1999; Wood, Mento, & Locke, 1987). Moreover, the conceptual relationship between task complexity and self-efficacy is such that including either construct necessitates the inclusion of the other (Winters & Latham, 1996).

5. **Leader responsibilities** - An inclusive process of work motivation simply cannot be represented without including leadership behaviors and responsibilities. Steers et al. (1996: 5), while addressing the interrelated concepts of motivation and leadership, assert "... any analysis is incomplete unless both factors are considered."

6. **Congruency** - In the current management literature, Wofford et al. (2001: 203) state that leaders "must be aware of the motive patterns of followers and adapt behaviors to match those patterns." Further, Shamir et al. (1993) suggested there must be a "congruency" between a leader's communication and a follower's values (Ehrhart & Klein, 2001: 155).

7. **Temperament** - We realize the term temperament is somewhat broad. We believe strongly, though, that a comprehensive work motivation model cannot exist without taking into account the personalities of leader and follower and the communication match and/or mismatch of those personalities. Psychological type theorists suggest, "different personality temperaments prefer to receive and process information differently" (Ziegert, 2000: 307). There is both intuitive appeal and significant research supporting this idea (Myers & McCaulley, 1985). Further, temperament congruency has been examined in various
relationships and contexts. Charkins, O'Toole, and Wetzel (1985) found that temperament incongruence had a negative influence on student performance and satisfaction. Boreham and Watts (1998) concluded learning was influenced by the degree of match between teacher and student preferred styles. Temperament congruence has even been offered as a means to match advertising imagery (Labarbera, 1998) and sales pitches (Brock, 1994) to individual personality types.

Critics of expectancy theory further say theorists differ on how they define concepts (e.g., effort, motivation) and how they measure them. They also differ on research designs. No systematic approach is being used across investigations. Expectancy theory does not specify which outcomes are relevant to which individual in which situation. Expectancy theory creates an implicit assumption that all motivation is conscious. Individuals are assumed to consciously calculate the pleasure or pain they expect to attain or avoid; then a choice is made. Although, it is generally accepted that individuals aren’t always conscious of their motives, expectancies, and perceptual processes, expectancy theory says nothing about subconscious motivation. Studies testing this model have relied on employees from a single organization who were doing the same or similar jobs. These studies seriously limit and restrict the range of expectancies and instrumentalities. These types of studies raise questions about generalizing the results of these studies to other situations.

**Equity Theory**

J. Stacey Adams, while working as a research psychologist with the General Electric Co. in Crotonville, New York, developed and tested an equity theory of motivation. Equity theory focuses on individuals’ perceptions of how fairly they are treated compared with others. Equity theory proposes that people are motivated to seek social equity in the rewards they expect for performance. If people perceive their compensation as equal to what others receive for similar contributions, they will believe that their treatment is fair and equitable. People evaluate equity by a ratio of inputs to outcomes. Inputs to a job include education, experience, effort and ability. Outcomes from a job include pay, recognition, benefits and promotions. The input-to-outcome ratio may be compared to another person in the workgroup or to a perceived group average.
The essence of the equity theory of motivation is that employees compare their efforts and rewards with those of others in similar work situations. This theory of motivation is based on the assumption that individuals, who work in exchange for rewards from the organization, are motivated by a desire to be equitable treated at work. A key management role is the maintenance of employee perceptions of equity in the workplace. The theory is based on four important terms:

- **Person:** the individual for equity or inequity is perceived;
- **Comparison other:** any individual(s) or group used by Person as referent regarding the ratio of inputs and outcomes.
- **Inputs:** the individual characteristics brought by Person to the job. These may be achieved (e.g. skills, experience and learning) or ascribed (e.g. age, sex, race).
- **Outcomes:** what Person received from the job (e.g. recognition, fringe benefits, pay).

In essence, this theory proposes that individuals are motivated to maintain fair or "equitable" relationships between themselves and to change those relationships that are unfair, "inequitable" (Kini and Hobson, 2002:605). Critics of this theory, firstly, questioned the extent to which inequity that results from overpayment (rewards) leads to perceived inequity. Simply because employees are seldom told they're overpaid. Secondly, equity research focuses on short term comparisons. What about long term comparisons? A state of equity exists whenever the ratio of one person's outcomes to inputs equals the ratio of another's outcomes to inputs. Inequity occurs when the input–outcome ratios are out of balance – as when a person with high level of education or experience receives the same salary as a new, less educated employee. Perceived inequity also occurs in the other direction. Thus, an employee who discovers he or she is making more money than other people who contribute the same inputs to the company may feel the need to correct the inequity by working harder, getting more education or considering lower pay. Perceived inequity creates tensions within individuals that motivate them to bring equity into balance.

The most common ways to reduce a perceived inequity are to:

- **Change inputs:** A person may choose to increase or decrease his or her inputs to the organisation. For example, underpaid individuals may
reduce their level of effort or increase their absenteeism. Overpaid people may increase effort on the job.

- **Change outcomes:** A person may change his or her outcomes. An underpaid person may request a salary increase or a bigger office. A union may try to improve wages and working conditions in order to be consistent with a comparable union whose members make more money.

- **Distort perceptions:** Research suggests that people may distort perceptions of equity if they’re unable to change inputs or outcomes. They may artificially increase the status attached to their jobs or distort others’ perceived rewards to bring equity into balance.

- **Leave the job:** People who feel inequitably treated may decide to leave their jobs rather than suffer the inequity of being underpaid or overpaid. In their new jobs, they expect to find more favorable balance of rewards.

The implication of equity theory for managers is that employees do evaluate the perceived equity of their rewards compared to others. An increase in salary or a promotion will have no motivational effect if it is perceived as inequitable relative to that of other employees. Some organisations, for example, have created a two-tier wage system to reduce wage rates. New employees make far less than experienced ones, which creates a basis for inequity. Equity theory ignores reactions to experienced inequity. It’s not likely that two people will react somewhat differently to the same magnitude of inequity if they believe different things caused the inequity (Gibson et al, 2000:166 – 167) In practical terms, what the theory says is that if employees judge their inputs (efforts) in the organization to be rewarded fairly and justly in comparison to others doing the same job, employees will be motivated to work even harder to earn those rewards. If however, employees perceives that their inputs (efforts) are not rewarded fairly and justly in comparison to others doing the same job, employees will be less motivated and therefore exert less efforts in their jobs. In this context the role of managers is critical in ensuring that employees:

- Don’t feel short-changed by the organization;
- Inputs (efforts) are recognized and remunerated fairly; and
- Outcomes as in pay and benefits are fairly and justly distributed amongst all shareholders.
Smart managers try to keep feelings of equity in balance in order to keep their workforces motivated. This will in turn ensure that tensions and negative attitudes are not allowed to take root, which may assist in keeping workers happy and productive. Motivated!

