CHAPTER II

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Motivational psychology is about latent psychological processes that are assumed to explain particular behavioral characteristics. The basic motivational question is to explain at least in part which behavior or action an individual performs at each moment in time, the initiation and Persistence of on Intentional, goal-directed activity.

2.1. MOTIVATIONAL INDUCEMENT SYSTEMS

Inducement systems are those design aspects of an organization which act to energize, direct, or sustain behavior within the organization. The most commonly studied inducement systems are the reward, tasks, managerial and social inducement systems. The reward system involves the design and implementation of formal reward system in the organization, such as the compensation system and the promotional system.

The task inducement system is involved with the motivational aspects of job and task design. The managerial inducement system drives its motivational properties from aspects of leadership style. Finally, the motivational impact of the work group or the organization as a social system defines the social inducement system. Motivational Inducement Systems are the tools that a manager uses to create a motivating work environment (Leonard et al; 1999).

THE REWARD INDUCEMENT

The impact of reward systems no motivation has been analyzed mainly from a cognitive/instrumental perspective. The motivational properties of pay systems have thus been tied to the expectation that increased effort will lead to greater pay and the instrumental value of pay to the individual. Thus, instrumental motivation is the primary source of
motivation that the reward system attempts to induce. From a self-concept perspective, pay provides a very potent form of social feedback. It tends to reinforce one’s perception of competencies and provides an important source of status. Therefore, maintenance of the external self-concept is an alternative source of motivation induced by the reward system.

For example, a pay raise may be a form of pure instrumental motivation, or it may provide the basis upon which the individual’s self-perceptions are reinforced or enhanced.

TASKS INDUCEMENT SYSTEM

According to Leonard et al. (1999), the task design literature points to autonomy, task significance, feedback, and task identity and skill variety as attributes of the task that impact motivation. The system claims that work redesign provides a strategy for enhancing internal work motivation (i.e., the individual does the work because it interests or challenges him/her). In terms of the self-concept, the degree of autonomy would affect an individual’s opportunity to attribute outcomes to his/her traits, competencies and values. The significance of a task and one’s contribution to the success of the task, would determine how important the feedback (task for inner-directed and social for other-directed) is to traits, competencies and values that comprise a role-specific identity that may be crucial to an individual’s self-concept. Task feedback is necessary ingredient in reinforcement or affirmation of self-perception and one’s ability to identify with a task would affect how important the feedback is to an individual’s self-concept. Skill variety would provide information regarding a number of traits, competencies and values that comprise different role specific identities. Goal internalization is the motivating source when the successful completions of a task help fulfill important organizational goals that individual has internalized into his/her own value system. Therefore, the task system induces motivation from all four of these sources (i.e., intrinsic process, internal and external self-concept and goal internalization) in significant ways.
(c) THE MANAGERIAL INDUCEMENT SYSTEM

This inducement system also energizes, directs and sustains behavior through a number of sources. Transactional leadership style is based on exchange relationships and is best utilized with individuals who are primarily instrumentally motivated. Socio-emotional leadership style provides an important source of social feedback and is especially effective with other-directed individuals. Task leadership style provides inner-directed individuals with important task feedback regarding traits, Competencies and values. Leadership style, in terms of conditional/unconditional feedback, impacts one’s self-perception as well as one’s self esteem. It is affected by the employee’s ability to attribute task results to him/her, depending on whether the leader is autocratic or participative. Lastly, transformational leadership style motivates by appealing to values and interest of the organization that have been internalized by the employees (Leonard et al; 1999).

AUTOCRATIC VERSUS PARTICIPATIVE LEADERS

(Leonard et al; 1999) listed seven basic level of participation. These described below. While leaders may use a number of these approaches to problem solving, they tend to have a dominant approach, which they use most often.

A(1). AUTOCRATIC

Autocratic or directive style of problem solving. The leader defines problem, diagnoses problem, generates, evaluates and choose among alternative solutions.

A(2). AUTOCRATIC WITH GROUP INFORMATION INPUT

The leader defines the problem. Although the leader diagnoses the cause of the problem, the leader may use the group as an information source in obtaining data to
determine cause. Using his list of potential solutions, the leader may once again obtain data from the group in evaluation of these alternatives and make a choice among them.

A(3): AUTOCRATIC WITH GROUPS REVIEW AND FEEDBACK

The leader defines the problem, diagnoses its causes and selects a solution. The leader then presents his or her to the group for understanding, review and feedback.

C(1): INDIVIDUAL CONSULTATIVE STYLE

The leader defines the problem and shares this definition with individual members of the work group. The leader solicits ideas regarding problem causes and potential solutions. The leader may also use these individual's expertise in evaluations of alternative solutions. Once this information is obtained, the leader makes the choice of which an alternative solution to implement.

C(2): GROUP CONSULTATIVE STYLE

Group consultative styles same as individual consultative style, expect the leader shares his definition of the problem with the group as a whole.

G(1): GROUP DECISION STYLE

Leader shares his or her definition of the problem with the work group. The group them proceeds to diagnose the causes of the problem. Following diagnosis, the group generates, evaluates and chooses among solution.
G (2): PARTICIPATIVE STYLE

The group as a whole proceeds through the entire decision making process. The group defines the problem and performs all other functions as a group. The role of the leader is that of process facilitators.

(d) SYSTEM SOCIAL INDUCEMENT SYTEM

Under this inducement system, instrumentally motivated individuals respond to norms and sanctions enforced by the work group or organization. These norms and sanctions provide both rewards and punishments that direct and sustain behavior. With regard to the self-concept, individuals are motivated to demonstrate the traits, Competencies and values which are important to the work group. Thus, the social system provides the social feedback regarding one’s level of these attributes (Leonard et al; 1999).

2.2. APPROACHES OF MOTIVATION

A manager’s assumptions about employee motivation and use of rewards depend on his/her perspective of motivation. Practicing manager have been interested in applying motivational concepts in the workplace. Three distinct perspectives on employee motivation that have evolved are the traditional approach, the human relations approach and the human resources approach. The most recent theories about motivation represent a fourth perspective called contemporary approaches (Kreitner, 1995).

2.2.1 TRADITIONAL APPROACH

Kreitner (1995) states: “The study of the employee’s motivation really began with work of Frederick W. Taylor on scientific management. Scientific management that pertains 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 perceptions of workers as economic people who would work harder for higher pay. This approach led to the development of incentive pay systems, in which people were paid strictly to the quantity of their work outputs.

2.2.2 HUMAN RELATIONS APPROACH

A more sociable employee in manager’s mind gradually replaced the economic man. Hawthorne studies at a Western Electric plant, non-economic rewards, such as congenial work groups who met social needs, seemed more important than money motivator of work behavior (Kreitner, 1995).

