CHAPTER III

LABOUR WELFARE MEASURES AND SOCIAL SECURITY - CONCEPTUAL FRAME WORK

3.1 INTRODUCTION

It would appear that for the most men the need to work is deep rooted in their psychological make up and that the meaning of work takes on significance beyond mere material well being and economic satisfaction. If a man does not feel that his job offers challenge to him- if he does not value the skills that the job requires – then delegation is not likely to lead to higher productivity.

In today’s competitive world the thrust is given to quality in order to nurture quality culture. The total quality movement represents a shift in management perspective; People’s issues move to the foreground and technical issues take a supporting role. Quality through consistency is everyone’s responsibility in the organization.

3.2 DEFINITION OF LABOUR WELFARE MEASURES AND SOCIAL SECURITY

Labour Welfare Measures and Social Security represents the overall satisfaction that is perceived by an employee from his work. Labour Welfare Measures and Social Security also can be described as the nature of work or work content, the physical conditions or the so called hygiene factors under which the employee works, the psychological stress one experiences from the work and from other components at the work place; the group morale where he performs- all
these factors, and many more, combine to form a general perception of Labour Welfare Measures and Social Security.

In the words of Lee M. Ozley and Judith S Ball, Labour Welfare Measures and Social Security improvements is defined, “as any activity which seeks greater organizational effectiveness through the enhancement of human dignity and growth…a process through which the stake holders in the organization-learn how to work together to determine for themselves what actions, changes and improvements are desirable and workable in order to achieve the twin and simultaneous goals of an improved quality of life at work for all the members of the organization and greater effectiveness”.

3.2 CONCEPT OF LABOUR WELFARE MEASURES AND SOCIAL SECURITY

Labour Welfare Measures and Social Security is a state of mind or condition an employee experiences within his organization. From the time immemorial there has been focus on the Labour Welfare Measures and Social Security in India. This is due to the fact that the entire Indian philosophy has developed itself on the basis of improving the quality of life of the people depicted in scriptures, scared books and epics, to the needs and maintenance of quality in every one’s life. Karma yoga is prescribed as a way of life. Karma refers to work and Karma yoga deals with meaning of work, its implications, and the way in which it should be done. Applied in a narrow sense it can describe requisites of the highest quality in work.
Different expressions have been used to denote Labour Welfare Measures and Social Security in different countries. To quote a few for example, in France the most common expression is improvement in working conditions. In the former socialist economies ‘workers participation’ is the term that was widely accepted. But in Scandinavia the central concept of Labour Welfare Measures and Social Security centers on work environment and ‘democratisation of work place’. Taking Japan, the concepts namely Hata rakigui and Ikigui have gained much impetus in usage and are almost similar to Labour Welfare Measures and Social Security and quality of life respectively.

In Norway, Emery and Thorsurd (1969) carried out a study on the effectiveness of the participation of worker representatives on the company boards. The study led to the identification of six psychological requirements of working people, which were,

- Need for variety in the content of a job.

- Need for being able to learn on the job.

- Need for individual decision making in some minimal area

- Need for social support and recognition in the work place to some minimal area.

- Need for the individual to be able to relate what he does and what he produces in his social life.

- Need to feel that the job leads to some sort of desirable future.
The International labour office directory of Institutions engaged in improving Labour Welfare Measures and Social Security (1981) list the following areas of concern for Labour Welfare Measures and Social Security.¹

- Hours of work and arrangement of working time.
- Work organization and job content
- Working conditions of women, Young workers, Old workers and other special categories.
- Work related welfare services and facilities.
- Shop floor participation in the improvement of working conditions.

The survey related to literature covered so far reveals that, the scope, content, dimensions of Labour Welfare Measures and Social Security are almost the same in all of them. Studies on the consequences or implications of various Labour Welfare Measures and Social Security programmes conducted by researchers reveal that it is to improve the work environment, redesign the work, to encourage the participative decision making etc., The researchers have also used different concepts to define Labour Welfare Measures and Social Security and have adopted different methodologies in measuring Labour Welfare Measures and Social Security. A brief survey on the studies related to Labour Welfare Measures and Social Security is presented in the following pages.
3.4 HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF LABOUR WELFARE
MEASURES AND SOCIAL SECURITY

Work - Pre-industrial and Industrial era

In pre-industrial society work was performed in the same community setting where people lived. You knew the person who made your shoes, your clothes, your milk & cheese, and your furniture. You socialized with these same people, as well as helped them when in need. The twin forces of the reduction in agricultural work and the rise of mechanical work meant more people becoming wage earners who were working for others (Brisken, 1996). In 1860, half the working population was self-employed; by 1900 two-thirds were wage earners. Work became governed by the clock, by uniform standards, and by supervisors “Reason demanded that worker subordinate his own experience of natural rhythms to the logic of efficiency” (Brisken, 1996, p. 100).

