

ORGANISATION BEHAVIOUR

UNIT – 3

Motivation is one of the most important factors affecting human behaviour and performance. This is the reason why managers attach great importance to motivation in organizational setting. Effective directing of people leads the organisation to effectiveness, both at organizational and individual levels. This requires the understanding of what individuals want from the organisation.

Motivation can be described as the internal force that impacts the direction, intensity, and endurance of a person's voluntary choice of behaviour. Motivation is an internal feeling, i.e., it defines the psychological state of a person. It is a continuous process and we should make sure that it is not disturbed. A person should be encouraged completely.

According to Rubin, "Motivation is the complex forces starting and keeping a person at work in an organisation."

According to McFarland, "Motivation refers to the way in which urges, drives, desires, aspirations, strivings, or needs direct, control or explain the behaviour of human beings.

Motivation is an effective instrument in the hands of a manager for inspiring the work force and creating a confidence in it. By motivating the work force, management creates 'will to work' which is necessary for achieving organisation goals.

Motivation is something that moves the person to action and continues him in the course of action already initiated. Motivation is an important factor which encourages persons to give their best performance and help in reaching enterprise goals. A strong positive motivation will enable the increased output of employees but a negative motivation will reduce their performance.

Motivation is a psychological phenomenon which generates within an individual. A person feels the lack of certain needs, in order to satisfy those needs, he feels like working more. The satisfying need motivates a person to do better than he normally does.

NATURE OF MOTIVATION:

Based on definition of motivation, we can derive its nature relevant for human behaviour in organisation. Following characteristics of motivation clarify its nature:

- 1. Based on motive:** Motivation is based on individual's motives which are internal to the individual. These motives are in the form of feelings that the individual lacks something. In order to overcome this feeling of lack ness, he tries to behave in a manner which helps in overcoming this feeling.
- 2. Affected by motivating:** Motivation is affected by way the individual is motivated. The act of motivating channelises need satisfaction. Besides, it can also activate the hidden needs in the individual, that is, the needs that are less strong and somewhat inactive and harness them in a manner that would be functional for the organisation.

- 3. Goal-directed behaviour:** Motivation leads to goal-directed behaviour. A goal-directed behaviour is one which satisfies the causes for which behaviour takes place. Motivation profound influence on human behaviour in the organisational context. It harnesses human energy to organisational requirements.
- 4. Related to Satisfaction:** Motivation is related to satisfaction. Satisfaction refers contentment experiences of an individual which he derives out of need fulfilment. Thus, satisfaction is a consequence of rewards and punishments associated with past experience. It provides means to analyse outcomes already experienced by the individual.
- 5. Person Motivated in Totality:** A person is motivated in totality and not in part. Each individual in the organisation is a self-contained unit and his needs are interrelated. These affect his behaviour in different ways. Moreover, feeling of needs and their satisfaction is a continuous process.
- 6. Complex Process:** Motivation is a complex process; complexity emerges because of the nature of needs and the type of behaviour that is attempted to satisfy those needs. These generate complexity in motivation process in the following ways:
- Needs are internal feelings of individuals and sometimes even they themselves may not be quite aware about their needs and the priority of these needs. Thus, understanding human needs and providing means for their satisfaction becomes difficult.
 - Even if needs are identified, the problem is not over here as a particular need may result into different behaviours from different individuals

because of their differences. For example, the need for promotion may be uniform for different individuals but all individuals may not engage in similar type of behaviour, they may adopt different routes to satisfy their promotion need.

- A particular behaviour may emerge not only because of the specific need but it may be because of a variety of needs. For example, hard work in the organisation may be due to the need for earning more money to satisfy physiological needs, or may be to enjoy the performance of work itself and money becomes secondary, or to get recognition as a hard-working person.

TYPES OF MOTIVATION:

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

The following are the types of motivation:

1. Positive Motivation:

Positive motivation or incentive motivation is based on reward. The workers are offered incentives for achieving the desired goals. The incentives may be in the shape of more pay, promotion, recognition of work, etc. The employees are offered the incentives and try to improve their performance willingly.

2. Negative Motivation:

Negative or fear motivation is based on force or fear. Fear causes employees to act in a certain way. In case, they do not act accordingly then they may be

punished with demotions or lay-offs. The fear acts as a push mechanism. The employees do not willingly co-operate, rather they want to avoid the punishment.

A manager must use both positive and negative motivational techniques depending upon the situation. He should employ negative motivation to eliminate undesirable employee behaviour and activities. To promote acceptable and desirable behaviours, he should acknowledge the good performance and provide adequate incentives.

IMPORTANCE OF MOTIVATION IN ORGANISATION BEHAVIOUR:

- 1. Improves level of efficiency of employees:** The level of efficiency of a subordinate or an employee does not only depend upon his qualifications and abilities. For getting best of his work performance, the gap between ability and willingness has to be filled which helps in improving the level of performance of subordinates. This will result into-
 - a. Increase in productivity,
 - b. Reducing cost of operations, and
 - c. Improving overall efficiency.

- 2. Leads to achievement of organizational goals:** The goals of an enterprise can be achieved only when the following factors take place-
 - a. There is best possible utilization of resources,
 - b. There is a co-operative work environment,
 - c. The employees are goal-directed and they act in a goal-directed manner,
 - d. Goals can be achieved if co-ordination and co-operation takes place simultaneously which can be effectively done through motivation.

- 3. Increases Productivity:** Motivation as a process leads to an increase in productivity of the employee. Motivation meets the needs of the employees and thereby creates the drive to work at the best of his abilities. A well-motivated employee will be willing to put in more effort towards the betterment of the organisation than demotivated employee.
- 4. Reduction of Employee Turnover and Absenteeism:** Employee turnover is a measurement of the term or number of years an employee stays and/or replaced in the company. Highly motivated employees are considered to be the most reliable and valuable assets to the organisation. They are more loyal, punctual and regular in their work schedule and stay on-job for a longer period of time in the organisation. In case of poor working conditions, lack of recognition and poor relations with colleagues could increase absenteeism as these conditions demotivate employees to work harder.
- 5. Healthy Corporate Image:** Motivation also helps organisations in improving their image due to efficient performance, maintenance of self-discipline and productive internal environment. It creates a good impression and enhanced image among people outside the organisation.
- 6. Readiness for Change:** Every organization function in a very dynamic business environment and with the changes in the environment, the organization also must change to adapt and keep up with times. When such technological or environmental changes occur in the organization, sometimes employees are hesitant to accept and adapt to such changes. But

motivated employees are more likely to adapt to these changes. They are generally more ready to accept the changes and get to work.