2.2.3 HUMAN RESOURCES APPROACH:

The human resource carries the concepts of economic man and social man further to introduce the concept of the whole person. Human resources theory suggests that employees are complex and motivated by many factors. This approach believed that earlier approaches had tried to manipulate that employees are competent and able to make major contributions, manager can enhance organizational performance. The static or content models of work motivation. On the other hand the more dynamic theories, often termed process theories are more complex. (Kreitner, 1995).

2.2.4 Contemporary Approaches

Three types of theories dominate contemporary approaches to employee motivation. The first are content theories which stress the analysis of underlying human needs. Content theories provide insight into the needs that can be satisfied in the workplace. Process theories concern thought process that influence behavior. They focus on how employees seek rewards
in work circumstances. Reinforcement theories focus on employee learning of desired behavior. (Kreitner, 1995).

2.3 TYPES OF MOTIVATION

Motivation can be considered as internal or external. Internal motivators are the individual. These are things that make him want to be a good job for his own reasons such as pride of accomplishment, a desire to live up to the expectation of a respected supervisor etc. External motivators are things outside the individual that cause him to work such as wages, the desire to avoid discipline from the boss and so on.

Reeve (2001) states. “Motivation can come from two sources, the extrinsic and intrinsic. People may be factors in the external environment such as, pay supervision, benefits and job perks. This is referred to as extrinsic motivation. They may also be motivated by relationship between worker and the task. This type of motivation is called intrinsic motivation. These factors often simultaneously, but we will distinguish between them as they to specific levels of motivation."

According to Deci (1993), motivation is extrinsic as well as intrinsic and some psychologists stress the importance of extrinsic motivation. Working for externally determined rewards is extrinsically motivated behavior while people’s desire to learn for satisfying their curiosity and feel competent is intrinsic motivation. Both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are important for learning. Teachers must balance intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, especially when there is little immediate satisfaction in the leaning situation. Intrinsic motivation can’t sustain all activities. Extrinsic motivation is often necessary for persistence of motivated behavior (Arif 2003).
2.3.1. Extrinsic motivation

Extrinsic motives depend instead on needs that must be satisfied by external reinforces. It is related to ‘tangible’ rewards such as salary and fringe benefits, security, promotion and condition of work. It is what is done to or for people to motivate them. Extrinsic rewards result from the actions of others such as supervisors and are more easily controlled by managers. It will be important in attracting and retaining employees and increasing effort and minimizing dissatisfaction (Crowl et al; 1997).

2.3.2. Intrinsic Motivation

Intrinsic motivation is motivation which comes from the inside of a person. It is an emotional preference for a task that gives us pleasure and enjoyment. Intrinsic motives are those which are satisfied by internal reinforces. Intrinsic motivations are the self –generated factors which influence people to behave in a particular way or to move in a particular direction. They are related to ‘psychological’ rewards such as the opportunity to use one’s ability, a sense of challenge and achievement, positive recognition and being treated in a caring and thoughtful manner. They are those that individuals receive for themselves. Intrinsic motivation arises from having “a strong emotional interest in an activity and a sense of freedom and autonomy related it” (Deci, 1995).

2.4. PRINCIPLES OF MOTIVATION

Basic principles of motivation exist that are applicable to learning in any situation. Principles directly related to motivation are numerous, but only those that provide the greatest help to the teacher are listed below:

All behavior is motivated. Everyone is motivated (just not in the same direction).
Motivation drives from needs or desires that are internal to the individual. They must manipulate the environment that will attract or repel individual behavior.

Motivation will not always overcome a poor book, poor instruction, or a poor learning environment.

Internal motivation is longer lasting and more self-directive than is external motivation, which must be repeatedly reinforced by praise or concrete rewards.

Incentives motivate learning.

Different cultures use different motivators. Each generation uses somewhat different set of motivators.

It is difficult to have a feeling of responsibility unless one has chosen to attempt the task. Imposed tasks are ones for which we usually do not feel responsibility.

Much of motivation comes from doing with others. We form communities, which we support to get security, identity, shared values and people who are like who like and us. We are motivated to maintain these communities. (Robbins, 1994).

2.5. HUMAN MOTIVES

A motive represents the individual’s reason for choosing one certain behavior from several choices. Most people probably can experience the many different types of human needs. There are, however, larger inter and intra individual differences in the strength of needs or motives. Some people can be characterized by a strong need for achievement and a low fear of failure, while others have a strong fear of failure but no need for success.

2.5.1. Primary motives

According to Luthans (1995), Psychologists do not totally agree on how to classify the various human motives, but they would acknowledge that some motives unlearned and
physiologically based. Such motives are variously called physiological, biological, unlearned or primary. The last term “primary” does not imply that this group of motives always takes precedence over the general and secondary motives.

Physiological motives

These include hunger, thirst, sex, sleep, elimination of body wastes, maintenance of constant body temperature, sensory stimulation etc. Emotions too are comparable with physiological motives. The physiological correlates emotions energize behavior in the sense that physiological drives energize it. Like physiological motives they impel as to activity (Luthans, 1995).

2.5.2 Secondary motives

Secondary motives are closely tied to the learning concepts. A motive must be learned in order to be included in the secondary classification. Numerous important human motives meet this criterion. Some of the more important ones are power, achievement and affiliation, or, as they are commonly referred to today.

(a) Power motives

Power is inevitable in modern organizations, according to Luthans (1995), one advocate of the positive and construction use of power. It must be used because managers must influence those they depend on. Power also is crucial in the development of manager’s self-confidence and Willingness to support subordinates. One who is in a responsible position in business, government, unions, education, or the military many also exhibit a considerable need for power. The power motive has significant implications for organizational leadership and for the informal political aspects of organization (Luthans, 1995).
(b) Affiliation motives

Affiliation plays a very complex but vital role in human behavior. Sometimes, affiliation is equated with social motives and group dynamics. The affiliation motive is neither as broad as implied by the definition of social motives nor as comprehensive or complex as is implied by the definition of group dynamics. The study of affiliation is further complicated by the fact that some behavioral scientists believe that it is an unlearned motive (Luthans, 1996).

(c) Achievement motives

McClelland (1961) identified and wrote about all aspects of need for achievement, each corresponding to an underlying need that he believes is important for understanding individual behavior. Very simply, the achievement motive can be expressed as a desire to perform in terms of a standard of excellence or to be successful in competitive situation. The specific characteristics of a high achiever are moderate risk taking, need for immediate feedback satisfaction with accomplishments and preoccupation with the task (Luthans, 1995).

(d) Security motives

Security is a very intense motive in a fast paced, highly technological society. Job insecurity, in particular, has a great effect on organizational behavior. On the surface, security appears much simpler than other secondary motives. For it is based largely on fear and its avoidance oriented. In reality, security is much more complex than it appears on the surface (Luthans, 1995).

