Chapter - 3

Motivation - An Overview
CHAPTER-3

MOTIVATION - AN OVERVIEW

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Every organisation wants to secure and maintain optimum performance from the employees. The mere existence of ability and knowledge does not by itself guarantee that the individual will put forward his best effort. This is because, every human being has certain physiological and psychological 'needs' and in due course of time, he converts these 'needs' into 'wants'. When he is employed in an organisation he expects his 'needs' to be satisfied by his organisation. But, just as the employee has certain 'wants' that the organisation is expected to supply, the organisation has certain 'types of behaviour' that it wishes to elicit from the employees. The managerial responsibility for eliciting this behaviour is usually termed 'MOTIVATION'.

Clarence Francis, the Chairman of General Foods has rightly indicated: "You can buy a man's time; you can buy a man's physical presence at a given place; you can even buy a measured number of skilled muscular motions per hour or day; but you cannot buy enthusiasm; you cannot buy initiative; you cannot buy loyalty; you cannot buy devotion of

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hearts, minds and souls; you have to earn these things³. We can earn these things through ‘MOTIVATION’.

Hence, a clear understanding of the term motivation is very much essential. This chapter gives an over view of the concept of motivation regarding what motivation is, why motivation, what are the motivational theories, which factors motivate employees, and how to motivate them.

3.2 MOTIVATION - WHAT IT IS?

Performance results from the interaction of physical, financial and human resources. The first two are inanimate; they are translated into productivity only when the human element is introduced. However, in dealing with the human resource, an intangible factor of will, volition or freedom of choice is introduced and this makes the workers to increase or decrease their productivity. This human quality gives rise to the need for positive motivation.

McGregor has stated that the task of management is to arrange organisational conditions and methods of operation so that people can achieve their own goals best by directing their own efforts toward organisational objectives⁴.

The goals of the individuals and the organisation can be achieved through stimulating workers toward productive performance - called

⁴ ibid p 583
motivational process. It is a process of arousing action, sustaining the activity in progress, and regulating the pattern of activity\(^5\).

### 3.3 MOTIVATION DEFINED

The term 'Motivation' can be traced to the Latin word 'MOVERE' which means 'to move\(^6\). Here, 'to move' means 'to move from one level of performance to a higher level of performance'.

Webster defines 'Motivate' as "to provide with a motive; to impel; incite," and 'motive' as "that within the individual, rather than without, which incites him to action; any idea, need, emotion, or organic state that prompts to an action". 'Incentive' is defined as "that which incites or tends to incite to determination or action". 'Incite' is defined as "to arouse to action; spur or urge on". Thus, in order to arouse the employee to action, it is desirable to determine the motive involved. As this is within the individual, it requires first a study of human "needs, emotions, etc"\(^7\).

It is not enough that one is able to work; one must also be willing to work\(^8\). If he is willing to work, he will be a high performer. This willingness in him can be generated through motivation. According to Rustom Davar, the relationship between ability (A), knowledge (K), motivation (M) and performance (P) can be schematically expressed as

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P = M(A + K)
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\(^5\) ibid p 583


\(^7\) Davar, Rustom S. opcit p 471.

\(^8\) Flippo, Edwin B. opcit p 323.
3.4 PURPOSE OF MOTIVATION

The purpose of motivation is to create conditions in which people are willing to work with zeal, initiative, interest, and enthusiasm, with a high personal and group moral satisfaction, with a sense of responsibility, loyalty and discipline and with pride and confidence in a most cohesive manner so that the goals of an organisation are achieved efficiently⁹.

3.5 IMPORTANCE OF HUMAN RELATIONS

It is important that the employee not only be able to work but be willing to work as well. This willingness is based largely on management’s ability to integrate the interests and needs of its employees with the objectives of the organisation.

If we need an efficient result, there must be a reasonable merger of persons and organisation. When the needs of human beings and the needs of the organisation are different from each other, conflict often occurs. Hence, we must examine the nature of human resource and how to integrate this resource with organisation’s¹⁰.

Research and experience indicate that the interests of both employees and organisation are almost similar in programmes such as flexi time, job enlargement and enrichment, semi-autonomous work groups, participative decision making, job evaluation, variable compensation plans, etc. The greater the close, the more productivity would coincide with employee satisfaction.