**Goal setting theory**

In 1968, Edwin Locke proposed that goal setting was a cognitive process of some practical utility. His view was that an individual’s conscious goals and intentions are the primary determinants of behavior. A goal is the object of action; it’s what a person attempts to accomplish. Locke also carefully described the attributes of the mental(cognitive) processes of goal setting. These are:

- **Goal specificity** refers to the degree of quantitative precision (clarity) of the goal. For example, a goal that says ‘we will increase our market share next year’ is clear but not quantitatively precise. A goal that says ‘we will increase our market share next year by 5%’ is both clear and quantitatively precise.

- **Goal difficulty** is the degree of proficiency or the level of performance sought. For example, increasing our market share next year by 5% is both realistic and attainable, but increasing our market share next year by 60%, may both be unrealistic and unattainable.

- **Goal commitment** is the amount of effort used to achieve a goal.

- **Goal intensity** pertains to the process of setting the goal or of determining how to reach it. Goal setting process entails:

  1. Diagnosis for goal-setting readiness (this involves looking at people, history of change in the organization, job and technology, and mission, plan and strategy of the company).

  2. Preparation for goal-setting (which may involve participation via increased interaction, communication, formal training and development, establishment of action plans and the establishment of criteria for assessing effectiveness).

  3. Implementation which may involve the following steps:

     - Goal setting attributes - specificity, difficulty, intensity, and commitment.
• Intermediate review - Frequency, exchange of ideas, and modifications.

• Final review - Discussion, analysis, development and recycling.

• Anticipated goal-setting results - Improved motivation to perform, plan, organize and control.

If goal-setting is to be an effective motivational technique, it must be carefully planned and implemented. A feedback loop is critical to monitor which goals are achieved and why, which goals are not being achieved and why (Gibson et al, 2000:167 – 169). Gerhart and Rynes (2003:125 -126) highlight the predictive powers of the goal setting theory (GST). In particular, this theory predicts that:

• Higher effort and performance results when people commit to difficult and specific goals rather than to vague commitments.

• Monetary incentives will affect performance only to the extent that such incentives influence the choice of goals and the extent of goal commitment.

• Goal commitment will interact with goal difficulty to determine performance.

**Job design theory**

Task Characteristics theory (Job Design) (JD): Seek to identify task characteristics of jobs, how these characteristics combined to form different jobs, and their relationship to employee motivation, satisfaction, and performance (Kini and Hobson, 2002:605). The Hackman-Oldham job characteristics model, a derivative of this theory developed in Japan contends that providing employees with task variety, task identity, task significance, task autonomy, and feedback, will lead to three critical psychological states (experienced meaningfulness of the work, experienced responsibility for outcomes, and knowledge of the actual results) which, in turn, will lead to high internal motivation, high quality work performance, high work satisfaction, and low absenteeism and turnover (McAfee, Quarstein, and Ardalan, 1995:7 - 12).

The implications of this theory for management are that in order to keep employees motivated and satisfied in their jobs managers must:

• Provide their employees with a variety of skills in the workplace;
• Change the nature of employees’ jobs from time to time to prevent boredom;
• Constantly point out that the tasks that employees do for the organization is important in achieving company objectives;
• Managers must give employees the freedom and independence to structure, schedule (within the constraints of the company) their tasks; and
• Most importantly, managers must provide constant feedback as to how employees are measuring to set goals.

iii) THE REINFORCEMENT THEORY

The reinforcement approach to employee motivation sidesteps the issues of employee needs and thinking processes described in the content and process theories. Reinforcement theory simply looks at the relationship between behaviour and its consequences. It focuses on changing or modifying the employees’ on-the-job behaviour through the appropriate use of immediate rewards and punishments.

Reinforcement tools: Behaviour modification is the name given to the set of techniques by which reinforcement theory is used to modify human behaviour. The basic assumption underlying behaviour modification is the law of effect, which states that behaviour that is positively reinforced tends to be repeated, and behaviour that is not reinforced tends not to be repeated. Reinforcement is defined as anything that causes certain behaviour to be repeated or inhibited. The four reinforcement tools are positive reinforcement, avoidance learning, punishment and extinction.

Each type of reinforcement is a consequence of either a pleasant or unpleasant event being applied or withdrawn following a person’s behaviour. The four types of reinforcement are summarised in Exhibit.

Positive reinforcement: Positive reinforcement is the administration of a pleasant and rewarding consequence following desired behaviour. A good example of positive reinforcement is immediate praise for an employee who arrives on time or does a little extra in his or her work. The pleasant consequence will increase the likelihood of the excellent work behaviour
occurring again. As another example, Frank Bohac, CEO of Computer Systems Development, has rewarded his employees with computers, holidays and even horses for meeting personal as well as organisational goals. Studies have shown that positive reinforcement does help to improve organisational performance. In addition, non-financial rewards, such as positive feedback, are often as effective as financial incentives.

**Avoidance learning:** Avoidance learning is the removal of an unpleasant consequence following desired behaviour. Avoidance learning is sometimes called negative reinforcement. expectancy were low. The Warreens needed a simple, short term goal as a way to energise their young workers. They proposed a simple plan: if workers would help reduce food costs to below 35 per cent of sales without sacrificing food quality or service, they would be rewarded with half the savings. Katzinger’s workers were well-trained and knew they had the skills and ability to meet the goal if they all worked together; thus, the E – P expectancy was high. Workers immediately began proposing ideas to reduce waste, such as matching perishable food orders more closely to expected sales. The P – O expectancy was also high because of the level of trust at the company; workers were highly motivated to cooperate to decrease food costs because they knew everyone would benefit from the savings. Since anyone could look at the financials, workers could actually track their progress towards meeting the goal. At the end of the first month, food costs had fallen nearly 2 per cent and employees took home about US$40 each from the savings. Later monthly payouts were as high as US$95 per employee. By the end of the year, food consistency and service had improved and Katzinger’s had indeed reduced its food costs to below 35 per cent of total sales, saving the company US$30 000. The Warreens gladly distributed US$15 000 of that amount to their workers for helping to meet the goal. Now, the Warreens are working out a similar plan to increase sales at Katzinger’s behaviour modification The set of techniques by which reinforcement theory is used to modify human behaviour. law of effect The assumption that positively tends to be repeated and unreinforced or negatively reinforced behaviour tends to be inhibited. reinforcement Anything that causes a given behaviour to be repeated or inhibited. Reinforcement theory A motivation theory based on the relationship between a given behaviour and its consequences.
Employees learn to do the right thing by avoiding unpleasant situations. Avoidance learning occurs when a supervisor stops criticizing or reprimanding an employee once the incorrect behaviour has stopped.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Positive reinforcement:} & \\
\text{increases likelihood that behaviour will be repeated.} & \\
\text{Avoidance learning:} & \\
\text{behaviour is avoided.} & \\
\text{Extinction:} & \\
\text{behaviour is weakened until it will be repeated.} & \\
\text{Punishment:} & \\
\text{behaviour is weakened until it will be repeated.} & \\
\end{align*}
\]