7. Leads to stability of work force: Stability of workforce is very important from the point of view of reputation and goodwill of a concern. The employees can remain loyal to the enterprise only when they have a feeling of participation in the management. This will lead to a good public image in the market which will attract competent and qualified people into a concern. As it is said, “Old is gold” which suits with the role of motivation here, the older the people, more the experience and their adjustment into a concern which can be of benefit to the enterprise.

EARLY THEORIES OF MOTIVATION:

Motivation theory has played a dominant role in emerging field of organisational behaviour. Considerable efforts have been made to identify specific variables which would be direct source of motivation towards goal achievement. There have been a number of studies made, theories advanced and models built on understanding the nature and relationship of different variables that cause a certain behaviour and the variables that modify a given behaviour. Some of the theories of motivation are:

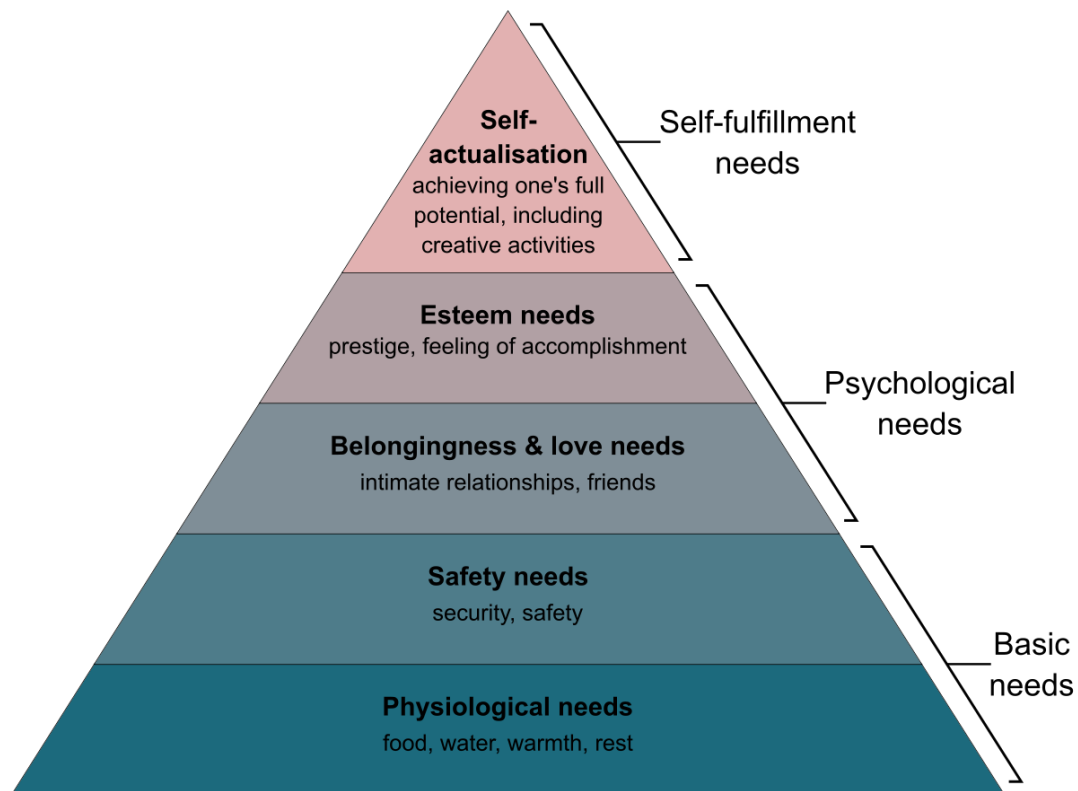
1. Maslow hierarchy of needs theory
2. Herzberg two factor theory
3. Mc Gregor theory X and theory Y
4. Expectancy theory
5. Alderfer's ERG theory of needs
6. Mc Clelland achievement motivation theory
7. Equity theory

I. Maslow Hierarchy of Needs Theory: A.H. Maslow, a famous social scientist, has given a framework that helps to explain the strength of certain needs. According to him, there seems to be a hierarchy into which human needs are arranged. Maslow's need hierarchy theory has enjoyed widespread acceptance particularly in the writings of behaviourism. His theory of motivation stresses two fundamental premises:

- a) Man is a perpetual wanting animal whose needs depend on what he already has. Only needs which are not yet satisfied can influence behaviour. In other words, a satisfied need does not lead to any motivation.
- b) Man's needs are arranged in the hierarchy of importance. Once one need is satisfied, another emerges and demands satisfaction.

Maslow identified five levels of needs as (a) Physiological needs, (b) Safety needs, (c) Social needs, (d) Esteem needs and (e) Self-actualization needs. He placed them in the framework called as Hierarchy of needs because of the different levels of importance indicated.

According to Maslow, if all of a person's needs are unsatisfied at a particular time, satisfaction of most prominent needs will be more pressing than the others. First the lower level needs are to be satisfied, then the person would tend to move higher in the hierarchy for satisfaction of his needs.



- i. **Physiological needs:** This category consists of the primary needs of human body. These are basically bodily needs comprising of food, water, clothing, air, shelter and other necessities of life. Physiological needs will dominate when all needs are unsatisfied. In such a case, no other need would serve as a basis for motivation. Physiological needs appear first in the hierarchy as they tend to have the highest strength until they are reasonably satisfied.
- ii. **Safety needs:** If the physiological needs are met, the next higher-level need assumes importance. Safety needs include protection from physical harm, ill health, economic disaster and avoidance of the unexpected. In the industrial society, safety needs may take considerable importance in the context of the dependent relationship of employees to employers. From the managerial point of view, safety needs manifest themselves in attempts to ensure job security and attempts to move towards greater financial support.

Organisation can influence these safety needs either positively through pension plan, insurance against risk, security of source of income, medical insurance and other protective measures or negatively by arousing fears of being fired or laid-off, or demoted.

- iii. **Social needs:** These needs are related to the social nature of people and their needs for companionship. This level in the hierarchy is the point of departure from the two previous needs. Non satisfaction of this level of needs may affect the mental health of the individual. Since man is a social being, he has a need to belong and to be accepted by various groups so that his emotional needs for love, affection, warmth and friendship are satisfied. In the organisation, employees form informal group and they depend on these groups for support of unfulfilled social needs such as affiliation.
- iv. **Esteem needs:** The esteem needs are concerned with self-respect, self-confidence, a feeling of personal worth, feeling of being unique and recognition. When these needs are satisfied a feeling of self-confidence, prestige and power emerges. These needs consist both, the need for awareness of importance to others (self-esteem) and the actual esteem from others. Esteem from others must also be felt as warranted and deserved. Satisfaction of these needs leads to a feeling of self-confidence and prestige.
- v. **Self-actualization needs:** Self-actualization is the need to maximize one's potential, whatever it may be. This is related with the development of intrinsic capabilities which lead people to seek situations that can utilise their potential. Maslow defined this need as the desire to become more and

more what one is, to become everything one is capable of becoming. This means that individual will fully realize the potential of talent and capabilities.