The industrial era separated work from the community and created the organization, the bureaucracy to house, organize, and control work. There was little or no contact between the organization where employees worked and the community where they lived. Work was no longer an integral part of community life; it was detached, separated, contained within specific buildings and times. One hypothesis is that motivation only became an issue because meaning disappeared when the work became separated from the rest of life and community (Sievers, 1984) “As a consequence motivation theories have become surrogates for the search of meaning” (Sievers, 1984, p.3).
Wall Street further separated the owners from the employees. Employees received pay for the work they performed and owner/investors received dividends based on the profits of the company. And there was little to no contact between owner/investors and employees.

In organizations hierarchies separated executives from workers, and internal competition forced workers against workers as they fought to move up the increasingly narrow upper levels of the organization. And there was little or no contact between executives and workers. Business Week recently reported that in 1990 average CEO pay was 41 times the average workers pay; in 1999 it was 475 times the average workers pay. We keep moving further and further away from work and the rest of life being entwined. And as work becomes more separated, it loses its meaning as an integral aspect of our human existence.

The Evolution of the Work-life Movement

The person who may have been the first humanist of the industrial revolution was actually considered anti-humanist by most accounts. Frederick Taylor was most well known for his Time and Motion studies, which has been considered de-humanizing because it gave management strict control over worker performance. Peter Drucker asserted, “Taylor, among all his contemporaries, truly deserved the title humanist” (Weisboard, 1985, p. 5). For instance, he believed in matching the person’s abilities to the complexities of the job. He encouraged worker suggestions, he believed in appropriate training for a job, he felt that management was to blame for worker restriction of output rather than worker
inferiority, and he believed in giving people feedback to help them change. In short, Taylor sought humane and sensible antidotes to the degradation of work which, like smoke and pollution, was an early by-product of the industrial revolution (Weisboard, p. 5).

The group dynamics movement, and t-group/laboratory training in particular, was the first movement to focus on the human in groups and later in organizations. The National Training Laboratories, and its counterpart in the UK, Tavistock, worked for the recognition of individual and group behaviour as the critical component of an effective work group and productive organization (French and Bell, 1999). Bion and Trist from Tavistock had regular contact with Likert, Argyris and others in the states, and the journal Human Relations was a joint publication of Tavistock and MIT. This movement later transformed into the organization development concept, which always had the individual at the heart of their value system.

A corollary movement in the US was humanistic psychology, known as the “third force” in the discipline of psychology (AHP, 2001). The first force was considered to be based on Pavlov’s work, and represented by the application of scientific principles to human behavior conducted both in the US and in Great Britain. The second force emerged out of Freudian psychoanalysis and the depth psychologies of Adler, Erickson and Jung, among others. This force focused on the unconscious and felt the conscious, subjective human being was just a manifestation of their unconscious drives. The third force was a reaction to these
first two forces by such luminaries as Rogers and Maslow, who contended that the subjective human being was important. And concerns about self-actualization, meaning, race relations, intrinsic motivation, and potential were more important than either controlling or analyzing behaviour.

**Labour Welfare Measures and Social Security** movement seemed to have evolved out of these other movements, and was an internal response to the external concepts and approaches of the humanistic OD folks. Labour Welfare Measures and Social Security was about the development of organizational programs that supported the welfare of employees (Passmore, 1985). They covered everything from security and safety to participation and meaningful work, and involved the unions as well as the management. Labour Welfare Measures and Social Security coincided with the Corporate Social Responsibility (CRS) movement, which grew out of concerns about businesses’ impact on the environment. Both movements represented quality of life for employees and society in general.

The most recent movement has been referred to as spirituality and meaning at work. The emergence of spirituality in modern business has its roots in multiple sources (Darling and Chalofsky, 2004). One, the slash-and-burn economics of the 1970’s and 1980’s that generated a workforce strongly antagonistic to certain corporate policies which caused prolonged stress leading to employee burnout, increased absenteeism, medical leave and turnover costs. When a more recent prosperous, tight labor market resulted in an effort to retain employees, the
subsequent organizational sensitivity to workforce interests revealed a preference among employees to work for socially responsible, ethically driven organizations that allow the “whole self” to be brought to work. That feeling has increased following the most recent ethics scandals. Finally, the “baby boomers” in America (the disproportionately large generation born just after World War II) have been going through mid-life and early retirement questioning the meaning and purpose of work in their lives.