\text{Changing behaviour with reinforcement}

\textbf{Punishment:} Punishment is the imposition of unpleasant outcomes on an employee. Punishment typically occurs following undesirable behaviour. For example, a supervisor may berate an employee for performing a task incorrectly. The supervisor expects that the negative outcome will serve as a punishment and reduce the likelihood of the behaviour recurring. The use of punishment in organisations is controversial and often criticized, because it fails to indicate the correct behaviour. However, almost all managers report finding it necessary to occasionally impose forms of punishment ranging from verbal reprimands to employee suspensions or firings.

\textbf{Extinction:} Extinction is the withdrawal of a positive reward, meaning that behaviour is no longer reinforced and hence is less likely to occur in the future. If a perpetually tardy employee fails to receive praise and pay raises, he or she will begin to realise that the behaviour is not producing desired outcomes. The behaviour will gradually disappear if it is not continually reinforced. Some executives use reinforcement theory very effectively to shape employees' behaviour. Jack Welch, when chairman of General Electric,
always made it a point to reinforce behaviour. As an up-and-coming group executive, Welch reinforced purchasing agents by having someone telephone him whenever an agent got a price concession from a vendor. Welch would stop whatever he was doing and call the agent to say, 'That's wonderful news; you just knocked a nickel a ton off the price of steel.' He would also sit down and scribble out a congratulatory note to the agent. The effective use of positive reinforcement and the heightened motivation of purchasing employees marked Jack Welch as executive material in the organization.

**Schedules of reinforcement:** A great deal of research into reinforcement theory suggests that the timing of reinforcement has an impact on the speed of employee learning. Schedules of reinforcement relate to the frequency with which and intervals over which reinforcement occurs. A reinforcement Recommend pay raise.

Avoid reprimands, negative statements schedule can be selected to have maximum impact on employees' job behaviour. There are five basic types of reinforcement schedules: continuous reinforcement and four types of partial reinforcement.

**Continuous reinforcement:** With a continuous reinforcement schedule, every occurrence of the desired behaviour is reinforced. This schedule can be very effective in the early stages of learning new types of behaviour, because every attempt has a pleasant consequence.

**Partial reinforcement:** However, in the real world of organizations, it is often impossible to reinforce every correct behaviour. With a partial reinforcement schedule, the reinforcement is administered only after some occurrences of the correct behaviour. There are four types of partial reinforcement schedules.

1 **Fixed-interval schedule:** The fixed-interval schedule rewards employees at specified time intervals. If an employee displays the correct behaviour each day, reinforcement may occur every week. Regular paycheques or quarterly bonuses are examples of a fixed-interval reinforcement. At Leone Ackerly's Mini Maid franchise, workers are rewarded with an attendance bonus each pay period if they have gone to work every day on time and in uniform.
2 *Fixed-ratio schedule:* With a fixed-ratio schedule, reinforcement occurs after a specified number of desired responses—say, after every fifth. For example, paying a field hand $9 for picking 10 kilograms of capsicums is a fixed-ratio schedule. Most piece-rate pay systems are fixed-ratio schedules.

3 *Variable-interval schedule:* With a variable-interval schedule, reinforcement is administered at random times that cannot be predicted by the employee. An example would be a random inspection by the manufacturing supervisor of the production floor, at which time he or she commends employees on their good behaviour.

4 *Variable-ratio schedule.* The variable-ratio schedule is based on a random number of instances of the desired behaviour, rather than on variable time periods. Reinforcement may occur sometimes after five, 10, 15 or 20 displays of behaviour. One example is the attraction of poker machines for gamblers. People anticipate that the machine will pay a jackpot after a certain number of plays, but the exact number of plays is variable. The schedules of reinforcement available to managers are illustrated in Exhibit

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schedule of reinforcement</th>
<th>Nature of reinforcement</th>
<th>Effect on behaviour when applied</th>
<th>Effect of behaviour when withdrawn</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Continuous</td>
<td>Reward given after each desired behaviour</td>
<td>Leads to fast learning of new behaviour</td>
<td>Rapid Extinction</td>
<td>Praise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fixed Interval</td>
<td>Reward given at fixed time of intervals</td>
<td>Leads to average and irregular performance</td>
<td>Rapid Extinction</td>
<td>Weekly Pay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fixed Ratio</td>
<td>Reward given at fixed amount of output</td>
<td>Quickly leads to very high and stable performance</td>
<td>Rapid Extinction</td>
<td>Piece-rate pay system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variable Interval</td>
<td>Reward given at variable time</td>
<td>Leads to moderately High and stable performance</td>
<td>Slow Extinction</td>
<td>Performances appraisal &amp; awards given at random times each months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variable Ratio</td>
<td>Reward given at variable amount of output</td>
<td>Leads to very High performance</td>
<td>Slow Extinction</td>
<td>Sales Bonus tied to number of sales calls with random checks</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Schedule of reinforcements*
Continuous reinforcement is most effective for establishing new learning, but behaviour is continuous reinforcement schedule vulnerable to extinction. Partial reinforcement schedules are more effective for maintaining behaviour over extended time periods. The most powerful is the variable-ratio schedule, because employee behaviour will persist for a long time due to the administration of reinforcement only after a long interval. One example of a small business that successfully uses reinforcement theory is Parsons Pine

**FACTORS EFFECTING MOTIVATION**

**Economic Rewards:** Money is a primary motivator. Even though other sectors may matter more, it would be wrong to suggest that pay does not affect motivation. Pay is a generalised reinforcer as people can use it to obtain other rewards of their choice. While base salary remains the largest share of the total cash pie, cash incentive plans continue to grow in popularity. Special achievement incentive rewards, spot bonuses, and cash-equivalent rewards all play a role in the economic reward package.

There has been some suggestion that high pay can actually undermine people’s interest in their work because they infer that they are only doing it for the money. As such, pay is a reward which has an impact on the direction, effort and persistence of work behaviour.