(e) Status motives

Status can be simply defined as the relative ranking that a person holds in a group, organization, or society. Under this definition, any time two or more persons are together, a status hierarchy will evolve, even if both have equal status. The symbols of status attempt to represent only the relative ranking of the person in the status hierarchy. The definition also
corrects the common misconception that “status” means “high status”. Everyone has status, but it may be high or low, depending on how the relative positions are ranked (Luthans, 1995).

(f) Personal motives

Individual’s interest, attitudes, self-goals are the examples of personal motives. Since interest shows disposition to act positively or negatively in regard to something, the both function as motivators. Without an interest one may not like to in a situation. But active interest functions as a strong motive. Similarly a person’s attitudes will attract him toward certain situations and repel him from others (Kundu, 1985).

2.5.3 General motives

The general category, a motive must be unlearned but not physiological based. While the primary needs seek to reduce the tension or stimulation, these general needs induce the person to increase the amount of stimulation. An understanding of these general motives is important to the study of human behavior especially in organizations. General motives are more relevant to organizational behavior than primary motives (Rathus, 1990)

Curiosity

The behaviorist talks about reward and punishment as being the main influence on learning. Behavior can be focused toward a reward or away from a punishment. Human behavior is far more complex. People are naturally curious. They seek new experiences. They enjoy learning new things. They find satisfaction in solving puzzles, perfecting skills and developing competence (Luthans, 1995).

Affective Motives

Love or affection is a very c form of general drive. Part of the complexity stems from the fact that in many ways love resembles the primary drives and in other ways it is similar to
the secondary drives. In particular, the affection motives are closely associated with the primary sex motive. For this reason, affection is sometimes placed in all three categories of motives and some psychologists do not even recognize it as a separate motive (Luthans, 1995).

Social Motives

Social motives are the motives that seem to be the reasons for the behavior one sees daily among the people, whose physiological needs are more than satisfied. The social motives include need for social approval, for affection, for a respectable place in a group, for possessing money, gold, degrees and other status symbols. These motives seem to develop through experience, such as early experience in the family or with friends during adolescence (Kundu, 1985).

2.6. ROLE OF MOTIVATION IN EDUCATION

Education must transfer from generation to generation the core of our culture’s accumulated body of knowledge. For this many think that to believe in an accepted body of knowledge that prioritizes what is important to learn and what is not slang! “Is a mark” of elitism and exclusivity. Its importance in educational, administration is only beginning to be understood and applied to professional and other adult employees. Teachers motivate learners through a variety of strategies based on understanding of learner’s growth and development patterns, individual ability differences, and of internal and external factors that may arouse and sustain the desire to learn more. These general principles may be adapted to adult motivational strategies of the administrator working with teachers, supervisors, and other administrator and other adult workers. Recognition of the motivational value of intrinsic factors such as, desire for achievement or self- fulfillment is needed to balance what has been an over reliance, extrinsic motivator are external to the person and job satisfaction.
Motivational comes primarily from wanting to learn so that an authentic product can be constructed for an appropriate audience and wanting to create the product so that others will not be disappointed.

Motivation may also come about through external manipulation of the environment. Motivation is not the same for everyone. We have different needs, goals and different personalities. We are even motivated differently at different times in single course of instruction. Good teachers are sensitive to the motivational needs of students and try to provide a climate in which a learning community can develop. Typically, learner motivation is likely to be intrinsic rather than extrinsic. Learner control increases the relevance of the learning and in turn improves learner motivation (Schunk, 2002).

The knowledge about motivation will be helpful to educators who are commonly faced with a variety of problem in situation where students react differently to teaching learning activities. Some plunge into new learning with glee. Some accept learning task with resentment and resignation and some block themselves to learn anything offered by the teacher (Arif, 1992).

Teachers play a significant role in motivating students not only by translating the knowledge about motivation into teaching actions but also by their attitudes towards themselves and students. Teacher motivation consists of two beliefs. First their belief into their own teaching ability and their belief into their student learning ability. Teacher ability refers to teacher’s belief about their motivation techniques were constructive criticism, maintaining discipline, encouragement of creativity innovation, expression of expectation of the principals, guidance, appreciation, sympathetic behavior of the principal, appropriate relief time, regular evaluation of teachers, regular payment of salary and other remuneration, financial incentives in the form of cash, bonus. While apprehends for teachers transfer, forcefully expression of his opinions, stiff dealing of heads, chide the teachers on their
mistakes and discrimination in assigning duties were the techniques that negatively affected the performance of the teachers.

Following recommendations were made for the improvement of the teaching-learning situation in the higher education institutions. Heads should show honest, fair, polite, kind hearted and punctual. Heads should assign the examination duties among his teachers justly and fairly and head should ensure evaluation of teachers’ performance regularly. Heads should avoid practicing the factors like apprehend for teachers transfer, stiff in their dealings and forcefully expression of his opinions for better performance of the teachers.

The heads may be empowered to utilize sufficient funds for motivating teachers and students. A special training course may be arranged for educational managers, administrators and supervisors for achieving competency in motivation techniques. Ability to teach. This attitude is reflected in the amount of effort they use in creating and inspiring environment for learning. Similarly teacher belief about student learning ability is also determined by his willingness to persist in finding ways to promote students learning. In short, motivated and successful teachers believe that they can inspire their students and that students can learn (crowletal.,1997), introducing variety and novelty in teaching keeping instruction at the students developmental level, encouraging students to hard work by personal example, marking interesting, relevant and meaningful, teaching students best strategies of learning reducing anxiety, teaching enthusiastically, conveying positives expectations about student learning ability, making classrooms no-threatening, physically and psychologically comfortable, extending more help to low achievers by giving them tasks appropriate to their ability, emphasizing self- improvement and comparison with self, building up self-confidence of the low achievers, modeling achievement motivation, internal locus of control and balanced use of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation are a few techniques to motivate and inspire students for learning (Arif,2003).
2.7 THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

Motivation is essentially an area of psychology, human behavior organizational behavior and management, which attempts to explain why people became in a certain manner. Although humans can be motivated to act a similar fashion but their level of commitment will differ substantially. Motivation is a useful device to think about why people to what they do.

Research on work motivation over the last 50 years can be thought of as adopting either a static or dynamic approach to explaining work motivation behavior. The static or content models of work motivation provides a somewhat perspective approach to work motivation. On the other hand the more dynamic theories, often termed process theories are more complex. The major process theories make allowance for individual cognitive responses as being a major contributor to work motivation behavior (Moorhead and Griffin, 1995).