LABOUR WELFARE MEASURES AND SOCIAL SECURITY AMONG WORKERS

Labour Welfare Measures and Social Security is a product of those environmental and job demand factors and features that impact the total person as he strives to meet the diverse expectations of multiple stakeholders in the institutions - Management, Colleagues, and Government bodies. These stakeholders impact the totality of the individual professional sense of well-being and success in meeting their physical economical, social, emotional, mental, spiritual needs. Among workers community there is little confidence that the management have empathy or concern regarding the complexity and demands of their roles in and out of work place. An occasional word of encouragement from management does not satisfy the desire to see definitive action that targets the conditions of their work place.
3.5 CONCEPT OF MOTIVATION

Some basic concepts about motivation

The force or push which activates the organism to action has been variously called need, motive, goal, instinct, drive or desire. It is necessary to distinguish between the meaning of these terms.

(a) Need:

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

Needs are of different types, the need for food or water is a physiological need, which arises out of-lack or deficit of food or water in the organism. The need for excretion and urination which are also physiological needs are due to the organism's necessity to eliminate waste matter from the body. The need for contact with other persons around is a social need. The other social needs may be need for prestige, money, status, affection, self-esteem, and so on. A person becomes more aware of his needs when there is a deficit in their fulfillment. In other words, when an individual is in a state of deprivation he recognizes his needs. When you are hungry, you need food, when you are thirsty you need water. In these cases you are in a state of deprivation and your bodily system suffers from imbalance. The needs may be broadly categorized as, primary basic or physiological needs and secondary or social needs. Need for food, water, sex, sleep and rest, elimination are primary needs. Need for achievement, affiliation, power are social needs.
(b) Motives:

The term 'motive' refers to goal directed behaviour and energizing conditions within the organism that drives behaviour. It is generally used to refer to certain conditions within the individual which, besides arousing, actually predisposes him to respond, or behave in a way appropriate to the satisfaction offends. Motives direct the activity of the individual towards his goals. Therefore, sometimes hunger and thirst are referred to as motives, If you are deprived of food for 24 hours, and when food is provided you rush because you are motivated by hunger.

(c) Goal:

A goal is something you think, will contribute to the satisfaction of a need or motive. If hunger is a need, eating food is the goal. Most of our behaviour is goal directed. Goal is related to the need. However, in a few cases, behaviour is guided by intrinsic motive. It means the Behaviour does not need external goal. It is satisfying and enjoyable by itself. Some people may like to sing, dance or play just for the sake of singing, dancing or playing. They like such activity.

(d) Instincts:

An instinct is an innate biological force that predisposes the organism to act in a certain way. At one time all of our behaviour were supposed to be the result of instincts. Some of the instincts identified are fight, repulsion, curiosity, self-abasement, acquisition etc. It was thought that instincts were inherited and compelling sources of conduct, but can be modified by learning and experience.
This term is no more used in relation to human Behaviour. Animal Behaviour is sometimes explained using this term.

(e) **Desires**:

Desire connotes purely psychological feelings which may or may not have physiological sources. It is often used to denote what one is wanting to have. Generally "desire" word is used in a basic sense of strong inner urges. Indian psychological literature uses this term to explain all misery and stress.

**Types of needs**

It is difficult to classify needs into distinct categories because the behaviour displayed by an individual at a given time is not the outcome of a single motive. Many motives contribute to it. But on the basis of information gained through, the analysis of human behaviour, psychologist have attempted to classify human needs into two broad categories:

i. Primary or physiological needs

ii. Secondary or socio-psychogenic needs.

The *primary needs* are called *physiological needs* because to a large extent they are rooted in the physiological state of the body. It includes mainly hunger, thirst, sex, temperature regulation, sleep and pain.

The *secondary or socio-psychogenic* needs are unique to human beings. Many of these motives are learned and they drive the individual toward special kind of behaviour. Since these needs are learned motive, their strength differ
greatly from one individual to another. Some of the important socio-psychogenic motives are power, affiliation, achievement and approval.

**Hierarchy of needs**

Several theories have been given by various psychologists to explain needs and motivation. One such theory was given by Abraham Maslow. He critically examined the traditional approach and argued that needs are arranged on a ladder-like steps. These include both the major kind of needs, physiological and socio-psychogenic in a systematic manner.

Maslow developed a rising order of needs from physiological to self-actualisation needs. The order of needs starts from basic survival or lower order needs to higher order. As one type of need is satisfied another higher order need will emerge and become operative in life. The hierarchy is as follows:

1. Physiological needs
2. Safety needs
3. Love and Belongings needs
4. The esteem needs
5. Self actualisation needs
Physiological needs: The most potent of all the needs are the physiological needs. They are hunger, thirst, sex, temperature regulation and rest. According to Maslow when these physiological needs are deprived for a long period, all other needs fail to appear.