That said, pay cannot be considered in isolation. For example, people may be concerned as much about distributive justice and hence the fairness of their pay as the pay itself. Also, the introduction of performance related pay often seems not to improve productivity levels. This may well be because it is often hard to assess performance accurately and fully, which would mean that people see only very limited connection between their behaviour and the rewards they receive.

**Independence / Autonomy:** Freedom to take action, to make decisions, to work independently, is one of the factors most valued by people. Autonomy is crucial to achieving a sense of self-worth. Autonomy strongly influences the decision of individuals to join and stay with an organization. It 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 supervisor in performing their job function. The greater is the degree of
autonomy and responsibilities, the higher motivation & satisfaction tends to be. When participants were given autonomous control (operator control) in Wall et al’s (1990) study, increased performance, increased intrinsic job satisfaction, and decreased job pressure were reported.

The more control and autonomy employees have over their work, the more they're able to use their minds. The issue of control goes far beyond the intellectual realm, though. Decades of research shows that when people feel they don't have control, their intellectual functioning, interpersonal functioning, and behavior deteriorate.

Feeling out of control creates tremendous stress and, if chronic, leads to the condition called Learned Helplessness, which in turn leads to depression. When employees have a say in their work, and therefore feel in control, they become more energized, enthusiastic, and productive. (Important Note - the drive for control is so powerful that if employees aren't given opportunities for positive control, they will find ways of exerting negative control, such as calling in sick, engaging in work slow downs, illegitimately using Short Term Disability, etc.).

**Promotions and growth in the organization:** Promotions and Transfers: While having economic value, promotions also carry crucial social and psychological meaning (recognition and sense of accomplishment) that, for many, far outweigh additional money or perquisites.

**Opportunity to Grow:** The chance to improve one's self is an enormously important source of motivation. Organizations that offer this advantage are in a win-win partnership with their employees. The company creates and maintains a talented workforce to use as a competitive weapon, and the employees sharpen their own competitive edge as they self-actualize. Talk about synergy.

**Work Itself:** The most important factors inherent in the job is type of work. Nature of Job affects Job motivation and Satisfaction of employees. The nature of work as a source of motivation varies with personality. For some, detailed work involving technical tasks can be a turn-on; for others, fast-paced work with changing goals, roles and challenges is their dream job. But whatever the person-job match, the work itself proves every bit as important a motivator as
economic rewards. If employees have to do the work of similar nature for a long time, they feel dissatisfied. On the contrary, if the "work" is interesting, and not fatiguing, if the work of an employee is of different type, it gives more motivation and Satisfaction. Perhaps most important to employee motivation is helping individuals believe that the work they are doing is important and that their tasks are meaningful.

**Supervision/leadership:** Leaders inspire people through their words and actions. By presenting a clear sense of purpose, offering a vision worth striving toward, and providing encouragement, leaders have the power to imbue people with hope, enthusiasm and determination.

The one of the important determinant of motivation is supervision and the style of leadership. Generally employee-centered leadership style enhances a great amount of motivation as the leader looks after the subordinates carefully; displays friendship, respect and warmth etc. towards employees. On other hand, production oriented leader may cause low motivation to the employees and may affect, the turnover and absenteeism adversely. Of course, it all depends on the situation. An effective and capable supervisor satisfies his subordinates much more than an inefficient supervisor. Motivation with leadership behaviour of the supervisor results in relatively low turnover rates, grievances and absenteeism, On the other hand, production-oriented supervisors who view their subordinates as "people to get work done" cause low motivation, and consequently relatively high rates of grievances, turnover and absenteeism.

**Recreation:** Many work places are woefully devoid of smiles and laughter, yet a bit of humor goes a long way toward brightening the day and infusing spirit into the culture Employees today want to enjoy the actual work they are performing. They can often withstand highly stressful working environments and uncertainty about the future of their organization if they enjoy their actual work activities such as helping customers, using their creativity, or solving problems. Recreation & Fun plays a vital role in motivation.

**Goals:** Goal setting is core to motivation. Goals are powerful motivators. However, goals are only as good as the corresponding measurement system. This is one of the best-known conclusions from the study of
motivation and performance Goals give people a clear sense of what is expected of them, offering challenge and opportunity. Organization should also set reasonable output and quality norms for workers based on time study. Remember, very tight norms cause frustration; and, to loose sets in complacency Goals can help to establish a direction, and this in turn encourages people to persist in trying hard. They can energize and inspire exceptional effort to achieve them. Work performance tends to be significantly better if the following conditions hold than if they do not:

1. A goal for work performance is defined in clear and precise terms.
2. It is perceived as difficult but not impossible.
3. The person is committed to goal achievement (perhaps because he or she has participated in setting the goal).
4. There is feedback on how he or she is doing.

There are exceptions to this. For example, when a person is learning a new task, it is better to avoid performance goals at first. Also, although goal-setting is often successful, there may be cases when a person is not willing to commit to a goal that his or her boss would like to see achieved. Goal-setting theory pays little attention to the social processes that might occur in goal negotiation, nor to the different reasons individuals might have for wanting or not wanting to achieve any particular goal. And of course, if a person wants to achieve, goal A quite a lot but goal B even more, then goal A will probably not get much attention.

**Feedback**

Positive feedback from a person's manager, peers, subordinates and others has a profound impact on motivation. The general consensus regarding effectiveness of feedback is that positive constructive feedback enhances employee motivation (Ambrose & Kulik, 1999; Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 1999; Gagne & Deci, 2005; Huszcz, 2004; Lewis, 2003). Gagne & Deci’s (2005) meta-review highlighted that negative feedback can undermine both extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, leaving people demotivated. Negative feedback should therefore be carefully evaluated before it is given. Feedback also enhances positive effects of other motivational techniques such as goal-setting.

Feedback as a component of communication is also regarded as an out come after performance. It is seen as an outcome due to the fact that it informs
employees about their performance. Feedback is provided by different sources including the task itself, the supervisors, other employees, the employee (himself/herself) and the organization (by means of performance evaluation). Such informal psychic rewards like positive feedback are more than after-the-fact reinforcement; they are also an incentive that people seek to feel appreciated for what we do and who we are -- our unique abilities, skills and knowledge.

**Recognition**: "Praise to the human being is what sunshine and rain are to the flower".

The value of recognition and praise has been acknowledged by many. Mark Twain said, "I can live for two months on a good compliment." John Masefield said, "Once in a century a man may be ruined or made insufferable by praise. But surely once a minute something generous dies for want of it."

But even when managers recognize the importance of recognition and praise, many do not know how to do deliver it effectively. Praise can have its pitfall. So it can be said that a good way of praising and recognizing ones efforts can lead to an effective motivation.