2.7.1 CONTENT THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

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

People have many needs and various content motivation theories help profile these needs in different ways. The content theories of motivation approaches that have led to our understanding of motivation are Maslow’s need-hierarchy theory, Herzberg’s two-factor theory, Alder ERG theory and McClelland’s achievement theory (Moorhead and Griffin, 1995).
2.7.1.1 MASLOW’S NEED HIERARCHY THEORY

Maslow’s hierarchy of needs is a content motivational theory. Maslow’s basis was human behavior. He conducted his investigation between 1939 and 1943. The hierarchy of needs has five sets of goals that are called basic needs. Maslow’s idea was “people will not be healthy and well-adjusted unless they have their needs met” (Greenberg, 1999).

According to Maslow (1943); an employee has five levels of needs physiological, safety, social, ego and self-actualizing. Maslow argued that lower level needs had to be satisfied before the next higher level need would motivate employees. In fig 2.1 depicts Maslow’s hierarchy of needs. The three sets of needs at the bottom of the hierarchy are called deficiency needs because they must be satisfied for the individual to be fundamentally comfortable.

The top two sets of needs are termed growth needs because they focus on personal growth and development. (Moorhead and Griffin, 1995).

General Examples → organizational Example
Achievement ← self- Actualization Needs → Challenging Job
Status ← Esteem Needs → Job Title
Friendship ← Belongingness Needs → Friends in work group
Stability ← Security Needs → Pension Plan
Sustenance ← Physiological Needs → Base Salary

Fig. 2.1 The Hierarchy of Need

Abraham Maslow developed a theory that humans have five sets of needs that are arranged in a hierarchy. He contends that people start by trying to satisfy their most basic or compelling needs and progress toward the most fulfilling. These needs are as follows:
Fig. 2.2 Maslow’s need hierarchy

(a). Physiological needs

These include the need for food, water, shelter, clothing and money. Until an individual has access to these necessities there can be no further progress. These needs are very basic and for the most part, society and our social network have ensured that they are present. Intrinsic values include personal comfort and satisfaction, while the organization, the community, or society most often provides the extrinsic values. The organization helps to satisfy employee’s physiological needs by a paycheck.

(b). Safety needs.

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

(c). Social needs

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

(d). Esteem needs

These include feelings of adequacy, competency, independence, confidence, appreciation and recognition by others. Again, the individual is driven more by internal or intrinsic needs.

The external environment needed more to provide recognition than to provide material rewards. The organization helps to employee’s esteem needs by matching the skills and abilities of the employee to the job. The supervisor can help to fulfill esteem needs by showing workers that their work is appreciated.

(e). Self-actualization needs

This area is the most difficult to define and therefore, may be the most difficult to explain. Organizational requirements may include the opportunity for creativity and growth. Frequently, individuals aspiring to this level often operate outside existing organization and instead build their structures to suit their own structures to suit their own individual’s needs. Self-actualization needs are the desires for self-fulfillment and the realization of the individual’s full potential. The supervisor can help fulfill self-actualization needs by assigning tasks that challenge employees’ minds while drawing on their aptitude and training (1996).
Motivation is usually considered to be intrinsic when individuals perceive themselves to have control over environmental factors and over their own behavior.

Motivation is extrinsic if these conditions are absent. In terms of Herzberg’s two-factor theory, intrinsic motivating factors, those that determine the degree of job satisfaction, relate to job content whereas extrinsic hygiene factors, those that determine the degree of job dissatisfaction, relate to job context (Herzberg, 1971). Herzberg (1966) maintained that feelings of satisfaction are different in kind from feeling of dissatisfaction; that the opposite of satisfaction is no satisfaction and that the opposite of dissatisfaction is no dissatisfaction. He drew this conclusion from a broad range of research finding indicating that the job characteristics that result in employees’ feelings of satisfaction differ in type from those that result in employee’s feelings of dissatisfaction

![Satisfying job characteristics](image1)

![Dissatisfying job characteristics](image2)

Figure 2.3 Categories of Job Characteristics
The essence of the motivation-hygiene model is that the various features of a job can be classified according to the type of needs to which they relate. Job elements that can gratify employees’ psychological-growth needs cause feelings of satisfaction when present and adequate; these job elements are called motivation factors. Job features that can gratify employees’ pain-avoidance needs cause feelings of dissatisfaction when absent or inadequate; these job elements are called hygiene factors. The two types of factors will be defined below and the particular job aspects making up each type specified.

Motivator factors

According to Silver (1983), motivation factors are the aspects of a job situation that can, when present, fulfill employees’ needs for psychological growth. They tend to be intrinsic to the work associated with the job; they pertain to the content of the job. When present, adequate and positive in a job situation, these elements cause feelings of satisfaction in employees; when absent, inadequate, insufficient or negative, however, they do not generally cause feelings of dissatisfaction. The six motivation factors are:

- Achievements: successful or unsuccessful completion of a job; solution or non-solution of problems, seeing or not seeing the results of one’s work.
- Recognition: notice in the form of praise or blame from any other person (a superior or manager, a client, a professional colleague), personal acknowledgement by management, reward or punishment that is directly related to task accomplishment that was assigned.
- Work itself: the nature of the tasks to be accomplished on the job.
- The task themselves might be routine or varied, creative or stultifying, interesting or boring, difficult or easy.
- Responsibility: presence or absence of autonomy in carrying out job assignments, increase or decrease in authority over others, accountability for task accomplishment.
Advancement: actual in status within the organization as a result of performance, promotion, lack of expected promotion, or demotion related to performance.

Possibility of growth: changes in the words situation such that advancement is more or less likely and opportunities to learn are increased or decreased.

Hygiene factors

Hygiene factors are the aspects of a job situation that can, when present and adequate, fulfill employees’ pain-avoidance needs. They tend to be extrinsic to the work itself; they pertain to the context in which the work is performed. When absent, inadequate, or negative in a job situation, these elements cause feelings of dissatisfaction; but when present, ample and positive they do not generally cause feelings of satisfaction.

The ten hygiene factors are:

Company policy and administration; adequacy or inadequacy of company management, such as clarity of communication and adequacy of resources for task accomplishment, overall harmful or beneficial personnel policies, such as salary increment policies, promotion policies and fringes benefit.

Supervision (technical); competence or incompetence, fairness or unfairness and efficiency or inefficiency of super ordinates.

Salary; wage and compensation features, such as pay increase expectations unfulfilled or exceeded, early or late salary adjustments and adequate or inadequate pay.

Interpersonal relations (superior); pleasant or unpleasant interactions with super ordinates that are or are not directly relevant to task accomplishment.

Interpersonal relations (subordinates): pleasant or unpleasant interactions with persons at a lower level in the organizational hierarchy.