Among the physiological needs, hunger is the most basic and strongest of human needs. The human body has evolved many bodily mechanisms that regulate actions necessary for maintaining the physiological balance. This process of maintaining physiological balance is called homeostasis. We must eat to live. The bio-chemical processes which sustain life get their energy and chemical substances from food. Food deprivation results in contractions in the stomach which are felt by the individual as hunger pangs. When this happens, the individual spends energy in trying to get food. Factors like habits and social customs can also influence eating behaviour.
We can go without food for weeks but we cannot live without water for more than a few days. The brain directs the individual to obtain water. Sex need differs in many respects from hunger and thirst. Sex is not vital to the survival of the organism but is essential to the survival of the species.

**Safety needs**: When the physiological needs are satisfied safety needs become the dominant force in the individual. Safety needs are mainly concerned with maintaining order and security, to feel secure and safe and out of danger.

**Love and Belongingness needs**: The needs of this category emphasize the basic psychological nature of human beings to identify with the group life. These are needs of making intimate relationship with other members of the society. The people want to be an accepted member of an organized group, need a familiar environment as in family. These needs are dependent on the fulfillment and satisfaction of previous categories of needs.

4 **The esteem needs**: Esteem needs are divided into two categories

a. Self esteem, self respect and self regard

b. Relating to respect from others like reputation, status, social success and fame. The need of self evaluation occurs in those persons who are comfortably situated and satisfied with the fulfillment of previous lower order needs. For example, competent professional who has established a high reputation and does not have to worry about, may become quite discriminating about what type of work he accepts.
The other type of esteem needs are need to achieve, to be competent, to gain approval and recognition. The need to feel superior to others falls under this category. For fulfilling this, the person may buy good and costly clothes.

**Self actualisation:** The highest need in the hierarchical system, proposed by Maslow is self actualisation. It is the desire to utilize one's personal capacities, to develop one's potentialities to the fullest and to engage in activities for which one is well suited. One should realize and be satisfied that he has achieved what he is capable of.

Self actualization is only possible when the basic needs of the person are met to the degree that they neither distract nor consume all available energy. When the person succeeds in satisfying his lower order needs, only then he can act upon his higher order needs.

In this hierarchy it is assumed that the lower order dominates man until that level is fairly satisfied; then comes the next one and so on. However, Maslow explains that every individual does not follow this hierarchy step by step; exceptions do arise. An individual sometimes risks his life to save someone or to save a valued object by defying his own safety needs. There are certain examples in Indian history when women sacrificed their lives to save their honour. There had been freedom fighters who starved themselves to death fighting for the freedom of the country. Here the higher needs superceded the hunger and thirst needs. Sometimes individuals reject love, family, friends etc. by committing suicide, thus defying the needs of love and sense of belongingness.
The hierarchy, however, does not imply that lower order needs become dormant once they are satisfied and the higher order needs become active.

**Achievement motivation:**

One of the important needs present to some degree in all human beings is the "need for achievement" or the need to attain increasingly higher level of performance. People in whom the need for achievement is strong seek to become difficult word and to improve their task performance. They are task oriented and prefer to work on tasks that are challenging and on which their performance can be evaluated in some way. It may be by comparing it with other person's performance in terms of some standards. Achievement motivation can be seen in many areas of human efforts for example, on the job, in school or in sports.

The differences in early life experiences cause variations in the amount of achievement motivation. The expectations parents have from their children also play an important role in the development of achievement motivation. Parents who expect their children to work hard encourage them and praise them for achievement directed behaviour.

The degree of achievement oriented behaviour depends on many factors. One of these is fear of failure. It inhibits the expression of achievement behaviour. When some one is successful in school, sports and other professions, we say that the achievement motivation is very strong in him or her. People do well in exams or competitions because of external rewards or to avoid punishments. There are actually two forms of motivation which affect achievement. There are:
**Intrinsic motivation**: In this form motivation arises from the satisfaction due to the behaviour itself, for our sake.

**Extrinsic motivation**: In this form of motivation in which motivation arises because of external rewards or for avoidance of punishment.

The need for achievement is a motive to accomplish things and to be successful more and more in performing tasks.

### 3.6 THEORIES AND MODELS OF MOTIVATION

The Latin word movere, or motum, which means ‘to move’ was the original source for the word motivation (Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, 1941). Motivation has been described as what energizes, directs, and sustains behaviour (Porter, Bigley & Steers., 2003). There are a variety of sources for motivation including goals, values, and the need for achievement, biological needs, and relatedness, among many others (Reeve, 2005).

What moves people, and then keeps them moving, has been discussed at least since ancient Greece, but courses to teach motivation have been around less than 100 years, and the first textbook was not written until 1964. The first all encompassing motivational theories considered the ‘will,’ instincts, and drives. These attempted to explain all human motivation. It became apparent, however, that no theory could explain everything involving motivation, and so theories that explained pieces of it evolved (Reeve, 2005). Self-actualization Theory, Motivator-Hygiene theory, and Theory X & Y are still often cited in both scholarly and more practitioner-oriented publications. Expectancy Theory, though
well known in work motivation literature, is not as familiar to scholars or practitioners outside that field.