Maslow suggests that the various levels are interdependent and overlapping, each higher-level need emerging before the lower level need has been completely satisfied. When the peak of a need is passed, that need ceases to be the primary motivator. The next level need then begins to dominate. Even though a need is satisfied, it still influences behaviour.

Management use of need hierarchical model: The need hierarchical model is widely accepted and referred to by practising managers. It is easy to comprehend, has a great deal of common-sense validity and points out some of the factors that motivate people in businesses and other types of organisations. Most organisations in India have been extremely successful in satisfying lower level needs. Through the wages or salary they receive, individuals are able to satisfy the physiological needs of themselves and their families. Organisations also aid in satisfying security or safety need through both salary and fringe benefit programmes. Finally, they aid in satisfying social needs by allowing interaction and association with others on the job. While Maslow's need hierarchy does not provide a complete understanding of human motivation or the means to motivate people, it does provide an excellent starting point for understanding the human behaviour.

II. Herzberg Two Factor Theory: Frederick Herzberg and his associates of Case-Western Reserve University conducted a research study based on the interviews of 200 engineers and accountants working in eleven different firms in Pittsburg area, U.S.A. During the structured interview, they were asked to describe a few previous job experiences in which they felt

‘exceptionally good’ or ‘exceptionally bad’ about jobs. They were also asked to rate the degree to which their feelings were influenced- for better or worse- by each experience which they described. The findings of this study are that there are two sets of factors which affect satisfaction or dissatisfaction of employees. Some job conditions operate primarily to dissatisfy employees when they are absent but their presence does not motivate them in a strong way. These are called as dissatisfiers or hygiene factors as they are required to support the mental health of the employees. They are also known as maintenance factors as they are necessary to maintain a reasonable level of satisfaction among the employees. Another set of job condition operate primarily to build strong motivation and high job satisfaction but their absence does not create strong dissatisfaction among employees. They are called as motivational factors and satisfiers.

It is because of the two-fold clarification that Herzberg theory is called a two-factor theory.

- i. **Hygiene or Maintenance Factor:** These are not intrinsic parts of a job, but they are related to conditions under which a job is performed. They produce no growth in a worker's output; they only prevent losses in worker's performance due to work restrictions. These maintenance factors are necessary to maintain at a reasonable level of satisfaction in employees. Any increase beyond this level will not provide any satisfaction to the employees; however, any cut below this level will dissatisfy them. These factors are extrinsic to work. These factors describe the job environment/scenario. The hygiene factors symbolized the physiological needs which the individuals wanted and expected to be fulfilled. These factors include-

- a) **Company policy and administration:** The company policies should not be too rigid. They should be fair and clear. It should include flexible working hours, dress code, breaks, vacation, etc.
- b) **Interpersonal relations:** The relationship of the employees with his peers, superiors and subordinates should be appropriate and acceptable. There should be no conflict or humiliation element present.
- c) **Salary:** The pay or salary structure should be appropriate and reasonable. It must be equal and competitive to those in the same industry in the same domain.
- d) **Job security:** The organization must provide job security to the employees.
- e) **Work conditions:** The working conditions should be safe, clean and hygienic. The work equipment should be updated and well-maintained.
- f) **Status:** The employees' status within the organization should be familiar and retained.
- g) **Fringe Benefits:** The employees should be offered health care plans (medi claim), benefits for the family members, employee help programmes, etc.

ii. Motivational Factors: These factors are capable of having a positive effect on job satisfaction often resulting in an increase in one's total output. Most of these factors are related with job content. An increase in these factors will satisfy the employees; however, any decrease will not affect their level of satisfaction. Since, these increase level of satisfaction in the employees, these can be used in motivating them for higher output. These factors are intrinsic to work. Motivational factors include-

- a) Achievement:** The employees must have a sense of achievement. This depends on the job. There must be a fruit of some sort in the job.
- b) Advancement**
- c) Recognition:** The employees should be praised and recognized for their accomplishments by the managers.
- d) Work itself:** The work itself should be meaningful, interesting and challenging for the employee to perform and to get motivated.
- e) Possibility of personal growth**
- f) Responsibility:** The employees must hold themselves responsible for the work. The managers should give them ownership of the work. They should minimize control but retain accountability.
- g) Growth and Promotional Opportunities:** There must be growth and advancement opportunities in an organization to motivate the employees to perform well.

Herzberg maintains that effectiveness of various factors is not entirely a function of the factors themselves. It is also influenced by the personality characteristics of the individuals. From this point of view, individuals may be classified into two groups-motivation seekers and maintenance seekers. The motivation seekers generally are individuals who are primarily motivated by the 'satisfiers' such as advancement, achievement and other factors associated with work itself. On the other hand, the maintenance seekers tend to be more concerned with factors surrounding the job such as supervision, working conditions, pay, etc.

The factor that differentiates two-factor theory from other theories is the role of employee expectations. According to Herzberg, intrinsic motivators and extrinsic motivators have an inverse relationship. That is, intrinsic motivators tend to increase motivation when they are present, while extrinsic motivators tend to

reduce motivation when they are absent. This is due to employees' expectations. Extrinsic motivators (e.g., salary, benefits) are expected, so they won't increase motivation when they are in place, but they will cause dissatisfaction when they are missing. Intrinsic motivators (e.g., challenging work, growth potential), on the other hand, can be a source of additional motivation when they are available.

III. Mc Gregor Theory X & Theory Y: The management's action of motivating human beings in the organisation, according to McGregor, involves certain assumptions, generalisations, and hypothesis relating to human behaviour and human nature. These assumptions may be neither consciously crystallised nor overly stated; however, these serve the purpose of predicting human behaviour. The basic assumptions about human behaviour may differ considerably because of the complexity of factors influencing this behaviour. McGregor has characterised these assumptions in two opposite points-Theory X and Theory Y.

Theory X: This is the traditional theory of human behaviour. In this theory, McGregor has certain assumptions about human behaviour. In his words, the assumptions of theory X are:

- i. The average person inherently dislikes work and will avoid it if possible.
- ii. Because of the dislike of work, most people must be forced, controlled, directed and threatened with punishment to get them to perform effectively.
- iii. The average human being lacks ambition, avoids responsibility and seeks security and economic rewards above all else.
- iv. Most people lack creative ability and are resistant to change.
- v. Since most people are self centered, they are not concerned with the goals of the organisation.