The closeness of the interests of these two is increasing as the firms regard their human programmes as proprietary information just as valuable as new product research. When successful, they tend to decrease accidents, absenteeism, turnover, and operating errors, while simultaneously raising morale, quality and productivity. This situation also prevents undesirable behaviour such as sabotage, slow-down, insubordination, strikes and the use of drugs and alcohol on the job\textsuperscript{11}.

Though the interests of the two are coming closer, they have not reached the desired target in actual practice. This is because there are certain interests of employees which the organisation is reluctant to provide; eg: increased wages, totally safe working conditions, time off with pay, insured pension pay-offs, shorter work weeks, premium pay for overtime, etc. When this is the situation, the employees seek the help of external pressures to get these provisions. In general employees’ interest will issue from (i) outside pressures from government, (ii) outside pressures from labour unions, and (iii) outside pressures from the manager’s code of ethics.

Employees are often kept on jobs beyond their useful lives simply because of a manager’s personal code of ethics. Hired professional managers are more likely than owner-managers to spend money in the area of social responsibility\textsuperscript{12}. Thus, the four major forces that lead managers to be vitally concerned with human relations activities are: (i) possible improvements in productivity and effectiveness, (ii) government intervention (iii) union intervention, and (iv) personal code of ethics.

\textsuperscript{11} ibid p 324.

\textsuperscript{12} ibid p 325.
3.6 IMPORTANCE OF MOTIVATION

Motivation has received much attention of academics, researchers and practicing managers. This is justified by several reasons and a few of them are given below:

1. Motivated employees are always looking for better ways to do a job.

2. Motivated employee generally is more quality oriented.

3. Motivated employee is more productive than apathetic employees.

4. Every organisation requires human resources to use financial and physical resources for its effective functioning. This makes motivation still more important.

5. Motivation, as a concept, represents a highly complex phenomenon that affects and is affected by a multitude of factors in the organisation.

6. The greatest attention paid to motivation by our managers speaks about its importance in management of human resources\(^\text{13}\).

3.7 TYPES OF MOTIVATION

The widely used types of motivation are positive and negative motivation.

According to Flippo ‘positive motivation is a process of attempting to influence others to do your will through the possibility of gain or reward’. Positive (or incentive) motivation is the “pull” mechanism. It has its own benefits. The receipt of awards, due recognition, and praise for work well done definitely lead to good team spirit, co-operation and a feeling of happiness.

Negative or fear motivation is based on force or fear. Fear causes persons to act in a certain way because they are afraid of the consequences if they do not. It has certain limitations also. Punishment creates a hostile state of mind and an unfavourable attitude to the job. It may result in lower productivity because it tends to dissipate such human assets as loyalty, co-operation, and *esprit-de-corps*. Inspite of the limitations, there is no management, which has not used the negative motivation at some time or other. However, in recent years the trend has been towards the use of positive motivation\(^{14}\).

Another classification of motivation is the extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. Extrinsic motivation is concerned with external motivators which employees enjoy. Examples of such motivators are pay, promotion, status, fringe benefits, retirement plans, health insurance schemes, holidays and vacations, etc.

Intrinsic motivation, on the other hand, is concerned with the “feeling of having accomplished something worthwhile”, that is, the satisfaction one gets after doing one’s work well. Praise, responsibility, recognition, esteem,

\(^{14}\)Mamaoria, C.B. and Gankar. S.V opcit p 587
power, status, competition and participation are examples of such motivation.

3.8 ADVANTAGES OF MOTIVATION

Motivation provides many advantages. A few of them are listed below:

- Increases productivity
- Improves employee morale
- Ensures optimum utilization of organisational resources.
- Establishes a cordial relationship between management and employees.
- Guarantees better quality products.
- Reduces costs and wastes.
- Reduces absenteeism and labour turnover.
- Avoids strikes and lockouts.
- Minimizes accidents.
- Reduces employee grievances and conflicts.

3.9 PROBLEMS IN MOTIVATION

Inspite of the advantages of motivation, it is not free from problems. The important problems are:
Nowadays people are becoming more knowledgeable and hence it is very difficult to convince them or provide them job satisfaction.