**LONG-ESTABLISHED MOTIVATION MODELS**

**Self-Actualization Theory**

Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs theory (Maslow, 1954) is one of, if not, the most referenced motivational theories in scholarly and management literature. Maslow did not originally provide research findings to support his theory of a hierarchy of needs and little exists today. Still, because it makes so much common sense, and because it is easy to understand, explain, and use, it has continued to be applied in organizational settings (Mustafa, 1992).

Maslow claimed that people move up a needs hierarchy as they satisfy each of them. Unsatisfied needs motivate until they are fulfilled. He visualized the hierarchy as a pyramid. At the bottom of the needs hierarchy pyramid is survival, next is safety and security, then belongingness, after that esteem, and finally self-actualization. The model helped leaders to better understand how to create workplace conditions to satisfy employee needs (Mustafa, 1992). CTE faculty might be considered to move up this pyramid as they develop teaching and research skills, pursue tenure, and then make meaningful contributions to the field.

**Motivator-Hygiene Theory.**

According to Herzberg (1974, 2003), some factors cause dissatisfaction when they are not present, but do not motivate. Others, when they are present, build job satisfaction and motivation. Those two sets of factors, he said, are
different from each other. Hygiene, or maintenance, factors include salary, supervision, and working conditions, among others. Motivational factors include such items as achievement, recognition, growth, and the nature of the work itself. Herzberg was an advocate for job enrichment and encouraged people to build motivational factors into jobs (Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005; Herzberg, 1974, 2003). Volunteer CTE leaders are employing motivational factors when designing awards programs, and hygiene factors when assuring that volunteers have the needed tools and resources to conduct their work.

**Theory X and Theory Y.**

MIT professor Douglas McGregor’s influence upon organization development theory goes far beyond his well known Theory X and Y Theory (McGregor, 1985; Weisbord, 1987). McGregor was a colleague of Kurt Lewin, Edgar Schein, and Warren Bennis, among many others; was a pioneer consultant, developing deep relationships with clients; and was possibly the first psychologist to recognize that personnel policies have strategic organizational importance. He helped Lewin create the Research Center for Group Dynamics at MIT, and was one of the first to apply Lewin’s ideas.

Management, McGregor claimed, may assume that humans naturally want to grow and achieve, take responsibility, and care about their jobs. Or, management may assume that most humans are passive, dependent, and lazy. Managers believing the first assumption, which McGregor labeled Theory Y, will behave differently than those believing the second, Theory X. Those accepting
Theory X will create externally controlled environments, with close supervision. Theory Y adherents are more likely to be coaches, create teams, and to build upon the internal needs of employees, and their own self-control. CTE teachers who subscribe to Theory X are less likely to trust students to be self-directed learners; those believing in Theory Y will create learning environments that are less proscribed.

*Expectancy Theory.*

Although less referred to in the popular organizational literature than the three theories described above, Expectancy Theory, as advanced by Vroom, is well known in scholarly literature (Lawler, 1994; Vroom, 1964). Individuals, he said, expect that outcomes will accrue from their actions. He defined valence to mean the amount of value a person places upon the probable outcome of his or her actions. People are motivated, then, to the extent they believe they can do something that will result in a desired outcome. A CTE administrator, following Expectancy Theory, would then find what each faculty member values, believes he or she has the ability to accomplish, and then makes sure the reward is awarded. Different faculty members will find significance in different things, and have differing self-beliefs about what they can accomplish.

Vroom (1964) believed these variables were multiplicative, not additive. In other words, if an employee believes that good work will result in a successful project, but that the probability of being rewarded for success is zero, the employee will not be motivated. Alternatively, if one believes the probability of
reward is assured, but successful task completion to be impossible, one will not be motivated. Finally, if the employee does not care about the prospective reward (valence = zero), the employee will not be motivated even if they believe one can accomplish the task and that one will receive a reward for doing it.

These four theories are often referred to in the literature and serve as foundational thinking for current motivational investigation. Motivation research, however, is actively being performed in a wide range of arenas including organizational citizenship behavior, organizational justice, perceived organizational support, positive supervisor support, goal theory, self-regulation, self-efficacy, and organizational commitment. Practitioners, however, and scholars working outside the domain of motivational research are often unaware of these useful developments.

3.7 Motivational Research

The number of motivational research may seem surprising, and the results consequential. Below are summaries of several of the numerous active lines of inquiry. Each has practical application for leaders of career and technical education.

Perceived Organizational Support.