Thus, the central principle of theory X is that an organisation is controlled and directed through the exercise of authority. These assumptions about human nature are negative in their approach. Managers subscribing these views about human nature attempt to structure, control and closely supervise their employees. They feel that external control is most appropriate for dealing with irresponsible and immature employees. McGregor believes that these assumptions about human nature have not changed drastically though there is a considerable change in behavioural pattern. He argues that this change is not because of changes in the human nature, but because of nature of industrial organisation, management philosophy, policy and practice.

Theory Y: Assumptions of theory Y are:

- i. The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest. The average human being does not inherently dislike work. Depending upon controllable conditions, work may be a source of satisfaction or source of punishment.
- ii. External control and threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing about efforts towards organisational objectives. People will exercise self-direction and self-control in the achievement of objectives to which they are committed.
- iii. Commitment to objectives is the function of the rewards associated with their achievement. The most significant of such rewards, e.g. the satisfaction of ego and self-actualisation needs can be a direct product of effort directed towards organisational objectives.
- iv. The average person learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept but to seek responsibility. Avoidance of responsibility, lack of ambition and

emphasis on security are generally consequences of experiences, not inherent human characteristics.

- v. Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual capabilities of the average person are only partly utilized.

The assumptions of theory Y suggest a new approach in management. It emphasises on the cooperative endeavour of management and employees. It emphasizes on creating of opportunities, removing obstacles, encouraging growth and providing guidance for motivating the employees.

McGregor assumptions are based on Maslow's need hierarchy model. Earlier emphasis was only on physiological and safety needs but because of the changes in value system and social system, higher level needs got importance. Similarly, assumptions under Theory X are being replaced by Theory Y. This is being reflected in the managerial styles and techniques.

Thus, we can say that Theory X presents a pessimistic view of employees' nature and behaviour at work, while Theory Y presents an optimistic view of the employees' nature and behaviour at work. If correlate it with Maslow's theory, we can say that Theory X is based on the assumption that the employees emphasize on the physiological needs and the safety needs; while Theory Y is based on the assumption that the social needs, esteem needs and the self-actualization needs dominate the employees.

McGregor views Theory Y to be more valid and reasonable than Theory X. Thus, he encouraged friendly team relations, responsible and stimulating jobs, and participation of all in decision-making process.

Theory Y encourages decentralization of authority, teamwork and participative decision making in an organization. Theory Y searches and discovers the ways in

which an employee can make significant contributions in an organization. It harmonizes and matches employees' needs and aspirations with organizational needs and aspirations.

IV. Expectancy Theory: Expectancy theory, developed by Victor Vroom of Yale School of Management in 1964 has been expanded and refined by individuals such as Lyman Porter and Edward Lawler. Vroom stresses and focuses on outcomes and not on needs unlike Maslow and Herzberg. According to Vroom, people will be motivated to do things to achieve some goals to the extent that they expect that certain actions on their part will help them to achieve the goal. Vroom's model is built around the concepts of value and expectancy, its basic assumption is that the choice made by a person alternative courses of action is lawfully related to psychological events occurring simultaneously with the behaviour. Vroom's concept of force is basically equivalent to motivation and may be shown to be the algebraic sum of products of valences multiplied by expectations. Thus,

$$\text{Motivation} = \text{Valence} \times \text{Expectancy}$$

Valence: A person's preference for a particular outcome can be expressed as a valence. It means a person's attraction toward a goal. The extent to which a person feels attracted towards a goal/objective, will strive harder to achieve it. Other terms equivalent to valence used in various theories of motivation are incentive, attitude and expected utility. In other words, it is an expected and not the actual satisfaction that an employee expects to receive after achieving the goals.

Expectancy: A person's perception of the probability that a specific outcome will follow from a specific act, is termed expectancy. It means the individual's

confidence on his ability to achieve the desired goal. Expectancy is the faith that better efforts will result in better performance. Expectancy is influenced by factors such as possession of appropriate skills for performing the job, availability of right resources, availability of crucial information and getting the required support for completing the job.

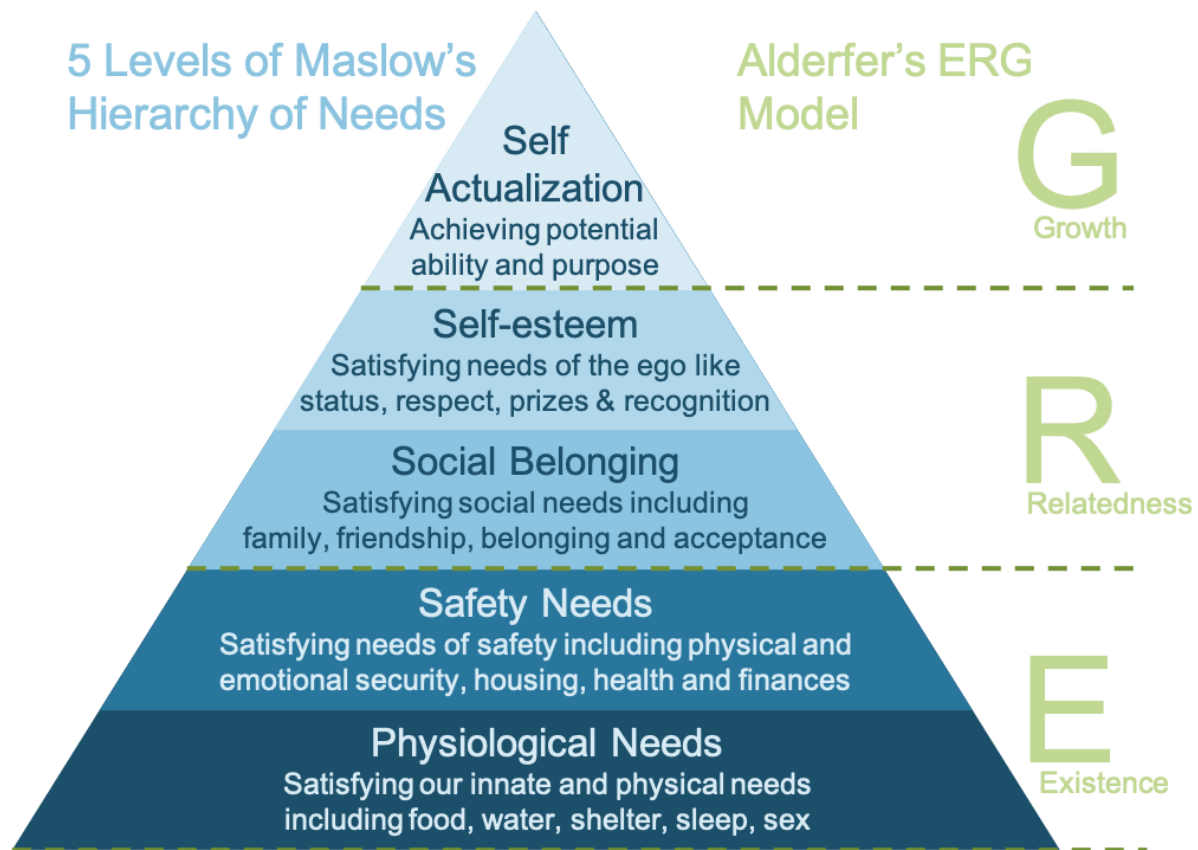
Vroom was of view that employees deliberately decide whether to perform or not at the job. This decision solely depend on the employee's motivation level which in turn depends on two factors – expectancy and valence. Vroom has stated that motivational force of an individual is a function of his both valence and expectancy. This motivational model stresses individual differences in motivation and explain how goals influence individual effort. It made the managers to realize that motivation of subordinates will not improve their performance, if their ability is low or perceptions of expectations is inaccurate.