**Achievement**: Specific successes, such as the successful completion of a job, solutions to problems, vindication, and seeing the results of your work helps in motivating employees. ones a job has been done successfully that feeling of achievement makes him feel good and he gets motivated for the next one.

**Rewards based on job performance**: Formal, Psychic Rewards have symbolic significance. They spotlight individual or team achievement and outstanding contribution, giving people high-visibility recognition that tends to be warmly remembered years after the event. Organizational reward systems have traditionally either a fixed salary or hourly rate system or an incentive system. Fixed rewards can be tied directly to performance through merit pay systems, 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 accomplishments. Four popular incentive systems include profit sharing, gain sharing, lump sum bonuses, and pay for knowledge. Hence if the rewards are directly related to
performance, it leads to an increase in employees motivation as he can also relate his performance to the reward directly and can make efforts in the similar order.

**Competition:** Competition is one of these interpersonal factors. Competition motivates behavior because people can enhance their own self-esteem when they are able to make comparisons of their own performance to that of others. While all learners appear to be motivated to some extent by competition, the importance of competition is greater for some learners than for others. These differences are often related to the person's previous experience or to the importance that cultures or subcultures place on competition versus cooperation.

**Personalities valued:** The fact that people have different personality types goes all the way back to Hippocrates (around 370 B.C) according to Keirsey (1998). At the beginning, only four different temperament types were differentiated: sanguine, melancholic, choleric, and phlegmatic. Over the years, more personality types have been identified by psychologists such as Carl Jung, and new personality identification tools have been developed such as the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (16 personality types) or the Keirsey Temperament Sorter (4 temperaments) (Lewis, 2003). Among other individual aspects, personality types can reveal motivational patterns that are unique to each individual. Managers who are aware of differences in personality can better address individual differences in motivation (Huszcz, 2004; Lewis, 2003). From interviews for *The Sunday Times 100 Best Companies to Work For*, Leary-Joyce (2004) found that the foundation of great leaders is their high emotional quotient (EQ).

**Sympathetic help with personal problems:** According to Leary-Joyce (2004), great leaders know themselves well, understand that their view is just ‘one view’, and try to understand what makes people tick. Essentially, great leaders are others-centered and engage their coworkers and subordinates in personal talk to discover what they are about. In the same vein, Lewis (2003) explains that the best way to determine what motivates individuals is to look at what motivates them in their private life. Lewis (2003) states that “we tend to engage in the same pattern of activity every time we are motivated, so the
key is to examine situations in which people are motivated and determine what they are doing”. Individual attention to team members may therefore be one of the strongest keys to revealing which motivational technique will be most effective with a particular individual.

**Interpersonal Relationships:** The relations with supervisors, subordinates and colleagues, the quality of social life at work comes under interpersonal relations. Remember that part of the motivation of being employed is the social contact it brings, so allow employees a reasonable amount of time for socialization (e.g., over lunch, during breaks, between patients). This helps them develop a sense of camaraderie and teamwork. At the same time, crack down on rudeness, inappropriate behavior and offensive comments. Many individuals' social need can be satisfied through their favorable interaction with both coworkers and managers at work. Sympathetic and helpful coworkers can increase employee job satisfaction. Managers who interact favorably with employees assist in solving problems are aware of employees’ challenges and are able to communicate effectively and provide constructive feedback periodically. These managerial behaviors can lead to increased job motivation for employees (Bruce & Blackburn, 1992; Herzberg et al., 1957; Locke, 1976, 1983; Vroom, 1982).

**Good working Conditions:** The physical conditions in which one work, the amount of work, facilities available, ventilation, tools, space, noise, keeping the equipment and facilities up to date and other environmental aspects leads to an increase or decrease in level of motivation. The environment in which people work has a tremendous effect on their level of pride for themselves and for the work they are doing. Even a nice chair can make a world of difference to an individual's psyche. Also, if possible, avoid overcrowding and allow each employee his or her own personal space, whether it be a desk, a locker, or even just a drawer. If placed the employees in close quarters with little or no personal space, don't be surprised that there is tension among them.

Before we move on to the motivators, we cannot neglect the hygiene factors. To do so would be asking for trouble in more than one way. First, employees would be generally unhappy, and this would be apparent to your patients. Second, our hardworking employees, who can find jobs elsewhere, would leave, while mediocre employees would stay and compromise your practice's
success. So we should deal with hygiene issues first, then move on to the motivators:

**Power:** Employees have power to make substantive decisions. Workers have authority to directly influence work procedures and organizational performance, often through quality circles or self-directed work teams. Responsibility can only be fulfilled when adequate authority needed for that responsibility is given. So adequate authority improves motivation and insufficient authority decreases motivation.

**Learning / variety & Advancement:** Some employees have been doing the same work for years. Jobs tend to offer little variety, with the same tasks being done over and over. The organization is more interested in having people do what they're good at and less interested in having them pursue their deepest interests. When it's thriving the workplace allows people to reach their full potential. Learning opportunities abound throughout the organization. Variety (trying new equipment, building new relationships, varying your work, etc.) is encouraged because it fosters learning and development. Internal job changing is valued as a way for people to develop their skills and experience. Belief that an individual is rewarded would appear to be closely related to belief that there is chance to advance even where a person does not believe that he deserves a promotion, it is still highly important to him that the best man be prompted.

**Visible support:** When it's lacking, when people ask for support, management responds with skepticism: "Are you sure you need that information? You're the first group to ask for it." There's widespread agreement that when a person or group undertakes a project, the organizational odds are stacked against them. There may even be the workplace equivalent of a black market. When it's thriving employees are given the resources (information, time, funding, expertise, tools, etc.) they need to be successful in their work. Management knows when to get involved and when to stay out of the way. Management support plays an important role in increasing an employees motivation as it reduces fear of taking responsibility alone. So it can be concluded that the more management
support an employee sees, the more motivate he becomes for that specific task.

**Participation:** Mental and emotional involvement of people in group situations encourage them to contribute to group goals (Keith Davis). Participation improves involvement in the change process, creating a feeling of 'it's-my-baby'. We need to empower people to discharge responsibilities of a higher level. In a narrow sense, employee participation is "joint decision making or influence sharing between employees and managers" (Doucouliagos 1995, 60). More broadly, participation is "a conscious and intended effort by individuals at a higher level in an organization to provide visible extra-role or role-expanding opportunities for individuals or groups at a lower level in the organization to have a greater voice in one or more areas of organizational performance" (Glew et al.). The more an employee participates in organization's effort, the more he feels sense of importance and belonging towards that organization. Hence motivation is increased.