They are not satisfied with what they are provided by the organisation; they want more and more. This is because they are changing and increasing their wants.

In the days of powerful labour unions, they are going on increasing their demands. Satisfying these demands involves cost, which all organisations cannot afford.

Satisfying the employees' wants during a short period is a very difficult task. Satisfying their wants through motivation requires a constant effort over a long period of time.

The wants of the employees vary from person to person. Hence, to satisfy all their wants, more number of motivational measures is required. Developing and implementing suitable motivational measures is a very difficult job for the organisation.

3.10 STUDIES ON MOTIVATION

As human nature is complex, there is not a single accepted theoretical framework for motivation. Knowing the importance and need for motivation, especially in business organisations, many studies on

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motivational aspects have been conducted. The scientific study on human motivation is still going on. A few of them are given below:


A few popular theories of motivation are briefly explained in the subsequent pages.

3.11 MOTIVATIONAL THEORIES

There are many theories of motivation, which indicate that the area is still not very clear. Perhaps the best approach would be to analyse the needs of human beings and around that to develop a theory of motivation. A motivating situation has both a subjective and objective aspect. The subjective side is called as need, a derive, or a desire. The objective side is called the incentive or goal. When the process of obtaining the incentive satisfies (ie removes) the need, the situation is described as motivating. An understanding of the role played by “deeds” of human beings is thus a sine qua non to securing the desired motivation. Having this principle in mind, a

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16 Davar, Rustom.S.opcit p 475
few popular motivational theories developed by organizational psychologists are explained below:

3.11.1 ABRAHAM MASLOW'S THEORY

Abraham Maslow states that ‘Man is a wanting animal’\(^{17}\). When one of his needs is satisfied, immediately comes to him his other need and this process continues. He is not totally satisfied with all he has and gets. The need hierarchy of human beings is as given below:

1. Physiological needs: The need for food, drink, cloth, shelter, and relief from pain.

2. Safety and security: The need for freedom from threats.

3. Belongingness, social activity and love: The need for friendship, affiliation, interaction and love.

4. Esteem: The need for status and recognition.

5. Self-actualisation: The need to fulfil oneself by maximizing the use of abilities, skills, and potential.

Maslow holds that the satisfaction of these needs has a very definite order or sequence. The first two needs in the above classification are known as lower order needs. The other three are called higher order needs. Lower level needs have to be satisfied before going to the higher level\(^{18}\).

\(^{17}\) ibid p 476

\(^{18}\) Tripathi. P.C, Personnel Management and Industrial Relations, Sultan Chand and Sons, New Delhi, 2003, p 72
The chief merits of this theory are:

(i) It extends to all areas of man's life,

(ii) Gives an idea about how man's dominant needs change over time,

(iii) Provides a lesson to the management that man does not live by bread alone.

3.11.2 Mc GREGOR's THEORY

Prof. Douglas McGregor has presented two opposite sets of assumptions about employees, called, Theory X and Theory Y. Theory X stands for the set of traditional beliefs held while Theory Y stands for the set of beliefs based upon researches in behavioural science which is concerned with modern social views on man.

Theory X assumes the nature and behaviour of human beings as presented below:

(i) Typical individuals basically dislike work, as by nature they are indolent, and will avoid work whenever they can.

(ii) Because most people dislike work, they have to be pushed, closely supervised, threatened, coerced, persuaded and even punished to get them to help achieve the objective of the organisation.
Most people basically are lazy, have little ambition, prefer to avoid responsibility and desire security as a major goal; and prefer to be directed or led.

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

He is by nature resistant to change.

He is gillible, not very bright, the ready dupe of the charlatan and the demagogue.

This approach tells about what workers are like and what organisation must do to manage them. Management does the thinking and the employees obey the orders. However, McGregor opined that this theory was based on mistaken notion of what is cause and what is effect. He feels that the modern management is grossly underestimating the interests and capacities of its members. On the basis of psychological and social research results, he submits a more realistic assessment of the capabilities of human beings and calls this as Theory Y.

The assumptions under Theory Y are:

(i) The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest.

(ii) People will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service objectives to which they are committed.

(iii) Commitment to objective is a function of the rewards associated with the achievement.
(iv) The average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept but also to seek responsibility.