One of the important features of this theory is that it recognises individual differences in work motivation and suggests that motivation is a complex process as compared to Maslow's or Herzberg's simplistic models. It also clarifies the relationship between individual and organisational goals. Thus, Vroom's theory is consistent with the idea that a manager's job is to design an environment for performance, necessarily taking into account the differences in various situations.

However, Vroom's theory is difficult to research and apply in practice. This is evident by the fact that there have been only a few research studies designed specifically to test the Vroom theory. In fact, Vroom himself was depended largely upon researches conducted prior to the formulation of his theory. Nevertheless, from a theoretical standpoint, the Vroom model seems to be a step in the right direction but does not give the manager practical help in solving his motivational problem.

V. Alderfer's ERG Theory of Needs: A variation of Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory of motivation has been suggested by Clayton P. Alderfer which he refers to as the ERG theory of needs. ERG theory differs from Maslow need hierarchy theory in two ways.

- a.** Alderfer broke down needs into just three categories as Existence needs, Relatedness needs and Growth needs. The first letter of each category forms the new familiar acronym ERG. Some researchers indicate that workers themselves tend to categorise their needs much as Alderfer does.
- b.** More important is that Alderfer stressed that when higher needs are frustrated, lower needs will return, even though they were already satisfied. Maslow, in contrast felt that a need once met lost its power to motivate behaviour. Where Maslow saw people moving steadily up the hierarchy of needs, Alderfer saw people moving up and down the hierarchy of needs from time to time and from situation to situation.



Existence Needs: Existence needs include all needs related to physiological and safety aspects of individual. Thus, existence needs group physiological and safety needs of Maslow into existence needs as these have similar impact on the behaviour of the individual.

Relatedness Needs: Relatedness needs include all those needs that involve relationship with other people for whom the individual cares. Relatedness needs cover Maslow's social needs and that part of esteem needs which is derived from the relationship with other people.

Growth Needs: Growth needs involve the individual making creative efforts to achieve full potential in the existing environment. These include Maslow's self-

actualisation need as well as that part of the esteem needs which is internal to the individual like feeling of being unique, feeling of personal growth, etc.

Alderfer's findings are as follows:

1. The less existence needs are satisfied, the more they will be desired (similar to Maslow).
2. The less relatedness needs are satisfied, the more existence needs will be desired (reverse of Maslow).
3. The less relatedness needs are satisfied, the more they will be desired (follow Maslow).
4. The less growth needs are satisfied, the more relatedness needs will be desired (inconsistent with Maslow)

Managers must understand that an employee has various needs that must be satisfied at the same time. According to the ERG theory, if the manager concentrates solely on one need at a time, this will not effectively motivate the employee. Also, the frustration- regression aspect of ERG Theory has an added effect on workplace motivation.

Alderfer's findings tend to be somewhat different from Maslow's hierarchy. However, neither Maslow, nor Alderfer have been tested by enough research for a student of management to accept either.

For instance- if an employee is not provided with growth and advancement opportunities in an organization, he might revert to the relatedness need such as socializing needs and to meet those socializing needs, if the environment or circumstances do not permit, he might revert to the need for money to fulfil those socializing needs. The sooner the manager realizes and discovers this, the more

immediate steps they will take to fulfil those needs which are frustrated until such time that the employee can again pursue growth.

VI. McClelland Achievement Motivation Theory: In the early 1950s, David C. McClelland and his associates began to study three needs that motivate human behaviour - Power, Affiliation and Achievement. McClelland believed that each person has a need for all three but that people differ in the degree to which the various needs motivate their behaviour. This theory can be considered as an extension of Maslow Need Hierarchy theory and is also known by Three Needs Theory. Following is a brief description of these needs.

The need for **power** is the desire within a person to hold control and authority over another person and influence and change their decision in accordance with his own needs or desires. The need to enhance their self-esteem and reputation drives these people and they desire their views and ideas to be accepted and implemented over the views and ideas over others. The individuals motivated by the need for power have a desire to control and influence others. Competition motivates them and they enjoy winning arguments. Status and recognition are something they aspire for and do not like being on the losing side.

The employees with a high need for **affiliation** derive satisfaction from social and inter personal activities. They have a need to form strong interpersonal ties and to get close to people psychologically. If asked to choose between working at a task with those who are technically competent and those who are their friends, employees with a high need for affiliation will choose their friends. They seek to work in groups by creating friendly and lasting relationships and has the urge to be liked by others. They tend to like collaborating with others to competing with them and usually avoids high-risk situations and uncertainty.

Employees with a high need for **achievement** derive satisfaction from reaching goals. Succeeding at a task is important to the high achiever. Although people with a high need for achievement are often wealthy, their wealth comes from their ability to achieve goals. In most societies goal, achievement is rewarded financially. High achievers are not motivated by money per se; money is their way to keep score of their achievements. High achievers prefer immediate feedback on their performance, and they generally undertake tasks of moderate difficulty rather than those that are either very easy or very difficult. They also prefer to work independently, so that successful task performance (or failure) can be related to their own efforts rather than to someone else's.