Perceived Organizational Support (POS) is the belief employees have about how much the organization values them. POS results from employee beliefs about what the organization is doing voluntarily to support them. It does not result when employees perceive support to be something the organization has to provide.
because of competition, regulation, or other requirements. POS is increased when employees believe the organization considers their goals and values, demonstrates concern for them, helps when they have a problem, is concerned about their opinions, forgives honest mistakes, and will not take advantage of them (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). The CTE administrator who disburses rewards – salary, teaching support, recognition - equitably is more likely to develop POS than one who is perceived to have favorite faculty members, or to use the efforts of staff or faculty to further his or her career at their expense.

The most effective way to develop employee POS is by being fair, the second through supervisor support, and the third through rewards and positive job conditions. Employees generally perceive “fairness” to be discretionary. Management can choose to be fair or not. When it is, the result is POS. When employees believe their supervisors support them (perceived supervisor support) the result is increased performance, commitment to the organization, and job satisfaction (Eisenberger et al., 2002).

**Organizational Justice.**

Employees perceive fairness in organizations in three ways: Procedural Justice, Distributive Justice, and Interactional justice (Colquitt et al., 2001; Colquitt et al., 2005; Cropanzano & Rupp, 2003). Procedural justice is concerned with the perception of the process for decision-making. Employees will observe the factors that were or were not taken into account, who was involved and in what manner, and the types of influence that may have been applied. Distributive justice
is concerned with whether the end result was fair. Employees will ask if rewards were given equitably and how they compared with others. Interactional justice is concerned with how employees felt they were treated during the decision-making process. Employees will walk away feeling honored and respected, or not.

CTE staff are usually hard working employees who often receive much less recognition than faculty members or students. Leaders who treat staff fairly by giving assignments and compensation equitably, including them appropriately in department decision making, and by treating them as valued employees are more likely to find those employees believing the organization is treating them fairly. They will more likely believe the organization was thoughtful and cared about their opinions. Higher job performance and going beyond the call of duty is more likely when employees believe the organization is fair.

**Organizational Commitment.**

Though organizational commitment has been studied for many years (Cook & Wall, 1980; Mowday et al., 1982; Swailes, 2002), the Theory of Meyer & Allen (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Meyer et al., 2002) has received much of the research attention over the last 20 years. They argue that organizational commitment is not all the same, and that commitment has three components, which they label affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Employees who want to work for an organization have affective commitment, those who believe they ought to stay with an organization have normative
commitment, and continuance commitment describes those who feel they have to stay with an organization.

Affective commitment is positively affected when employees Perceive Organizational Support (POS), meaning they have a supportive supervisor and work environment, and are being treated fairly (organizational justice). Normative commitment may be considered to be a general disposition to be loyal to the organization or to organizations in general, which is reinforced or not by organizational socialization and the creation of obligations. Continuance commitment is developed as a result of accumulated investments in the organization that the person would lose if leaving. Of the three components, affective commitment is most positively associated with going beyond the call of duty behaviors, performance, and attendance; normative commitment less strongly; and continuance commitment is either not related or is negatively related. Normative commitment, however, may be a more important influence on organizational commitment in collectivist cultures (Meyer et al., 2002; Yao & Wang, 2006). The CTE administrator wanting to promote commitment to the department or the university will not count completely upon rewards like tenure, promotion and salary, but will be concerned with developing a healthy culture with strong interpersonal relationships, an organization of which faculty can be proud and an important part of, and an emotional climate that is mutually supportive.
**Organizational Citizenship Behavior.**

Organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) are “above the call of duty” actions performed by employees. They are not required, but are voluntarily undertaken for the good of the organization. Such behaviors include staying late, doing what is supposed to be done even when no one is watching, helping others, cheerleading, being on time, sacrificing for the good of the group, speaking positively about the organization to outsiders, and being good stewards of organizational resources, among others (LePine et al., 2002; Podsakoff et al., 2000).

OCBs are voluntary actions of employees. Their opposite occurs when employees “Work to the Contract,” completing the minimum to meet stated expectations or, worse, sabotaging the organization, initiating counterproductive work behaviors, such as gossiping, or calling in sick when healthy (Dalal, 2005). Employees are more likely to perform OCBs when they (a) believe the organization is fair, (b) are satisfied with their jobs, (c) believe their supervisor supports them; and (d) they are committed to the organization. CTE teachers, if exhibiting OCBs, might volunteer to advise one more organization than what is expected, or to coach another teacher needing help. A faculty member might mentor a new professor even if the responsibility is not formally on the position description.
**Goal Setting.**

Goal research involving over 40,000 people in eight countries, over 100 tasks, with a time range of one minute to 25 years found goal setting to be effective in any task where performance is controlled by the people being studied (Locke, 2004a). Goals that are both difficult and specific lead to high performance, though the more difficult the goal the more important it is to develop self-efficiency (Locke & Latham, 2002). It is more likely that an individual with high self-efficacy will set, diligently pursue, and contribute significant effort to difficult goals (Bandura, 1997; Locke & Latham, 1990).