(v) The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.

(vi) Under conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentials of the average human being are only partially utilized.

Based on this theory, the management must structure the organizational environment in a manner that will further the release of this tremendous human potential. This model suggests that people are born basically good with considerable potential for growth, at the least, they are born neutral with a ‘blank page to be written upon by the society’.

In practice, a few managements are tempted to adopt Theory Y fully, but many companies apply it self-consciously at certain points, particularly at executive levels, just below top management. In that region, good human relations and a co-operative atmosphere likely to be specially valued by the top of the company.

\[\text{Flippo, Edwin. B, opcit p 331}\]
3.11.3 HERZBERG’S THEORY

According to Herzberg, for every job, some conditions are required. He divides these conditions into two sets, viz, ‘Motivators’ and ‘Hygiene factors’.

The set of conditions, which, provide high job satisfaction and strong motivation are called ‘Motivators’. But their absence rarely proves dissatisfiers. The real motivators are opportunities to become more expert and to handle more demanding assignments. Examples of such motivators are: achievement, recognition, advancement, possibility of growth, responsibility, etc\(^\text{20}\).

The other set of conditions, called the ‘hygiene factors’ do not motivate the employees in a strong way; but their absence act as strong dissatisfiers. These factors are also called ‘maintenance factors’ in job because they are necessary to maintain a reasonable level of satisfaction among the employees. Examples of such factors are: Company policy and administration, technical supervision, inter-personal relation with supervisors, subordinates and peers, job security, working conditions, personal life, status, etc\(^\text{21}\).

Motivational factors are essential for increasing the productivity of the employees. Hygiene factors prevent job dissatisfaction but they do not provide motivation to the employees.

\(^{20}\) Mamaoria, C.B. and Gankar, S.V opcit p 615
\(^{21}\) ibid p 614
Herzberg has given three suggestions as managerial policy recommendations for motivating employees and they are:

(i) ‘Hygiene seekers’ should not be appointed to managerial positions.

(ii) Hygiene needs must always be met.

(iii) Personnel Department should be split up in order to deal with hygiene factors and motivation factors separately.

3.11.4 Mc Clelland’s Theory

John C. Mc cleland has identified three types of basic motivating needs and they are power, affiliation and achievement.

Power motive: The ability to induce or influence behaviour is power. People with a high power need, like exercising influence and control. Such individuals generally seek positions of leadership; they involve in conservation; they are forceful, outspoken, hard headed and demanding.

Affiliation motive: Most individuals like to interact and be with others always. Affiliation plays a very complex but vital role in human behaviour. Behavioural scientists believe that it is an unlearned motive\(^ {22} \). People with high need for affiliation usually derive pleasure from being loved and tend to avoid the pains of being rejected.

Achievement motive: Some people have a desire to achieve something. The need for achievement is a distinct human motive that can be

\(^{22}\) Prasad, L.M. opcit p 488.
distinguished from other needs. It can also be isolated and assessed in any group.

According to this theory, managers show high on achievement and power, and low on affiliation. It also indicates that chief executives of smaller companies show achievement motive as compared to those of large ones.

Achievement motivates people progress much faster\(^3\). However, they are promoted where their success depends not only on their work but on the activities of others also. This is because they work to their utmost capacity and they expect similar results from others. As a result, they sometimes lack human skill and patience. Such managers can be better managers but not in personnel activity. Thus, an organisation may need managers with varying degrees of achievement and affiliation motives.

3.11.5 VROOM'S THEORY

Victor H. Vroom developed this theory. It views motivation as a process governing choices. When an individual has a particular goal, in order to achieve this goal, he has to perform some behaviour. He will weigh the likelihood of various behaviours, which will help achieve the desired goal, and if certain behaviour is expected to be more successful than others, then it becomes his choice of selection.

An important contribution of Vroom’s theory is that it explains how the goals of individuals influence their effort and that the behaviour individuals select depends upon their assessment of the probability that the

\(^3\) ibid p 489
behaviour will successfully lead to the goal. For example all members of an organisation may not place the same value on such job factors as promotion, high pay, job security, working conditions, etc. In other words, they may rank them differently.