Interpersonal relations (peer): pleasant or unpleasant interactions with co-workers (persons at the same level in the organization).
7. Working conditions: the physical conditions of work, such as the amount of work or the facilities available, heat, light, space and ventilation, tools, equipment and Supplies.
8. Status: signs, symbols, or appurtenances of position within the organization, such as privileges, support staff, work space size and location, work space décor and so on.
9. Job Security: objective signs of the presence or absence of job security, such as tenure, company stability and assurances of or threats to continued employment.
10. Effect on personal life: aspects of the job that have impact on personal life, such as work shifts, travel requirements, geographic location and entertainment requirements. (Silver, 1983).

2.7.1.3 Alderfer’s ERG need theory

Alderfer (1987) states; “Re-classified human needs into existence or survival needs, relatedness or social needs and personal growth needs. According to Alderfer, the prepotency or rank of these categories is neither universal nor predictable; it differs from person to person as a function of culture, education, family background, age, etc. neither the sequence nor the salience of these needs can, therefore, be generalized to all individuals.”

Clayton Alderfer developed another need based theory that supports in many ways; the theory developed by Maslow, but consists of three rather than five basic needs. Alderfer also sees his three levels, which includes existence, relatedness and growth (ERG) needs as being hierarchal and thus, influenced by personal growth and extrinsic rewards.

Existence

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

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

Growth

These are needs that are fulfilled by strong personal involvement that fully utilize our skills, ability and creativity. They include Maslow’s self-actualization as well as esteem needs that rely on intrinsic reward (Altman et al, 1995)

ERG theory includes a unique frustration-regression component. This suggests that an already satisfied need can become activation when a higher need cannot satisfy. Thus, if a person is continually frustrated in his or her attempts to satisfy growth needs, relatedness needs can again surface as key motivators. ERG theory offers a more flexible approach to understanding human needs than does Maslow’s strict (Altman et al, 1985).

Both theories are also similar because they are hierarchal, and individuals will concentrate on the achievement of the lowest level of need that is not fully satisfied. Maslow contents that the lowest level of need must be satisfied before an individual can proceed to
the next higher level. Alderfer theorizes that, if a higher level need is unsatisfied, the individual will regress to a desire to satisfy lower-level needs. Maslow believes that once a need is met, it is no longer motivational. Alderfer theorizes that while an individual may have met a higher-level need in one’s personal life, for example, they may still be operating much lower on the scale where skills, aptitude and knowledge, may affect performance and confidence (Altman et al., 1985).

2.7.1.4 McClelland’s need achievement theory

Psychologist David McClelland (1961) contends that we develop a relatively stable personality early in life that, once acquired, remain unchanged, McClelland, therefore, does not see motivation as hierarchical. He does not address the issue of growth, but has been more concerned with the behavioral consequences of need. David McClelland, has spent describe studying need achievement theory. Although similar to the theories of Maslow and Alderfer in its attention to middle and upper level needs, need achievement theory is much more “applied” than any other content theory. The three areas of the need he has identified include the need for achievement, the need for affiliation and need for power (Altman et al., 1985).

Need for achievement

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

Need for achievement has been studied at both individual and societal levels. At the individual level, the primary aim of research has been to pinpoint characteristics of high need achievers, the outcomes associated with high need achievement and methods for increasing
the need for achievement tend to set moderately difficult goals, make moderately risky decisions, want immediate feedback, become preoccupied with their task and assume personal responsibility (Moorhead and Griffin, 1995).

Need for affiliation

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

Affiliation motivated people are usually friendly and like to socialize with others. This may distract them from their performance requirements. They will usually respond to an appeal for cooperation (Moorhead and Griffin, 1995).

Need for power

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

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

People having these needs have certain ways of dealing with their jobs. People who are high in the need for achievement tend to be mostly concerned with performing better than others perform. They are usually more innovative and prefer long-term goal involvement. People with high need for affiliation are more concerned with establishing interpersonal relationships with other people. They tend to communicate more frequently (Moorhead and Griffin, 1995).
2.7.1.5. An integrated model of four motivation theories

Each of the four content theories attempts to explain behavior from a slightly different perspective. None of the theories has been accepted as the sole basis for explaining motivation. According to Paul Hersey et al., (2001), although some critics are skeptical, it appears that people have innate and learned needs and that various job factors result in a degree of satisfaction. Thus each of the theories provides the manager with some understanding of behavior and performance.

The four theories are compared in figure 2.5. McClelland proposed no lower order needs. However, his needs for achievement and power are not identical with Herzberg’s motivators, or Maslow’s higher order needs, or Alderfer’s growth needs, but there are some similarities. A major difference between the four content theories is McClelland’s emphasis on socially acquired needs.

The Maslow theory offers static need hierarchy system; Alderfer presents a flexible three-need classification approach and Herzberg discusses intrinsic and extrinsic job factors. The four prominent theories of motivation allow us to reach on some general conclusions.

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

People seek social system. Whether we call this needs relatedness, affiliation, interpersonal relations, or belongingness, we cannot neglect the sociability aspect of effective organizations.

People seek personal growth. Whether we call this self-actualization, advancement, growth, or need for achievement, “what is in it for me” is a powerful need. We cannot neglect the development aspect of effective organizations (Paul Hersey et al., 2001). We believe that figure 2.5 demonstrate that a leadership model must incorporate these three basic need categories.
2.7.2. Process Theories of Motivation

Process theories seek to understand the thought processes that take place in the minds of people and that act to motivate their behavior. The process theories focus on how behavior originates and operates. These theories actually deal with approaches that can aid a manager to motivate an employee (Moorhead and Griffin, 1995).

Process theories offer a more dynamic alternative; they strive to provide an understanding of the cognitive process that take place within the minds of people which act to influence their behavior. These are Adams’ Equity theory, Vroom’s Expectancy theory and Goal Setting theory.
2.7.2.1. Adam’s equity theory

Adam’s theory states that employees strive for equity between themselves and other workers. Equity is achieved when the ratio of employee outcomes over inputs is equal to other employee outcomes over inputs (Adams, 1965).

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

Comparison processes:

According to equity theory, people evaluate their inputs to the job relative to the outputs they receive and then they compare them to them to the inputs and outputs of other. “Did I get as much from my inputs as my co-workers received for theirs?” Inputs refer to all the relevant factors individual bring to the exchange, such as effort, performance, education skills, time and opportunity costs. Outcomes include all of the rewards individuals receive from the exchange. Although pay is the most obvious organizational outcomes, many other positive and negative outcomes may also be viewed as the value attached to both inputs and outcomes is based upon the person’s perceptions of its value, rather than its objective worth.

The basic comparisons of equity theory can be illustrated by the following formula comparing the input- output ratios of a person relative to the input- output ratios of others.

\[
\frac{O_p}{I_p} = \frac{O_o}{I_o}
\]

O = Outputs     I = Inputs    o = others    p = person
In this formula, $O_P$ divided by $I_P$ refers to the ratio of person’s outcomes to inputs while the $O_O$ divided $I_O$ refers to the outcomes to inputs ratio of others. A state of equity exists when the two ratios are essentially equal. But changing any of the four values can destroy this state of equity.