All goals are not the same. Promotion goals are related to growth, advancement, and accomplishment; prevention goals are related to security, responsibility, and safety (Higgins, 1998). Intrinsic goals are associated with inner needs like relationships and contribution; extrinsic goals are associated with rewards like fame, physical appearance, and wealth (Vansteenkiste et al., 2004, Vansteenkiste et al., 2006). Learning goals develop ability; performance goals demonstrate ability. Sometimes high performance goals cause such apprehension that execution actually becomes lower. In those instances, challenging learning goals may be more effective (Seijts & Latham, 2005). Process goals focus on improving form, technique and strategy; performance goals on increasing overall personal performance—faster times, higher quality service; and outcome goals upon accomplishing objective outcomes—winning, being top-ranked. Outcome goals, though often most prized and compensated for in society, are least under an
individual’s control (Burton & Raedeke, In press). Short term, or proximal, goals help individuals to stay on track and help to maintain motivation; long term, or distal, goals can be overwhelming and actually reduce performance (Latham & Seijts, 1999).

Goal setting for CTE leaders may take many forms. One, for faculty, is the pursuit of tenure and promotion (T&P). Such terminal goals may be divided into proximal goals such as annual performance targets; be associated with both the enjoyment of teaching (intrinsic) and rewards such as pay increases (extrinsic); or be oriented toward learning how to research, write and publish, and also outcomes such as published articles.

Volition.

Volition, or willpower, is the process of pursuing goals once set (Corno, 1993; Ghoshal & Bruch, 2003; Gollwitzer et al., 1990; Heckhausen & Kuhl, 1985). Volition comes into play once goals are determined and a commitment is made to them. The commitment process has been called crossing the Rubicon (Corno, 1993; Gollwitzer et al., 1990; Heckhausen & Kuhl, 1985). Pre-decision processes are often defined by theorists as “motivational” and postdecision processes as “volitional,” and each have differing qualities. Once the decision is made goals must be protected from disruptions or distractions, and energy must be maintained. Self-regulation is considered to be the process of setting and pursuing goals, including the processes of goal establishment, planning, striving, and revision (Kanfer, 2005; Vancouver & Day, 2005).
At least two strategies assist in strengthening or maintaining volition. One is motivational support and the other emotional support (Corno, 1993; Kanfer, 2005; Kanfer & Ackerman, 1996). Emotional support is needed to cope with feelings such as anxiety, worry, or inadequacy that might sidetrack goal pursuit intentions. Motivational support is needed to keep attention on the task when interest flags or disillusionment sets in. Emotional support strategies are considered to be more important early when learners are pursuing a goal, and motivational support strategies more important later, when skills to achieve the task have been acquired.

To continue the example of the tenure and promotion process for CTE faculty, administrators play an important role when providing emotional support by encouraging and listening to faculty when needed; and motivational support by helping new faculty set reasonable deadlines, consider alternative means to reaching T&P goals; and providing useful feedback.

**Self-determination—*intrinsic vs extrinsic motivation.***

Motivation ranges from amotion (none) to extrinsic motivation to intrinsic motivation (Deci & Flaste, 1995; Deci & Ryan, 2000, 2002; Vansteenkiste et al., 2006). Intrinsic motivation is derived from executing the activity itself, because it is pleasurable, interesting, or a learning experience. Extrinsic motivation comes not from engaging in the activity but from external consequences or rewards such as pay, recognition, or promotion. Extrinsic motivation can be further categorized by the amount of control external consequences have upon behaviour.
Extrinsic motivation can be considered to be external, interjected, identified, or integrated regulation. External or controlled, regulation is the least autonomous and is impelled by rewards and punishments. Actions are considered to be determined, or coerced by external forces. Grades given by CTE instructors and pay for CTE staff and faculty, would fall into this category. Interjected regulation occurs when people compel with internal pressure. This is considered moderately controlled motivation as people feel pressure to succumb to particular actions based upon feelings of shame, guilt, acceptance, or self-worth. For CTE professionals introjections might involve the avoidance of feeling that one has let the department down, or of performing in a mediocre fashion. For student teachers, interjected motivation may come about through pride in being able to teach mastery skills in trade classes. Administrators would motivate by cultivating strong departmental norms and standards. Identified regulation is considered moderately autonomous as the individual, in this instance, identifies with the value of an activity and thereby chooses to partake as a result. Studying or data collection has valued results, for example, even though the act may not be intrinsically motivating. Finally, integrated regulation is extrinsically motivating, but is considered to be autonomous. People freely choose to engage in the task. Though still not intrinsically (enjoyable, interesting) motivating, integrated regulation involves importance. The value of the task is considered meaningful because it aligns with the person’s own values. Thus, integrated regulation and intrinsic motivation are both freely chosen, but for differing reasons. CTE faculty
might be motivated via integrated regulation when an otherwise unenjoyable task would help students succeed. Motivation from a self-determination perspective, then ranges from determined (or controlled, coercive) external regulation to self-determined (or autonomous, volitional, choice) integrated regulation to intrinsic motivation.