The expectancy theory argues that the strength of a tendency to act in a certain way depends on the expectation of an outcome and its attractiveness to the individual. It includes three variables, namely, “Valance, Instrumentality and Expectancy”.

Valancy means the strength of an individual’s preference for a particular outcome. A valance of zero occurs when the individual is indifferent toward the outcome; the valance is negative when the individual prefers not attaining the outcome to attaining it.

Instrumentality refers to a degree to which a first level outcome (Example: superior performance) will lead to a desired second level outcome (Example: promotion)

Expectancy is the probability that a particular action will lead to a particular first level outcome.

The key to expectancy theory is the “understanding of an individual’s goal”- and the relationship between effort, performance, reward and individual goal satisfaction.

\footnote{24 Mamaoria C.B. and Gankar. S.V opcit p 619}

\footnote{25 ibid p 621}
The value of performance is a constantly increasing function of the amount of motivation\textsuperscript{26}. In other words, the more motivated an individual to perform effectively, the more effective is performance. Hence, to have effective performance, the management must consider the following:

(i) The management must determine what needs each employee seeks to satisfy. This knowledge will be useful to management in deciding on rewards available to the employees. It is necessary to individualize rewards that are valuable for some may not be appealing to others.

(ii) Also, the management should attempt to clarify the path for the worker between efforts and need satisfaction.

Vroom's theory does not provide specific suggestions on what motivates employees. It is however, of value in understanding organizational behaviour.

3.11.6 CHRIS ARGYRIS'S THEORY

This theory emphasizes that development of an individual from birth is naturally in the direction of maturation. The characteristics of the individual at the infant stage are: passive, dependent, unaware of self, subordination, possessing short time perspectives, casual and shallow interest, and behaving in only a few ways. On the other hand, his behaviour at the matured stage would be: increasing activity, independence, awareness of and control over self, aspiring for superior positions, having long term perspectives, and behaving in many ways to satisfy needs.

\textsuperscript{26} Ahuja.K.K, opcit p 460
Organisations need human resources to achieve organizational objectives. Though one might content that mature personnel are a prime necessity, Argyris argues that many organizations are structured and managed in such a way that immature infant like behaviour is required for retention and "success"27.

When organizational demands seem to be absurd for a matured employee, he is pushed to the environment of frustration and disinterest. He suggests that industrial organizations are doing serious harm to human beings through management based on assumptions of employee immaturity and irresponsibility28.

Regarding the maturity of all the employees, researches indicate that the need structure of highly educated is highly warranted than the case of rank and file. There is a positive correlation between need satisfaction and job structure. The higher the structure, the greater was the need satisfaction. When the job market operates effectively, there will be some matching of varying human needs and organizational demands.

The next consideration is the quality of decisions when subordinates also participate in decision-making. The greater employee involvement implies higher co-operation, but only managers and higher types really take quality decisions.

27 Flippo, Edwin. B, opcit p 331
28 ibid p 332
3.11.7 EQUITY THEORY

J. Stacy Adams developed this theory. The essence of equity theory is that employees make comparisons of their effort and rewards (pay, status, promotion, etc.) with those of others in similar work situations. Equity exists when employees perceive that the ratios of these inputs (experience, efforts, education, seniority, etc.) to outcomes (rewards) are equivalent to the ratio of other employee. Inequity exists when these ratios are not equivalent.

Both the 'inputs' and 'outputs' of persons are based on the person's perceptions. If the person's perceived ratio is not equal to the others he will strive to restore the ratio to equity. To restore equity, the person may alter the inputs or outcomes, cognitively distort the inputs or outcomes, leave the field, act on the other or change the other.

3.11.8 LIKERT'S APPROACH

Rensis Likert states that human resources need to be considered assets requiring proper management. About the performance of human resource, he states that there is a marked relationship between the kind of supervision and his productivity as well as his satisfaction, which he drives from his work. When an employee feels that his boss is genuinely interested in him, his problems, his future and his well being, he is more likely to be a high producer. Likert therefore, suggested that if a supervisor wants to motivate his workers, he should be 'employee-centered' rather than 'job-centered'.