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

Equity theory explains why employee performance is often less than expected. Employees typically have inflated perceptions of a “fair wage” because high wages are mentioned more frequently in the popular literature. Since the actual wages employees receive are generally less than the fair wages, workers supply a corresponding fraction of their normal effort.

Equity theory is general theory, believed to apply to most people in most situations, the importance of equity, however, is not universally accepted by everyone. Research has shown that the norm of equity is an individual characteristic, somewhat linked to gender, where in some individuals, especially men are more prone than woman to distribute outcomes to other individuals in direct proportion to their inputs. This is not to say that men are more concerned than women are more apt to adopt an equity norm in which outcomes are distributed equally regardless of inputs (Adams, 1965)
2.7.2.2 Vroom’s expectancy valence theory

Vroom’s theory is based on the belief that employee effort will to performance and performance will lead to rewards. Rewards may be either positive or negative. The more positive the reward, the more likely the employee will be highly motivated. Conversely, the more negative the reward the less likely the employee will be motivated (Victor, 1964).

Expectancy theory is a decision-making model of motivation that explains how individuals decide what to do by evaluating the outcomes of their behavior and the probabilities associated with them. Several disciplines have contributed to the development of expectancy theory, including economics, decision theory and psychology. Consequently, many different methods of expectancy theory have been presented in the literature it has also been called expectancy/valence theory, instrumental theory and valence instrumentality expectancy (VIE) theory (Victor, 1964).

The basic idea of expectancy theory is that motivation is determined by the outcomes people expect to occur as a result of their actions. These elements are outlined in the figure 2.6. The amount of effort an individual is willing to exert depends on (1) the relationship between effort and performance (expectancy), (2) the perceived relationship between performance and the outcomes (instrumentality), and (3) the value of the outcomes (valence).
2.7.2.3 Goal setting theory

Latham and Locke have done some of the most important work in goal setting. Goal setting theory is the specification of goal to increase performance. Assigning difficult goals usually results in higher performance. Goal setting has three components that have to be used to apply this concept successfully. First, the identification of the process, then the characteristics, and finally, the feedback. The characteristics of goal setting consist of making the goal specific and challenging. The goal must be challenging to increase self-efficacy. It has been noted that a difficult task tends to increase an employee’s performance. This may be because usually people work harder to reach a challenging goal, as long as it is believed that it can be done (Wheaton and Cameron, 1998).

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

Applying Goal setting theory:

The effects of goals setting on behavior are influenced by four major goal-setting attributes: goal specificity, goal difficulty, goal acceptance and goal commitment.

Goal specificity:

According to Wheaton and Cameron (1998), numerous studies have found a direct relationship between goal specificity and increased performance. When employees are
working toward specific goals they consistently perform at higher levels than when they are simply told to do their best or are allowed to work at their own rate with no instructions at all.

Goal difficulty:

According to Wheaton and Cameron (1998), studies on the effect of goal difficulty have found a direct linear relationship showing that an increase in goal difficulty is associated with an increase in task performance. In other words, higher goals lead to higher performance. The relationship between goal difficulty and task performance however, does not hold for unreasonably difficult goals.

When the goals are so high that they become unreasonably difficult or impossible, individuals tend to ignore the goals and performance may be only slightly better than no goals at all. When a goal is perceived as so difficult that it is virtually impossible to attain, the result is often frustration rather than achievement.

2.7.2.4. ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE AND CULTURE

1. Do employees have the ability to perform their jobs? Ability includes both the physical and intellectual skills needed to do their work, which is largely a selection issue, as well as the knowledge they require, which is primarily a training issue.

2. Do employees have clear job expectations that come from carefully established goals? Goal setting theory suggests that goals should be specific, challenging and acceptable.

3. Is the work designed efficiently so that the efforts of employees are not wasted on unproductive activities? Poorly designed jobs can be preventing employees from being productive regardless of their efforts.
4. Does the organizational environment contribute to a productive work setting? Uncooperative work groups and inefficient structures can destroy productive efficiency as much as poorly designed work.

5. Are meaningful rewards contingent on performance? Are the reinforcement contingences and reward schedules designed to reward people for high performance? People are motivated by many possible reinforcers, but some are much more effective than others, especially intrinsic rewards that serve as internalized values.

6. Are the rewards fair? Whether they are fair is primarily a subjective decision that is based on equity comparison relative to what others receive. Equity theory explains how these comparisons are made and the consequences of equity.
The model suggests that effort, ability and goal setting attributes combine in a multiplicative fashion to produce performance. A multiplicative model means that if any of the three factors is zero or missing, there is no performance. This idea ought to seem quite reasonable since zero effort should produce zero performance regardless of the person’s ability. Similarly, nothing will be produced if the person has no ability or does not understand what to do. Likewise, it suggests that work design and the organizational environment influences performance since people cannot perform well if their jobs or the organization prevent them from translating their efforts into productive outcomes.

The motivational model will examine work design and the kinds of organizational environments that contribute to outstanding motivation.

Rewards should be based on performance. The which lines between performance and rewards are intended to suggest that the relationship for intrinsic rewards is more direct than for extrinsic rewards since people administer their own intrinsic rewards while extrinsic rewards depend on uncertain organizational practices. Job satisfaction is determined largely by the kinds of rewards people receive from their work. However, their perceptions of whether their rewards are fair and equitable are important considerations (Wheaton and Cameron, 1998).
2.7.3 Traditional Theories of Motivation

The Traditional way is to define motivation as a process of directing (stimulating or actuating) people to action in order to accomplish desired goals. Based on this definition, motivation is a function an educational head performs to get their teachers to achieve goal and objectives. These theories deal with rewards and punishments. Most of human motivational systems are, in fact, based on the belief that people can be led to expand energy in a desired direction if they are offered the proper reward or are threatened with punishment. In education, business and enterprises the reward system might include promotions, recognitions, salary increases and prestige.

The punishment system would include no promotions, no raises and non-recognitions (Moorhead and Griffin, 1995).

2.7.3.1 Efforts and rewards theory

This theory tried to establish a direct relationship between efforts and rewards. Taylor (1982) conceived this idea in his piece rate system of wages. Management thought that people could perform and contribute better to the extent they were rewarded. To practice this theory, managers should establish the standards of performance, monitor the behavior of employees and decide about the rewards and penalties based on the degree of performance.

2.7.3.2. Fear and punishment theory

The philosophy “might is right” characterized the thinking of aggressive and authoritarian managers. Managers developed a strategy of forcing people to work by threatening to punish or dismiss them or to cut their rewards if they didn’t work well. This theory is based on the military principle, “Neither makes reply nor question why, but do or
and the assumption is that people would work efficiently and with interest if they were driven by fear and punishment. There was tight control and rigid supervision over workers (Moorhead and Griffin, 1995).