**Company policy and administration:** An organization's policies can be a great source of frustration and demotivation for employees if the policies are unclear or unnecessary or if not everyone is required to follow them. Although employees will never feel a great sense of motivation or satisfaction due to the policies, it can decrease dissatisfaction in this area by making sure the policies are fair and apply equally to all. Also, making printed copies of your policies-and-procedures manual easily accessible to all members of your staff. If you do not have a written manual, create one, soliciting staff input along the way. If you already have a manual, consider updating it (again, with staff input). You might also compare your policies to those of similar practices and ask yourself whether particular policies are unreasonably strict or whether some penalties are too harsh.

**MOTIVATION AND ITS RELATIONSHIPS**

**Relationship between Motivation and Morale**

These two terms are not synonymous, but a motivated group of worker generally has a high degree of morale. Morale is a composite attitude (various individuals employed forming the department/organization. It is group concept, while motivation is largely an individual concept. M. S. Viteles has defined morale as "an attitude or a desire to continue in, an willingness to
strive for, the goals of a particular group of organization. Milton Blum described morale as "the possession of feeling of being accepted by and the belonging to a group of employees through adherences a common goal and confidence in the desirability of these goals".

Morale is the summation of feelings of employees as a group towards various aspects of their job, the working condition, fellow workers, supervisors, managers, organization, etc. If the attitude of employees towards all these aspects is positive, the morale of the group will be high. Morale is dependent on the following factors:

(a) Feeling of togetherness
(b) A clear goal or objective to be achieved
(c) Expectation of success towards the attainment of the goal
(d) Feeling that each member has a meaningful task to perform for achieving the goal
(e) Supportive and stimulative leadership

These factors are also common for job satisfaction which is a precursor of morale. However, the two differ as the job satisfaction is used for individuals and morale for groups. The level of morale can be measured by conducting opinion poll and attitude survey.

**What Demoralizes Employees**

The following factors can be prime demoralizers:

(a) Under assignment-unskilled job assigned to skilled persons causing frustration
(b) Over assignment-good worker being overloaded to the extent that he feels being exploited
(c) Buckmastership (expression coined by Parkinson)-superior avoiding hard work themselves and passing on the same to their subordinates and finding faults
(d) Coercive type of supervision-manipulative, divide and rule policy, making promises but not keeping them, encouraging groupism, etc.
**Relationship between Motivation and Performance**

Motivation is necessary for performance. If the individual does not feel inclined to engage himself in the work behaviour, he will not put in adequate efforts to perform well. Unless the individual has necessary abilities to do the work and perceive his role accurately and is provided with the required resources, mere motivation to do the job may not result in effective performance.

Managers have to provide encouragement, offer guidance and help employees develop a sense of competence also. For sustaining motivated performance, valiant rewards should be offered. These rewards could be intrinsic or extrinsic and must be equitable. This interrelation between various factors is explained through the Sekaran Model (1977) shown in Fig. The double-headed arrows indicate that the two variables are interdependent.

**Relationship between Incentives and motivation**

Another dimension of employee motivation is the incentives. Based on two widely accepted psychological principles that increased motivation improves performance, and recognition is a major factor in motivation, a properly designed incentive scheme goes a long way towards achieving the goal of employee motivation. But most incentives fail, the reasons for which could be attributed to flouting the four basic tenets-simplicity, specificity, attainability, and measurability.
A Merit-based incentive system provides a solution. Though there are barriers to effective implementation of merit pay, the process can be smooth if the following guidelines are adhered to:

(a) Establish high standards of performance.
(b) Develop appraisal systems focused on job specific, result-oriented criteria.
(c) Train supervisors in the mechanics of performance appraisal and in the art of giving feedback to subordinates.
(d) Relate rewards closely to performance.
(e) Use a wide range of incentives.

For the incentive schemes to be effective, the designers of incentive schemes should also address the pay policies issues such as the effect of inflation on pay planning and administration, pay compression, and pay raises.

MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES DESIGNED TO INCREASE MOTIVATION

Organizations are experimenting everyday to evolve different kinds of techniques to motivate people at work. Of course, the techniques have been developed based on the sound background of motivational theories formulated by behavioural scientists. In the changing business scenario, the working population is more knowledgeable, smart and competent. Hence, they give equal importance to intrinsic and extrinsic factors of the job at work. The following are some of the best motivational techniques in force in different organizations:

Job design for motivation

A job in an organization is a unit of work that a single employee is responsible for performing. A job could include writing tickets for parking offenders in Sydney or doing long-range planning for ABC television. Jobs are important because performance of their components may provide rewards that meet employees’ needs. An assembly line worker may install the same bolt again and again, but an emergency room surgeon will give each trauma victim different treatment. Managers need to know what aspects of a job provide motivation, as well as how to compensate for routine tasks that have little inherent satisfaction. Job design is the application of motivational
theories to the structure of work for improving productivity and satisfaction

Financial Motivators

Such motivation is connected directly or indirectly with money. wages and salary, bonuses, profit-sharing, leave with pay, medical reimbursement, etc. are included under this type of motivation. At a first glance, money would seem to be one of the "lower level" needs, a need that is quickly satisfied. But in reality this is not true. The reason is that money is more than just a medium of exchange. It is more than a vehicle through which one can satisfy other higher-order needs. When a person goes out to buy a car he is doing more than just spending his money; he is buying at least in his own eyes-prestige, recognition, and a visible symbol of his achievements. He uses money to satisfy some of higher-order needs-self-actualization, ego and social needs besides the safety physiological needs. For this reason, money is sometimes regarded most esteem need and, hence, a most reliable motivator But as Gillerman has said: "Money is so subtle an instrument that the ultimate effect of money itself is not easier to identify than is an egg in an omelet.

Besides money, there are other motivators, which deal with the personal development of the employee and his relation to the environment in which he works. This is corroborated by the observations of experts. Yoder observes: "Theories of joint goals and identification have attracted wide attention. They have encouraged participative management and consultative supervision. They have been highlighted in proposals for management by objectives. The common theme is that workers who help set their individual and group goals are strongly motivated to achieve them. Argyris has said that a "motivational system should be based on personality characteristics of individuals as they grow from childhood to maturity. The management should, therefore, provide a work climate in which everyone has a chance to grow and mature as an individual and as a member of a group, the basic assumption being that man can be self-directed and creative at work, if properly motivated.

2. Non-Financial Motivators

These motivators are not connected with monetary rewards. In the words of Dubin, "non-financial incentives are the psychic rewards or the rewards of enhanced position, that can be secured in the work organization.

Some of the most commonly used non-financial motivations
1. Appraisal, Praise and Prestige.
2. Status and Pride.
3. Competition.
4. Delegation of Authority.
5. Participation.
8. Job Simplification
11. Job Enrichment.
13. Others.