29 Tripathi. P.C, opcit p 82
30 Mamaoria C.B. and Gankar. S.V opcit p 623
31 ibid p 628
He opines that the employee-centered supervisor not only trains people to do their present job well but also tends to train them for the next higher job.

3.11.9 MURRAY'S THEORY

This theory considers the needs largely as learned behaviour rather than innate tendencies. To Murray, an individual's personality is composed of many divergent and conflicting needs, which have the potential of motivating human behaviour. He has found these needs as achievement, affiliation, power, autonomy nurturance, and difference.

He also states that the needs may be manifest (activated) or latent. An employee may have a high need for achievement but such a need may not be manifest because his job may lack challenging. If this employee is provided with a challenging job, achievement oriented behaviour may be energized.  

Murray has analysed only a few needs in his model, whereas the modern research in this area has focused attention on the specific needs for achievement especially relating to personnel performance.

3.11.10 PORTER AND LAWLER MODEL

This model considers the relationship between the variables efforts, performance, rewards and satisfaction.

'Effort' refers to the amount of energy exerted by an employee to perform a given task.

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32 Banerjee, R. N., Organisational Behaviour, New Central Book Agency (p) Ltd, Calcutta, p 16
‘Performance’ represents the result that organisation measures objectively.

‘Rewards’ may be intrinsic - which produce attitudes about satisfaction that is related to performance; or extrinsic – pay, friendship, recognition, praise, and promotion.

‘Satisfaction’ is an attitude, an internal cognitive state that is derived from the extent to which rewards are given. If actual rewards exceed or meet the perceived equitable rewards, the individual will be satisfied.

Some serious thinkers have stated that the "relationship between performance and satisfaction is extremely complex and role of rewards should be given more attention. It states that the management should study variables that go into employee effort and performance. The managers should critically evaluate the effort to measure how closely levels of satisfaction are related to levels of performance.

3.11.11 THE ERG THEORY

Alderfer developed this theory. It is based on Maslow's need hierarchy. Alderfer believes that there is a distinction between the lower order and higher order needs. He found that there seems to be some overlapping between physiological, security and social needs. Also, the line of demarcation between social, esteem and achievement needs is not clear. Based on these observations, he has categorized the various needs into three.
This model is known as ERG theory (i.e., Existence, Relatedness and Growth), which explains the personnel motivation.  

The constituents of this theory are given below.

(i) Existence needs: Physiological and safety needs which are required for basic human existence.

(ii) Relatedness needs: These needs refer to how employees relate to their surrounding social environments for meaningful social interpersonal relationship.

(iii) Growth needs: This category is the highest level of needs, which refer to self-esteem, and self-actualization needs.

Maslow argued that progression from one level in the hierarchy to the next is based on the satisfaction of lower order need. But the ERG theory differs from Maslow and states that in addition to this satisfaction progression process, there is also a frustration regression process. That is, when an employee is continually frustrated in his attempts to satisfy his growth needs, relatedness needs may reemerge as primary and the employee may redirect his efforts towards lower order needs. This is called frustration-regression process.

Further, this model suggests that more than one need may be operative at the same point of time.

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33 ibid p 15
3.11.12 SKINNER’S THEORY

B.C. Skinner, the proponent of behaviourism, divides the behaviour of humans into two, viz, reflex and operant behaviours. Reflex behaviour is one over which the subject has no control. It is automatic. For example when the light is turned on, the eyes contract. The subject cannot control this response, which is emitted automatically. Operant behaviour is voluntary. Here, the subject voluntarily chooses to operate on his environment. For example when a person goes to a well to drink water, he is voluntarily operating on the environment.

These two behaviours have given rise to two learning theories. One, based on reflex behaviour, is called the ‘Classical Conditioning Theory’ and the other based on operant behaviour is called the ‘Operant conditioning Theory’.

Skinner contents that humans can be controlled and shaped. He states that a manager can modify behaviour of subordinates through positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement (avoidance learning), extinction and punishment.

Common positive reinforces are praise, promotion and money. Most individuals regard these as pleasant and hence repeat those behaviours that earn these rewards.

Negative reinforcement or avoidance learning takes place when individuals learn to behave in ways that help them avoid or escape from

\[34\] Tripathi. P.C, opcit p 83
unpleasant consequences. For example in order to avoid criticism, the employees avoid late comings.