2.7.3.3 Monastic theory

This is almost like efforts and rewards theory. Here, the management assumes that people work for money only. This theory seeks a single cause of behavior. It assumes that all the activities of men are directed only towards earning money. More effort will provide more wages, which will further encourage the workers to more effort. This is also known as the “Effort-Reward-Effort theory” (Raju and Parthasarathy, 2000).

2.7.3.4 Carrot and stick theory

This theory suggests a judicious combination of both rewards and penalties for motivation. This theory is based on the strategy of putting a carrot in front of a donkey and hitting it with a stick from behind so that it has to run. The carrot refers to incentives like money and other inducements, and the stick refers to penalties, fear of dismissal and demotion (Raju and Parthasarathy, 2000).

2.7.3.5 Paternalistic theory

Paternalistic theory was successful in its approach and effectively competed with the “Be strong” and “fear and punishment” theories. After experiencing the ‘Be strong’ theory and its limitations some managers implemented a new strategy. They were kind, generous and had the interest of the employees at heart. They functioned much as parents towards their children. But they expected loyalty, demanded respect and provided their employees what they thought was good for them. High wages, job security, good facilities for education,
health, recreation and good work environments were provided to gain loyalty and increase efficiency and productivity (Raja and Parthasarathy, 2000).

2.7.4 Behaviorists Theories of Motivation

The classical methods certainly have their place, but they do have limitations and areas that they do not address. Behavior modification is a method used to improve productivity and to motivate personnel. If a manager reviews the work of various groups or individuals and determines that performance is below average, the established behavior of the individual or group needs to be modified to improve performance (Crowl et al., 1997).

2.7.4.1 Reinforcement theory

According to Skinner (1993), reinforcement theories (both operant conditioning and social cognitive theory) claim that behavior is a function of the consequences associated with the behavior.

Very simply, people tend to do things that lead to positive consequences and avoid doing thing that lead to unpleasant consequences. The relationship between behavior and its consequences is called a reinforcement contingency. Knowing the reinforcement contingencies associated with a person’s behavior allows you to diagnose and predict that person’s behavior. To change behavior requires changing the reinforcement contingencies. Positive reinforces refer to desirable consequences that people normally report as pleasant and enjoyable. Negative reinforces refer to negative consequences and are described as undesirable and disliked.

Reinforces:

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

Extrinsic rewards:-

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

Intrinsic rewards:-

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

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

• Positive reinforcement: the provision of rewards or further encouragement as performance increases.
Negative Reinforcement: The removal of negative aspects of a job as a reward for increased production.

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

Extinction: The withholding of positive reinforcement until, over time, the undesired behavior disappears (Crowl et al., 1997).

2.7.4.2 Elton Mayo

Behavioral Management began with the interpretations of the Hawthorne studies by Elton Mayo (1924). The general conclusion Mayo came to that there is more to work than just the work. People work to satisfy a number of needs, not just the need for money. So, motivation can be achieved through means other than wages and benefits and satisfaction is affected by more than just remuneration. As Mayo’s conclusions became known, others contributed their ideas and the behavioral school of management thought was born (Johns, 1996).

2.7.4.3 Douglas McGregor’s theory

Douglas McGregor, an American social psychologist, proposed his famous X-Y theory in his 1960 book ‘The Human Side of Enterprise’. But he did summarize both the classical and behavioral systems and endorsed behavioralism. McGregor chose to call his outline of classical ideas Theory X; he called behavioral concepts Theory Y. McGregor believed that thing other than money could motive people. He felt that involvement with the organization, though participation in decision-making, would not only motivate workers, but would benefit the organization. He felt that most workers not only could make a contribution, but that most wanted to contribute. The theory X and theory Y approach of Douglas
McGregor can serve to categorize how people think about the basic motivations of others. Some managers take the point of view that others value work for its own sake and do not have to be monitored closely. This is the humanistic Theory Y view. Other managers might take the Theory X perspective that people basically don’t want to work and that employees have to be watched continually to make sure they keep to their jobs (Robbins, 2003).

McGregor’s theory X

In this theory management assumes employees are inherently lazy and will avoid work if they can. Because of this workers need to be closely supervised and comprehensive systems of controls developed. A hierarchical structure is needed with narrow span of control at each level. According to this theory employees will show little ambition without an enticing incentive program and will avoid responsibility whenever they can (Gary et al; 1999).

The theory X manager tends to believe that everything must end in blaming someone. He or she thinks all prospective employees are only out for themselves. Usually these managers feel the sole purpose of the employees’ interest in the job is money. They will blame the person first in most situations, without questioning whether it may be the system, policy, or lack of training that deserves the blame.

Furthermore, theory X supervisors cannot trust any employees and they reveal this to their support staff their communications constantly. A theory X manager can be said to be an impediment to employee morale and productivity. Theory X-With Theory X assumptions, management’s role is to coerce and control employees.

Employees inherently dislike work and whenever possible, will attempt to avoid it. Since employees dislike work, they must be coerced, controlled, or threatened with punishment to achieve goals.

!! Employees will avoid responsibilities and seek formal direction whenever possible.
Most workers place security above all other factors associated with work will display little ambition (Robbins, 2003).

McGregor’s theory Y

In this theory management assumes employees may be ambitious, self-motivated, anxious to accept greater responsibility and exercise self-control and self-direction. It is believed that employees enjoy their mental and physical work creative and forward thinking in the workplace. There is a chance for greater productivity by giving employees the freedom to perform at the best of their abilities without being bogged down by rules.

A Theory Y manager believes that, given the right conditions, most people will want to be well at work and that there is a pool of unused creativity in the workforce.

They believe that the satisfaction of doing a good job is a strong motivation in and of itself. A theory Y manager will try to remove the barriers that prevent workers from fully actualizing themselves.

Theory Y- with theory Y assumptions, management’s role is to develop the potential in employees and help them to release that potential towards common goals. Employees can view work as being as natural as rest or play.

1. Employees inherently dislike work and whenever possible, will attempt to avoid it.
2. People will exercise self-direction if they are committed to the objectives. Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement.
3. The average person can learn to accept, even seek, responsibility.
4. The ability to make innovative decisions is widely dispersed throughout the population and is not necessarily the sole province of those in management positions (Robbins, 2003).