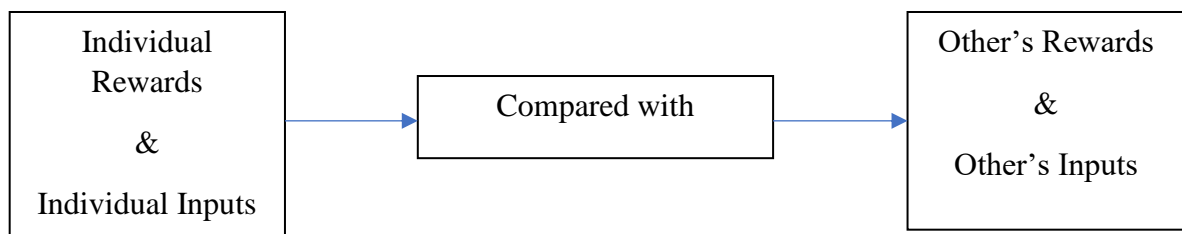
Developing a High Need for Achievement: McClelland & his associates have made specific suggestions about developing a positive high need for achievement.

1. Give employees periodic feedback on performance. This will provide information that will enable them to modify or correct their performance.
2. Arrange tasks so that employees can pursue moderate challenges and responsibilities. Avoid tasks that are either extremely difficult or extremely easy.
3. As much as possible, employees should be able to control their own destiny and imagination. They should be trained, however, to think realistically and positively about how they will accomplish goals.

McClelland's theory can be applied to manage the corporate teams by being identifying and categorizing every team member amongst the three needs. Knowing their attributes may certainly help to manage their expectations and running the team smoothly.

McClelland's theory can help an organisation to identify the dominant motivators of people in a team. The organisation can use this information to influence how you set goals and provide feedback, and how you motivate and reward team members.

VII. Equity Theory: J. Stacy Adams stated that motivation is related to how fairly employees feel the outcome of their work is judged compared to that of other employees.



There are two assumptions on which the theory works:

1. Individuals make contributions (inputs) for which they expect certain rewards (outcomes).
2. Individuals decide whether or not, a particular exchange is satisfactory, by comparing their inputs and outcomes with those of others and try to rectify any inequality.

Various types of inputs and outcomes of an individual are-

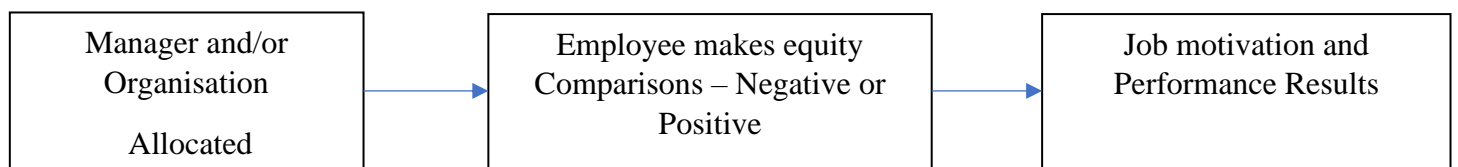
Inputs	Outcomes
Efforts	Pay
Time	Promotion
Education	Recognition

Experience	Security
Training	Personal Development
Ideas	Benefits
Ability	Friendship Opportunity

It assumes that when employees perceive that they are not being treated fairly, they will act to remedy the situation. In-equities occur whenever people feel that the rewards for their work or contribution are unequal to the rewards that others appear to have received for similar work. Employees make an equity comparison.

Employees feel negative inequity when they have received relatively less than others in proportion to work inputs. They feel positive inequity when they feel they have received relatively more than others. Both perceptions can be motivating states.

In general, equity theory predicts that employees who feel under-rewarded or over-rewarded for their work will act to restore a sense of equity. Employees judge the equity of a manager's allocation of rewards as displayed in the figure.



Consequently, how employees perceive equity becomes extremely important to the manager. To maintain a motivated workforce, managers have to maintain fairly balanced inducements and contributions among subordinates. Rewards that promote feeling of equity can foster job satisfaction and performance; rewards

that lead to feeling of in-equity can damage these key work relationships. The manager must work to minimize the negative consequences of employees equity comparisons when rewards are allocated.

Exchange relationship between a person's inputs/outcomes in relation to those of other persons may be of three types: overpaid inequity, underpaid inequity, and equity.

Overpaid Inequity: In this case, the person perceives that his outcomes are more as compare to his inputs in relation to others. This relationship can be expressed by:

$$\text{Person's Outcomes} / \text{Person's Inputs} > \text{Other's Outcomes} / \text{Other's Inputs}$$

Underpaid Inequity: In this case, the person perceives that his outcomes are lower compared to his inputs in relation to others. This relationship can be expressed as:

$$\text{Person's Outcomes} / \text{Person's Inputs} < \text{Other's Outcomes} / \text{Other's Inputs}$$

Equity: In this case, the person perceives that his outcomes in relation to his inputs to those of others. This relationship can be expressed by:

$$\text{Person's Outcomes} / \text{Person's Inputs} = \text{Other's Outcomes} / \text{Other's Inputs}$$

Equity theory has a number of implications for managers. First, the theory makes managers realise that equity motive tends to be one of the most important motives of the people in the organisation. Therefore, equity concept should be given adequate considerations in designing motivation system. "Equal pay for equal work" principle is based on this theory. Second, feelings or perceptions in equity are important factor in work setting. Therefore, management should take this aspect into consideration and attempt should be made to develop the perceptual skills of the people.

However, there are some practical difficulties in applying equity theory due to many qualitative and cognitive factors involved. First, it is difficult to assess the perception (or misperception) of people about inputs/outcomes relationships. Second, equity is a matter of comparison. The relevant question in this context is: "how does a person choose the comparison person?" The process by which the person decides whom to compare himself with is not clearly understood as yet. Notwithstanding, the concept of equity has its relevance in motivation which has been recognised both in theory and practice.

GROUP DYNAMICS:

Small groups have existed since the time of the first human family. In the recent years, however, people have started to study scientifically the processes by which small groups work. Group dynamics is a social process by which people interact face to face in small groups. It is the study of the forces operating within a group. Dynamics is a Greek word meaning force, hence, the group dynamics is concerned with the study of forces operating within the group and influence their attitude and behaviour, interaction between one group and the other group and

the organisation as a whole. Group dynamics is the study of the social processes by which people interact with each other in a small group and influence the behaviour of each other. This is a well-established fact that individuals behave as the member of the group to which they belong rather established individual. His perceptions, feelings, attitudes and behaviour are determined by the group norms and group leadership more than by his own thinking. It is, therefore, the study of forces, operating within a group and influencing the behaviour of its members. It is highly essential to understand and mould the behaviour of people in the organisation.

Group have their own properties, quite different from those of individuals who make up the group. Individual behaviour of the members of the group need not necessarily represent the behaviour of the whole group or vice-versa. Simply two members do not represent a group the force of relationship is a must to make them a group.