Extinction is withdrawing of a reward or a privilege which was considered desirable and which was given to the individual previously.

Punishment is withholding a reward or a privilege for behaviour that has never been considered desirable.

Over a period of time, the reinforced behaviour will tend to be repeated while the unrewarded will tend to be extinguished and to disappear. Punishment of undesired behaviour is to be avoided as contributing to feelings of restraint and to actions of rebellion. Thus, in time, the conditioner can effectively control human behaviour without the human becoming aware of being controlled.

3.12 GUIDELINES FOR MOTIVATING EMPLOYEES

The following points will help motivate employees.

(i) The management should consider its employees as valuable and should treat them with respect and honesty.

(ii) The management must make use of all such techniques as reinforcement incentives, MBO, job enrichment, maintenance of high morale, etc.

(iii) Job analysis, selection and training should be used to ensure that people with required skills and abilities are hired.

35 Flippo, Edwin. B opcit p 336
(iv) The manager should make sure that subordinates get the jobs done for achieving the goals.

(v) The manager should avoid building ‘dissatisfiers’ into the job.

(vi) The manager should make sure that salary and working conditions are adequate.

(vii) He should set fair and achievable goals and communicate them to the employees clearly.

(viii) The managers may be rewarded through recognition, advancement, etc to induce them to motivate the subordinates.

(ix) The employee should be filled on the job for which he has liking.

(x) The employees should be made aware of their performance through feedback.

3.13 NON-FINANCIAL MOTIVATORS

In the words of Dubin, “non-financial incentives are the psychic rewards, or the rewards of enhanced position that can be secured in the working organisation”.

Some of the most commonly used non-financial motivators are briefed below:
3.13.1. Praise and Recognition

Praise has a value when given and received. Recognition satisfies human need for esteem by others and for self-esteem. This recognition may be shown in the form of praise or a pat on the back of the employee or assignment of more interesting tasks, etc. Also, it may be through awards in the form of articles, certificates, etc.

3.13.2. Status and pride

Status refers to 'the social rank of a person. Costly furniture, carpets on the floor, artistic curtains, separate stenographer, private locker, separate chamber, revolving chair, air-conditioned cabin, etc. are some of the status symbols. Individuals try hard to gain this status symbol and once these have been achieved, there is a carving for higher status symbol.

Good products, dynamic leadership, fair treatment, service to the community, ethical conduct and such other things serve to stimulate an employee’s pride in his work and organisation. This pride is regarded as a powerful and valuable motivator towards higher productivity.

3.13.3. Competition

Individuals compete with one another if they feel they have chances of winning and satisfying their 'egos'. The winner is awarded a price. However, in a competition, there will be more losers and these losers may get frustration and it may even destroy team-spirit.
3.13.4. Delegation of Authority

An authority is the right to direct and act. The delegation of authority to execute a given task proves to be strong motivating force. The subordinate is more or less on his own. He feels that he must show results.

3.13.5. Participation

It implies the physical and mental involvement of the people in an activity, especially in that of decision-making. When they participate in decision-making, they feel that their voice is being heard. This satisfies one's ego and self-esteem.

3.13.6. Job security

Job security implies to an employee that he would continue in his job for long-periods and that he shall enjoy economic and social security through health and welfare programmes.

3.13.7. Job enlargement

It implies that the employees performed more varied tasks, which are all on the same level, the idea being to make the jobs less monotonous. Job enlargement motivates employees - in so far it reduces the monotony of repetitiveness. It increases efficiency and interest in work because fatigue is lessened.
3.13.8. Job rotation

It implies the shifting of an employee from one job to another so that monotony and boredom are reduced.

3.13.9. Job loading

It implies making the job more interesting. A horizontal job loading assumes that if employees are given more work at the same level of their present performing, they will be motivated to work harder and also be more satisfied with their work. In a vertical job loading, jobs are restructured so that they will become intrinsically more interesting. The worker is motivated because his job is more challenging and more meaningful.

3.13.10. Job enrichment

It is a form of improving a job. It provides an opportunity for recognition and advancement of the employee. It is designed to be less specialized and more enriched. Job enrichment provides the worker more autonomy in planning and inspection of job. The goal of job enrichment is to make "every employee a manager".