**Appraisal, Praise or Recognition**

When he does his work well, the employee naturally wants it to be praised and recognized by his boss and fellow-workers. "Praise seems to have its greatest value when given and received as recognition, and is not perceived by either party as an attempt to control the behaviour of the recipient. Recognition satisfies human need for esteem by others and for self-esteem. This recognition may be shown in the form of praise, of a pat on the back of the employee or a recommendation for a pay raise promotion, or assignment of more interesting tasks. Awards given in the form of articles, banquets honouring certain individuals certificates and plaques, too, may be given, or the employee's, name may be entered on the Honours Board.

Such recognition may generally be given for good workable suggestions leading to a reduction in time or cost or in improving the quality of a product; for valuable services in an emergency, as when a fire breaks out, or there is a breakdown, or there are riots or accidents; exceeding sales beyond the set quota, and regularity in attendance on the job.

Collective recognition may be given by the award of a shield or a banner or a certificate, or by giving certificate, special privileges or a money bonus to the employees.


**Status and Pride**

*Status* refers to "the social rank of a person", and satisfies social and egoistic needs. A management often tries to satisfy these needs by establishing status symbols and distinctions in its organization providing costly furniture, carpets on the floor, picture on the wall, artistic curtains, a separate stenographer, a few peons, and a personal assistant. Individuals try hard to gain these status symbols; and once these have been achieved, there is a carving for higher status symbols.

Persons working in similar positions and enjoying the same status in an organization should be treated on equal footing and provided with identical facilities, such as those of a private locker, a separate chamber bin, easy-chairs, suitable desks with drawers, peons, etc.

Pride is a nebulous concept and it is somewhat difficult to define. However, "good products, dynamic leadership, fair treatment, service to community, ethical conduct and such other things serve to stimulate an employee’s pride in his work and organization." This pride is regarded as a powerful and valuable motivator towards higher productivity.

**Competition**

As a form of motivation, competition is widely used in an organization. Individuals do compete with one another if they feel they have chances of winning and satisfying their "ego". This competition may be in regard to sales, production, or safety measures. The person who is adjudged the best is awarded the coveted prize. But, sometimes, competitions generates jealousy and hostility among the competing members, give rise to a sense of frustration among the losers, and may even destroy team-spirit.

**Delegation of Authority**

An authority is the right to act, to direct, and to requisition resources needed to properly perform the job. The delegation of a substantial amount of responsibility to execute a given task often proves to be a strong motivating force. The subordinate is more or less on his own. The supervisor trusts him. He feels that he must show results but persons who lack confidence, this technique of motivation often proves disastrous.
Participation

It implies the physical and mental involvement of the people in an activity, especially in that of decision-making. This satisfies one's ego and self-esteem, and the needs of creativeness and initiative. A management may encourage employees to help in such areas of decision-making as production methods, materials handling, safety measures, cost reduction, employee-management problems, and, improvement in working conditions.

Participation may be in regard to: (a) institutional arrangements for worker's participation in decisions within undertakings (Work Councils and Joint Council bodies); (b) participation of workers in management organs (particularly in managing welfare facilities); (c) participation the shop-floor level and at the board level.

Job Security

Programmes on fringe benefits; and (iii) Adjusting surplus labour in an organization. For some employees, this is an equally important motivator. Job security implies that an employee would continue on the job in the same plant or elsewhere, and that he shall enjoy economic and social security through health and welfare programmes providing security against sickness, unemployment, disability, old age, and death.

Job security may be provided either by properly regularizing amount of work that must be done by a fixing of the hours of work by finding out work for those who have been rendered surplus because of changes in techniques of production or lines of production or recessionary conditions in the market, or by adoption of schemes of rationalization, modernization and automation.

Job security may be provided by: (i) ensuring that catastrophes will be avoided as far as possible (ii) implementing elaborate

Job Enlargement of Whole Job Concept

Job enlargement combines a series of tasks into one new, broader job. This is a response to the dissatisfaction of employees with oversimplified jobs. Instead of only one job, an employee may be responsible for three or four and will have more time to do them. Job enlargement provides job variety and a greater challenge for employees. It is the process of increasing the complexity of the job in order appeal to the higher-order needs of workers. It implies that
the employee performs more varied tasks, which are all on the same level, the idea being to make the jobs less monotonous. According to Strauss and Sayles" It implies that, instead of assigning one man to each job, a group of men can be assigned to a group of jobs and then allowed to decide for themselves how to organize the work. Such changes permit more social contacts and greater control over the work process. The idea enlargement is to provide the workers with the opportunity to make greater use of their minds and skill so that they are more able to help satisfy their need for self-esteem and dignity.

The technique suggests that attempts are made to give workers more complete or whole jobs to perform. Efforts are made to develop an environment in which employees are able not only to be actively involve in their jobs, but also to participate in both planning and their evaluating the results of their efforts. An example of job enlargement would be to allow a person on an assembly line to perform more than specialised function.

**Job Simplification**

Job simplification pursues task efficiency by reducing the number of tasks one person must do. Job simplification is based on principles drawn from scientific management and industrial engineering. Tasks are designed to be simple, repetitive and standardized. As complexity is stripped from a job, the worker has more time to concentrate on doing more of the same routine task. Workers with low skill requirements can perform the job, and the organization achieves a high level of efficiency. Indeed, workers are interchangeable, because they need little training or skill and exercise little judgment. As a motivational technique, however, job simplification has failed. People dislike routine and boring jobs and react in a number of negative ways, including sabotage, absenteeism and unionization.

**Job Rotation**

Job rotation systematically moves employees from one job to another, thereby increasing the number of different tasks an employee performs without increasing the complexity of any one job. For example, a car factory worker may install windshields one week and front bumper bars the next. Job rotation still takes advantage of engineering efficiencies, but it provides variety and stimulation for employees. It implies the shifting of an employee
from one job to another so that monotony and boredom are reduced. The basic objective of job rotation is to increase the skill and knowledge of the employee about related jobs. In job rotation, workers learn to do all the different activities necessary for an operation or unit of work. Sometimes an unpleasant job is made an entry-level position. Employees can be told that the job is monotonous, but temporary. Another possibility may be to put all "dull jobs" up for grabs each day. Sleepy or hung-over workers may even prefer a day on a job not requiring, much use of their minds. Another possibility is that physically or mentally handicapped workers might be given simple jobs.