Thus, group dynamics encompasses the dynamics of interaction patterns with in the group, the subtle and the non-subtle pressure exerted by group members, the manner in which decisions of all these will enable managers to manage groups effectively leading to organisational effectiveness.

CONCEPT OF GROUP:

It is quite difficult to define a group independent of some specific purpose or reference. That is why people tend to define group differently. Shaw has summarised various definitions of groups into four categories.

First, group is defined as consisting of individuals who perceive the existence of a group and their membership in it. Second, group is defined on the basis of a common motivation or goal. Third, this class of definitions looks to the structure of the group—the relationships and ties among group members which bind them together into a group. Fourth, this definition perceives the central element of a group to be interacting among its members.

This approach, Shaw finds most acceptable and defines group as 'two or more persons who are interacting with one another in such a manner that each person influences and is influenced by each other'.

Thus, a group may be defined as the aggregation of small number of persons who work for common goals, develop a shared attitude, and are aware that they are part of a group and perceive themselves as such. Based on this definition, following features of the group can be identified.

- 1. Two or More Persons:** To form a group, there should be at least two persons because a single individual cannot interact. However, there cannot be any specific limit on the maximum number of persons in a group but the size of the group will be determined by rules and regulations of the organisation in this context, or meaningful interaction among the members in the case of informal groups.
- 2. Collective Identity:** Members of the group must be aware about their membership of the group. Each member of the group must believe that he is a member of, is a participant in some specific group. It is the awareness of each other that most clearly differentiates a group from a random aggregation of individuals. In the case of random aggregation of

individuals, they are ordinarily not aware of one another or, if aware, do not interact with each other in a meaningful way.

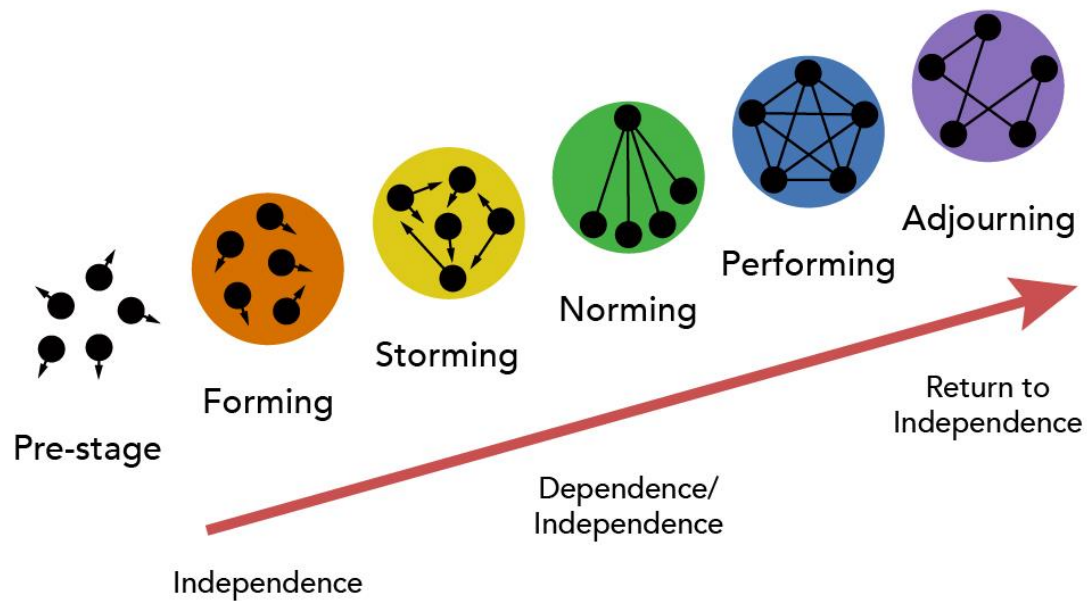
3. Interaction: Members of the group interact among themselves. Interaction means that member shares his ideas with others through communication and this communication can take place face-to-face, in writing, over the telephone, across a computer network, or in any other manner which allows communication among group members. However, it is not necessary for all members of the group to interact simultaneously, but each member must interact at least occasionally with one or more members of the group.

4. Shared Goal Interest: Members of the group should subscribe to the attainment of some common objectives. However, it is not necessary that each member subscribes to or agrees with all the objectives of the group. If a group has a variety of objectives or interests, each member of the group must share at least one of the group's concerns. The shared goal interest binds the group members together.

GROUP DEVELOPMENT:

By group development we mean the stages that work groups go through as they evolve and grow. Groups do not form and become effective overnight. It involves a long process to develop a group of strangers to a unit of cohesive and well coordinated group members. It has been believed that groups pass through standard sequence of five stages.

These stages are forming, storming, norming, performing and adjourning.



- 1. Forming:** The forming stage is when the group is just formed and members are formally placed together in a work group. At this stage, group members try to comprehend where they stand in the group and how they are being perceived by others in the group. The members are very cautious in their interactions with each other and the relationships among the group members are very superficial. Any decisions made in the group are made by the more vocal members. Members rarely express their feelings in the group and the individual members who are trying to understand who are in the group have concerns about how they will fit in the group as a permanent group member.
- 2. Storming:** Sometime after the formal group is created, internal sub groups get developed. Due to the newness of the group, there are limited interactions initially among the members of the group. However, small

groups of two or three members interact with each other and make an effort to get to know each other better. Thus, subgroups are formed. Once this sub grouping process takes place and members begin to feel somewhat more comfortable in the group, they try to establish their positions and test their powers in the bigger group. At this stage, disagreements tend to get expressed among the group members and feelings of anxiety and hatred are also expressed. Some power struggle may ensue at this stage to determine who should assume the role of informal leader. This storming stage is also known as the sub-grouping and confrontation stage.

3. **Norming:** Norming is the next stage where the disagreements, differences and power issues which were dominant at the storming stage gets worked out. The group sets norms, tries to attain some degree of cohesiveness, understands the goals of the group, starts making good decisions, expresses feelings openly and makes attempts to resolve problems and attain group effectiveness. At this stage, which is also known as individual differentiation stage or initial integration stage, the individuals' roles get defined and the task and maintenance roles are assumed by group members. Group members also begin to express satisfaction and confidence about being members of the group.
4. **Performing:** At the performing stage, the group has matured fully. The members are committed to the group goals, have complete trust in each other and allow honest disagreements to be freely expressed but make sure that the conflicts are satisfactorily resolved as and when they occur. The group evaluates members' performance so that the group members develop and grow. Feelings are expressed at this stage without fear, leadership roles are shared among the members and the members' activities are highly

coordinated. The task and maintenance roles are played very effectively. The task performance levels are high and member satisfaction, pride and commitment to the group are also high. Both performance and member satisfaction are sustained indefinitely. This stage is also referred to as collaboration stage or final integration stage. Since reaching this stage requires a long period of time and member homogeneity in values and goals, very few work groups reach this stage.