3.13.11. Reinforcement

Reinforcement is built on two principles: (i) the behaviour which leads to a reward, tends to be repeated and that which leads to a negative consequence tends not to be repeated, and (ii) therefore, by providing the properly scheduled rewards, it is possible to influence people's behaviour.
Positive and negative reinforcement focus on getting employees to learn ‘desired and undesired behaviours’ so that what they should not.

3.13.12. Quality of work life

Prof. Llyod states that the quality of work life refers to the degree to which members of an organisation are able to satisfy important personal needs through their experiences in the organisation. Quality of work life covers all aspects of worker’s life with special reference to his interaction with his work and his working environment.

3.13.13. Job sharing or Twinning

Under this system two workers prefer to divide one full-time job. Not only the hours are split but also the salary and fringe benefits. In such a system, workers tend to approach their work with more energy and enthusiasm. Absenteeism also tends to be less since one can cover the work of other in the event of the other’s absence.

3.13.14. Flexi time

Under this system, the employees have the freedom to choose, with-in certain limitations, their ‘time-in’ and ‘time-out’. This enables the workers to enjoy hours that more closely match their personal lifestyle. However, they work for a pre-established number of hours. Such type of arrangement generally improves morale, increases productivity and gives a sense of control over their own lives.
3.13.15. Group incentives

In his experiment, called ‘Bottleneck Experiment’, Dr. Alexander Mintz informed the participants of the experiment that there will be no individual reward and that they will be rewarded on the basis of their co-operation. In this experiment, he found that there was not even a single jam when a co-operative attitude was induced. It proves that group incentives are more powerful motivators.


An employee gets satisfaction when his superiors appreciate him for his better performance. The employees can be motivated to a greater extent if they are told the rating of their performance. They will work more to improve their performance.

3.13.17. Suggestion system

Suggestion system provides an opportunity to the employees to put forth their knowledge and skill. Many organisations make the suggestion system to be more effective by giving cash awards, publishing of the worker’s name and photo in the house journals etc for the suggestions accepted. This motivates the employees to be in search for something new, which may be of greater use to the organisation.
3.13.18. Opportunity for growth

If the employees are provided opportunities for their growth and personal development, they will feel very much satisfied. Hence, they will be more committed to the organisation.

3.13.19. Quality Circles

The concept of ‘Quality Circle’ was first developed by Prof. Kaoru Ishikawa of Tokyo University by amalgamating the Behavioural Science Theories and the Quality Science Theories.

Quality Circle (QC) is defined as a small group of people engaged in a similar work who meet voluntarily on regular basis under the leadership of their supervisors to identify and discuss their work problems, analyse the causes thereof and recommend solutions to superiors and in areas within their purview, take actions to implement the solutions themselves. It is based on the simple premises that the people who do the job everyday know more about it than any one else. In fact, they are in the best position to think through a problem and come up with a workable solution particularly when quality and productivity are involved.

Each QC may consist of one leader and around 10 workers drawn from various departments. The leader should be more knowledgeable and adept in the actual work area. He looks after the training of his members, leads the discussions and records the suggestions. Training is given to the members of the QC on the techniques and tools relating to quality control and other requirements.
Since the system of QC is based on constructive participation of both management and workers, several tangible and intangible benefits are: increase in production and productivity, improvement in quality of products, higher efficiency and reduced costs. The intangible benefits include enhancement of morale of employees, their willingness to take higher responsibilities, improvement in communication within and between departments, development of team spirit, increased sense of belongingness, greater safety consciousness and, above all, self-education. Thus, QC gives satisfaction to the employees, which forms the basis for their motivation.

In conclusion, it may be said that a variety of techniques might be used to motivate employees.

3.14 CONCLUSION

In the field of motivational psychology, we are rather in the position of the blind man. Each investigator explores an area of the subject most readily available to him or amenable to his tools or methods.\(^{36}\) As a result, many theories of motivation have been developed by industrial psychologists.

It may be said that human beings are difficult to research and therefore it is rather difficult to say which theory of motivation stands completely valid and acceptable.\(^{37}\)


\(^{37}\) Mamaoria, C.B. and Gankar, S.V opcit 631