**Types of Job Design**

**Job Enrichment**

Recall the discussion of Maslow’s need hierarchy and Herzberg’s two-factor theory. Rather than just changing the number and frequency of tasks a worker performs, job enrichment incorporates high-level motivators into the work, including job responsibility, recognition, and opportunities for growth, learning and achievement. In an enriched job, employees have control over the resources necessary for performing it, make decisions on how to do the work, experience personal growth and set their own work pace. Many companies, including Fletcher Challenge in New Zealand, Telstra, Procter & Gamble and Motorola, have undertaken job enrichment programs to increase employees’ motivation and job satisfaction. At Quad/Graphics, described in the Learning Organization box, managers have incorporated job enrichment ideas to help meet employees’ higher-level needs.

**Job Loading**

It implies making the job more interesting. A horizontal job loading assumes that if employees are given more work at the same level at which they are currently performing, they will be motivated to work harder and more
satisfied with their work. In a vertical job loading, changes in jobs include larger areas of responsibility. Jobs are restructured so that they will become intrinsically more interesting. The worker is motivated because his job is more challenging and more meaningful. He is given as much responsibility as possible, and is encouraged to be accountable for his work with little supervision. Herzberg has compiled a check list of the steps involved in vertical Job Loading, which includes the motivators that can be expected from each step

**PRINCIPLE OF JOB LOADING**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Principle</th>
<th>Motivation Involved</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Remove some controls while retaining Accountability</td>
<td>Responsibility and personal achievement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>increase the accountability of individuals for own work</td>
<td>Responsibility and recognition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>give a person a complete natural unit of work (division, area)</td>
<td>Responsibility, achievement and recognition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grant additional authority to employee, give more job freedom</td>
<td>Responsibility, achievement and recognition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make periodic reports directly available to the worker rather than to the supervisor</td>
<td>Internal recognition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>introduce new and more difficult tasks not previously handled</td>
<td>Growth and learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>assign individual specific or specialized task enabling them to become experts</td>
<td>Confidence and growth</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Quality of Work Life**

The term quality of work life means different things to different persons for e.g. To a worker on assembly line, it may just mean a fair days pay. Safe working conditions and a supervisors who treats him with dignity. To a young new entrant, it may mean opportunity for advancement, creative tasks and a successful career. To Professor Lloyd it means, "The degree to which members of a work organization are able to satisfy important personal needs.
through their experiences in the organization”.

There are many factors which can contribute to quality of life”. Walton cites the following, among others

1. Adequate and fair compensation.
2. A safe and healthy environment.
3. Jobs aimed at developing and using employee’s skills & abilities.
4. Growth and security; jobs aimed at expanding employee’s capabilities, rather than leading to their obsolescence.
5. An environment in which employees develop self-esteem dissent and a sense of identity.
6. Protection and respect for employee’s rights to privacy; equity, etc.
7. A sensible integration of job career and family life and leisure time.

It would not be incorrect to say that "quality of work life covers all aspects of worker’s life with special reference to his interaction with his work and his working environment. The following are suggested:

1. Adequate and fair compensation, adequacy to the extent to which the income from full time work meets the needs of the socially determined standard of living.
2. Safety and healthy working conditions, including reasonable hours of work and rest pauses, physical working conditions that ensure safety, minimize risk of illness and occupational disease and special measures for protection of women and children
3. Security and growth opportunity, including factors like security of employment and opportunity for advancement and self improvement.
4. Opportunity to use and develop creativity, such as work autonomy, nature of supervision, use of multiple skills, workers role in total work process and his appreciation of the outcome of his own effort and self-regulation.
5. Respect for the individuals' personal rights, such as application of the principles of natural justice and equity, acceptance the right of free speech and the right to personal privacy in respect of the worker's off-the-job behaviour.
6. Work and family life, including transfers, schedule of hours of work,
travel requirements, overtime requirements, etc.

7. It is worth noting that often the conditions that contribute to motivation (equitable salaries, financial incentives, effective employee selection, etc.) will also contribute to the "quality of work life. Some of these activities (like job enrichment) might contribute indirectly to the quality of work life by tapping worker's "higher-order needs and motivating them. Still other activities may contribute directly to the quality of work life providing for a safer work place, less discrimination the job and so forth.

OTHERS

Job Sharing or Twinning

It is a novel system, under which two workers (especially mothers and fathers who want to spend more time with their families) and the older people (who want to retire gradually) and those with physical limitations, and students, prefer to divide one fulltime job. Not only are the hours split, but so are salary and fringe benefits. In such a system, workers tend to approach their work with far more energy and enthusiasm and tend to put in more than a half day's work in a half-day's time. Absenteeism also tends to be less since one of the "twins" can cover the other in the event of illness or other reasons for being absent.

Flextime or Flexible Working Hours

Under this system, the employees have the freedom to choose, within certain limitations, what times they begin and quit their job each day. Flexibility of work hours wipes out the 8 to 3 or 9 to 5 syndrome faced by many employees and enables workers to enjoy hours that more closely match their personal life styles. Such type of arrangement generally improves morale, increases productivity and gives employees a greater sense of control over their own lives.

Management By Objectives: A programme that encompasses specific goals particularly set for an explicit time period with feedback on goal progress.

Behaviour Modification: A programme where managers identify performance related employee behaviours and then implement an intervention strategy to strengthen desirable performance behaviours and weaken undesirable behaviours.
**Employee Involvement:** A participative process that uses the entire capacity of employees and is designed to encourage increased commitments to the organization's success.

**Participative Management:** A process where subordinates share a significant degree of decision making power with their immediate supervisors.

**Works Council:** Groups of nominated or elected employees who must be consulted when management makes decisions involving personnel.

**Board Of Representatives:** A form of participation in which representatives of the employees sit with a company's board of directors and present the employees' interest.

**Quality Circle:** A work group of employees, who meet regularly to discuss their quality problems, investigate causes, recommend solutions and take corrective action.

**Viable Pay Programmes:** A portion of an employee's pay is based on some individual and on organizational measure of performance.

**Profit Sharing Plans:** Organization wide programmes that distribute compensation based on some established formula designed around a company's profitability.

**Gain Sharing:** An incentive plan where improvements in group productivity determines the total amount of money that is allocated.

**Skill Based Pay:** Pay levels are based on how many employees have or how many jobs they can do.

**Flexible Benefits:** Employees tailor their benefit programme to meet their personal needs by choosing and picking from a menu of benefit options.

**Comparable Worth:** A doctrine which holds that jobs equal in value to an organization should be equally compensated, whether or not the work content of these jobs is similar.

**Necessary Information To Workers:** A well informed worker considers himself a part of the system and is committed to the organization. Inform him the significance of his job in relation to overall organizational goals. There is a story of three masons who were asked as to what were they doing. Filling up tummy, joining bricks with mortar, and building cancer hospital-were their replies. The last one obviously was better informed and would be a better performer than others.