- 5. Adjourning:** For permanent work groups, performing is the last stage in their development. However, for temporary committees, teams, task forces and similar groups that have a certain specific and limited task to perform, there is an adjourning stage. In this stage the group prepares for its dismissal. High task performance is no longer the group's top priority; rather attention is directed towards wrapping up group activities. Responses of group members vary at this stage. Some are very happy because of the group's accomplishments whereas some may be depressed over the loss of friendships gained during the work group's life.

GROUP NORMS:

Group norms refer to the commonly held beliefs of group members about appropriate conduct. As such they represent general expectations or codes of conduct that contain a quality of demand. Group norms identify the standards against which the behaviour of group members will be evaluated and help group members know what they should or should not do. Group norms typically develop around the issues regarding group formation. Every group creates its own norms and standards for evaluating the appropriateness of individual behaviour. On one hand, norms create greater predictability within the group and help to restructure

the group's activities. These norms and rules usually develop gradually and informally as group members learn as to what behaviours are necessary for the group to function effectively. These norms may include a code of dress for meetings or being on time for the meetings and behaving in a predictable manner both within and outside the group meetings.

For example - In a typical class room, most students adhere to the norm of raising their hand when they want to contribute to the class discussion and wait until they are called on. This hand raising norms presents some class members for making insightful comments, but it also creates a structure that helps the class. Although everyone may not be able to participate, the teacher is asked to guide the discussion without the chaos that would result if everyone spoke at one time.

CHARACTERISTICS OF GROUP NORMS:

Group norms have following characteristics:

1. They are related to behaviours considered important by most group members. In fact, norms are the basis for behaviour of members in group.
2. They are the basis for predicting and controlling behaviour of group members.
3. Norms represent characteristics of groups just as an individual's characteristics are revealed through his personality.
4. They are applied to all members though not uniformly. Some deviations by some members are tolerated but not to the extent of failure of group goals.

GROUP COHESIVENESS:

Group cohesiveness is one of the characteristic features of the groups, which is very important from behaviouristic point of view. Cohesiveness is the degree to

which the group members are attracted to each other and are motivated to stay in the groups. Cohesiveness defines the degree of closeness that the members feel with the groups. It is understood as the extent of liking each member has towards others in the group and how far everyone wants to remain as a member of the group.

In its simplest form, it means to stick together characteristics of groups. More comprehensively, group cohesiveness is stated as the attraction of members to the group in terms of the strength of forces on the individual member to remain active in the group and to resist the forces weakening this attraction. The more the members feel attracted to the group, the greater will be the group cohesiveness. The greater the cohesiveness, the greater the influence of the group members to persuade one another to conform to the group norms. The greater the conformity, the greater the identity of the members to the group and the greater the group cohesiveness.

FEATURES & CHARACTERISTICS:

A cohesive group possess the following attributes:

1. The members share the group goals and have common interests and background.
2. The members are in constant touch with each other and have very effective interpersonal communication.
3. Group loyalty among the members is high because of the high status enjoyed by the group.

4. The group that had a history of success in the past, the members of that group keep themselves glued to the group as they feel that their social and economic needs will be satisfied by the group.
5. The members stand united because of perceived external threats to the group.

FACTORS AFFECTING GROUP COHESIVENESS:

1. **Size of work group:** One of the important and necessary condition for the existence of the group is that members interact and communicate with each other. If the group is so large that members do not get to know each other, there is little likelihood that the group will be low in cohesiveness. This is a logical assumption that would be made by those who understand the difficulties of communicating in large groups. Research studies have found that inverse relationship does exist between the size of the group cohesiveness. As the size of the group increases, the cohesiveness decreases.
2. **Competition:** Type of competition affects the group cohesiveness. Two classes of competition have different types of effects on group cohesion. These are intra group competition, that is among the group members and intergroup competition, that is competition as a whole. Competition between members of the group is usually destructive to group cohesiveness. As against this, intergroup competition brings cohesiveness in the group. Success resulting from intergroup competition increases cohesion further.

- 3. Attitudes & values:** One of the strongest sources of group cohesiveness is shared attitudes and values among group members. Two reasons that explain why we are attracted to people like ourselves. First, the person who shares the same opinion as we do provide us with a kind of social validation for our beliefs. He provides us with a feeling that we are right. If someone disagrees with us, this might evoke fear in us that we are wrong. Second, we are likely to make certain negative inferences about the character of a person who disagrees with us on important issues. If we disagree with this person on this issue, we feel much more likely that we shall disagree with him on other issues.
- 4. Dependence of members upon the work groups:** Individuals join groups because they perceive the group as a unit which can help them satisfy economic and socio-psychological needs. A group, that is able to satisfy a significant portion of an individual's needs, will appear attractive to that individual. Group processes such as communication and overall friendship make the group a key factor in the individual's life. Thus, what the group stands for its norms and its membership are bonds which relate the individual to the group. The greater the individual's dependence upon the group, the stronger will be these bonds of attraction.
- 5. Achievement of goals:** The attainment of some set of groups established goals (for example, better production than another group) has an influence on members. For example, a work group, that attains a highly desired rating for completing a task, enhances the value of being a group member. Individuals within the group feel that pride in being the member of a work group that has performed in such a manner & that they are recognized as being superior. Work groups, that have successfully attained pre-

established goals, are likely to be highly cohesive units, the members tending to be more attracted toward each other because their efforts have resulted in achieving a desired goal. Thus, success and cohesiveness are inter-related. Success in goal achievement encourages cohesiveness and cohesive work groups are more likely to attain pre-established goals.

6. Status of group: In an organisational setting, work groups are typically ranked in a status hierarchy. An intergroup status hierarchy may develop for many different reasons including:

- a. One group is rated higher than another in overall performance. This is a measure of success in the organisation.
- b. To become the member of the group, individuals must display a high level of skill.
- c. The work being done by the group is financially more rewarding or more challenging than other work.
- d. The group is less closely supervised in comparison to other groups.
- e. In the past, members of the group have been considered for promotion more often than members of other groups.

These are only some criteria which affect the status hierarchy of groups. Generally, the higher a group ranks in the inter group status hierarchy, the greater is its cohesiveness. However, the higher status group appear attractive only to some non-members. Individuals outside of the group may not want to become members of a high-status group because membership then entails close adherence to group norms.