**Self-Efficacy.**

Self-efficacy is the belief one has about his or her ability to complete a task successfully (Bandura, 1997). Motivationally, self-efficacy is important because the level of self-efficacy affects the amount of effort one puts into accomplishing a task, his or her persistence and the difficulty of goals he or she is willing to attempt. Self-efficacy is developed through mastery (personal) or vicarious (observed) experiences, verbal persuasion and one’s emotional or physical states.

High or low self-efficacy builds upon itself. High self-efficacy results in higher performance, which results in higher self-efficacy, greater effort and more challenging goals. Lower self-efficacy results in setting lower goals and pursuing them with less effort and persistence. Lower performance is the consequence, with subsequently lower goals, effort, and persistence. CTE students entering school may have high self-efficacy in their technical fields but little as potential teachers. Faculty working with such students can increase their motivation to succeed, including their effort, persistence, and how high they set their goals, by providing direct learning experiences that give them strong skills or knowledge; being or
finding a mentor and role model for them; encouraging them; and giving them a supportive physical and emotional environment.

**Leader-Member Exchange (LM-X).**

LM-X theory suggests that employees have differing types of relationships with supervisors ranging from out-group, or low quality relationships; to middle-group, or moderate quality relationships; to in-group, or high quality relationships. These relationships are predicated on the quality of exchange between the leader and the follower. Exchanges are transactional when a relationship begins, and may then move to social exchanges, which include sharing information and resources both personally and professionally, and then ultimately progress to exchange of mutual loyalty, trust respect, and emotional obligation. (Burns & Otte, 1999; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen & Novak, 1982).

LM-X has been studied in a variety of contexts. As examples, LM-X has been found: (a) to have more influence than safety communication in safety-predicted events (Michael, Guo, Wiedenbeck & Ray, 2006); (b) to be one reason students are motivated to communicate with instructors (Myers, 2006); and (c) to have a relationship to job performance, commitment, and satisfaction with supervision (Gerstner & Day, 1997). For CTE, LM-X occurs in relationships throughout the organization, including between students and professors, professors and department chairs, and department chairs and deans. In one instance a professor will be the leader and in another the follower and it will be the same for each position. A department chair, dean, or provost cannot develop ingroup
relationships with all deans, chairs, and faculty within his or her purview, nor can a professor or teacher. However, when those relationships are developed they will result in higher communication, performance, commitment and satisfaction.

3.8 **Heuristical Motivational Model**

Models seeking to integrate the various Motivational theories have been proposed by scholars (see Locke & Latham, 2004; Meyer et al., 2004, for example), but today there is no generally accepted model that integrates all workplace Motivation (Latham & Pinder, 2005). The Theoretical models that do exist are conceptual in nature and not directly intended for practitioner application. Administrators and teachers in the field need useful rules of thumb for Motivating on a day-to-day basis. The heuristical workplace model proposed here was first presented in The Manager as Motivator (Kroth, 2006) and is discussed here to assist CTE leaders by providing a Motivational Job as they go about the quotidian charge of helping individuals perform to their potential.

**Setting the Environment**

Leaders wishing to create a highly Motivating environment need to (1) view organizations as ecosystems which they affect, but cannot control; (2) understand those who follow them, searching for their desires, personal and professional goals, and individual situation; (3) care, becoming skilled in behaviors that demonstrate genuine interest in followers’ successes; (4) design intrinsically and extrinsically motivating work; (5) set motivating goals, (6)
provide support for goal pursuit; and (7) manage follower expectancies through the process.

Organizational Ecology. Organizations do not exist in vacuums. Like organisms, the environment impinges upon them constantly. Despite a leader’s best efforts to protect his or her territory, rules change, directions are modified, reconfigurations occur, people make differing demands, and compensation is meted out fairly or unfairly, substantially or trivially. Organizations are similar to ecological systems (Amburgey & Rao, 1996; Carroll & Barnett, 2004; Singh & Lumsden, 1990).

Like ecological systems, environmental changes affect projects, programs, departments, and companies or institutions in toxic or generative ways. Like ecological systems, organizations are dependent upon the environment for resources, which are the equivalent of food, and are subject to the security and safety the environment provides or withholds. Like ecological systems, organizations have the ability to adapt to change. The extent of that capacity and willingness to employ it determines whether new technology, restructurings, or emerging competition cause organizational extinction or allow it to flourish.