2.7.4.4 Ouch’s theory Z

William Ouch proposed theory Z as an alternative theory of organizational behavior. Theory Z organizational culture comprises three major characteristics (a) Trust, (b) Subtlety
and (c) Intimacy. Theory Z outlines a complete transformation of the motivational
principles underlying high performance organizations and implies a revolutionary change in
management practices. The main characteristic features of the theory are as follows:
The main characteristic features of theory are as follows:
Long term employment
Collective responsibility
Seniority based rewards
Implicit, informal control with explicit, formalized method
Collective decision-making
Emphasis on self-discipline
Slow evaluation and promotion
Moderately specialized careers (Raju and Parthasarthy,)

2.8. OVERALL CRITICIMS AND COMMENTS ON VARIOUS THEORIES

There are two types of motivation theories: content and process. The content theories
are based on the basic need drives. The other theories focus on the process by which people
are motivated. Content theories of motivation explain the dynamics of employee needs, such
as why have different needs at different times. Content theories of motivation stress the
analysis of underlying human needs.

The content theories of motivation approaches that led to our understanding of
motivation are Maslow’s need- hierarchy theory. Herzberg’s two- factor theory, Alderfer
ERG theory and McClelland’s achievement theory.

The process theories focus on how behavior originates and operates. These theories
actually deal with approaches that can aid a manager/heads to motivate an employee.
Vroom’s theory, Adams’s Equity and Goal Setting theory
Maslow’s theory is useful in explaining motivation in that it identifies need and provides a description of them. The theory also postulates the relationship between need satisfaction and motivation, holding that only unfulfilled needs energize behavior and that in the cases of equal need strength, the lower level need must be sated first.

One of the basic problems with the need hierarchy is that very little evidence exists to support the contention that there are five levels of needs. Furthermore, there is disagreement about whether the satisfaction of one need automatically activates the next need in the hierarchy. In addition, there is no definitive proof that once a need has been satisfied, its strength diminishes.

Although Herzberg’s two-factor theory remains a very popular textbook explanation of work motivation and makes sense to practitioners, it is also true that from an academic perspective the theory oversimplifies the complexities of work motivation. When researchers deviate from the critical incident methodology used by Herzberg, they do not get the two factors. There seem to be job factors that lead to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction. These findings indicate that a strict interpretation of the two-factor theory is not warranted.

In spite of the obvious limitations, few would question that Herzberg has contributed substantially to the study of work motivation. He extended Maslow’s need hierarchy concept and make it more applicable to work motivation. Herzberg also drew attention to the importance of job content factors in work motivation, which previously had been badly neglected and often totally overlooked. The job design technique of job enrichment is also one of Herzberg’s contributions. Overall, Herzberg added much to the better understanding of job content factors and satisfaction, but, like his predecessors, he fell short of a comprehensive theory of work motivation. His model describes only some of the content of work motivation; it does not adequately the complex motivation process of organizational participants.
Maslow’s theory argues that individuals move up the hierarchy as a result of the satisfaction of lower order needs while ERG theory includes a unique frustration-regression component. This suggests that an already satisfied need can become activated when a higher need cannot be satisfied. Thus, if a person is continually frustrated in his or her attempts to satisfy growth needs, relatedness needs can again surface as key motivators. ERG theory offers a more flexible approach to understanding human needs than does Maslow’s strict.

There are some differences between the ERG theory and the hierarchy of needs theory. For one, the ERG theory does not believe in levels of needs. A lower level need does not have to be gratified. This theory accounts for a variety of individual differences, which would cause a worker to satisfy their need at hand, whether or not a previous need has been satisfied. The second difference is that if a more important need is not gratified, the desire to gratify a lesser need will increase. However, the frustration of higher-order needs might lead workers to regress to a more concrete need category. The two major motivational premises that the ERG theory gives are; the more lower-level needs are gratified, the more higher-level need satisfaction is desired; the less higher-level needs are gratified, the more lower-level need satisfaction is desired.

McClelland achievement theory is useful in explaining people having these needs have certain ways of dealing with their jobs. People who are high in the need for achievement tend to be mostly concerned with performing better than others perform. They usually are more innovative and prefer long-term goal involvement. People with high need for affiliation are more concerned with establishing interpersonal relationships with other people. They tend to communicate more frequently.

Finally, people with a high need for power wish to make an impression or influence others. They are very concerned with personal prestige. Therefore, McClelland believes that
managers can motivate workers by knowing what kind of needs they have and provide them with a job that matches that need.

A person’s behavior is not determined by needs alone. A person’s values, habits, skills, and environmental opportunities are also factors. McClelland says that there is not a one-to-one correspondence between needs and behavior. Over the past decade, a great deal of research and writing has been generated by equity theory. Perhaps the most relevant research has been that which focuses on equity theory predications of employee reactions to pay. These predications typically distinguish between two conditions of pay (underpayment and overpayment) and two methods of compensation (hourly rate and piece rate). Current research findings support many equity theory predications. This is particularly true with regard to underpayment.

Overall, equity theory is useful to the study of motivator because it helps us to better understand human behavior at work. The theory also help to explain why management can redesign someone’s job, give the person more autonomy and feedback on performance and still not motivate the individual. The reason may be found in the reward-to-work ratio. The worker may feel that management should also raise his or her pay. Motivation is a multifaceted area and changes in one job factor may require changes in others. Finally, equity theory encouragers managers to continually reevaluate the bases on which they distribute available rewards. What is considered equitable today may not be regarded that way tomorrow.

At present, research on expectancy theory continues. Some of it has been very beneficial in validating at least parts of the theory. It has been found that incentive-pay workers with high expectancy perceptions were significantly higher productive than those with low expectancy perceptions. And pay has generally proved to be an important outcome. Despite these results, however, there are problems.
The expectancy model of motivation points to several concrete guidelines for managers seeking to increase performance. The majority of these suggestions are not simply ways to manipulate employees. Instead, they often lend to improved situations for employees. In this sense, the implications suggested here represent a strategy for integrating employee needs, desires and goals with those of the organization.

Determine what outcomes your subordinates’ desire. More specifically, identify outcomes that high positive valence for your subordinates in order to motivate them to perform at a high level. Clearly, communicate what performance levels must be obtained for them to receive highly valued (positive valence) outcomes.

Setting clear and specific goals has a greater positive impact on performance improvement than does “do the best you can” goal setting. Employee goals that are seen as difficult but attainable lead to higher performance than do easy goals, as long as the worker accepts the particular goals. Support has been reported for the superiority, in terms of performance improvement, of participative goal setting over the use of assigned goals.

In the field of organizational and industrial psychology, Locke and Latham relate motivation and task performance via the goal-concept. Also for them actions are goal-directed. They define goals as action-outcomes an individual tries to achieve or to avoid. Their goal setting theory is strongly related to management-by-objectives techniques.

Goal characteristics affect the strength of motivation to strive for that goal and hence also the level of task performance. It is of course not the future goal as such that has causal effects in the present. That would be an unscientific teleological explanation. It is the actual anticipation of the goal and its characteristics that motivates present task performance.