3.2 Motivation
3.2.1 Theories of Motivation
Every organisation must-
1. Attract competent people and retain them with it,
2. Allow people to perform tasks for which they were hired, and
3. Stimulate people to go beyond routine performance and overreach themselves in their work.

Thus, if the organisation were to be effective, it must address the motivational challenges involved in arousing people's desires to be productive members of the organisation. A basic principle is that the performance of an individual depends on his or her ability backed by motivation.

Stated algebraically, the principle is:

Performance = function of (ability x motivation)

Ability refers to skill and competence of the person to complete a given task. However, ability alone is not enough. The person's desire to accomplish the task is also necessary. Organizations become successful when employees have abilities and desire to accomplish given tasks.

Motivation in simple terms may be understood as the set of forces that cause people to behave in certain ways. The framework given below helps us understand the nature of motivation better.
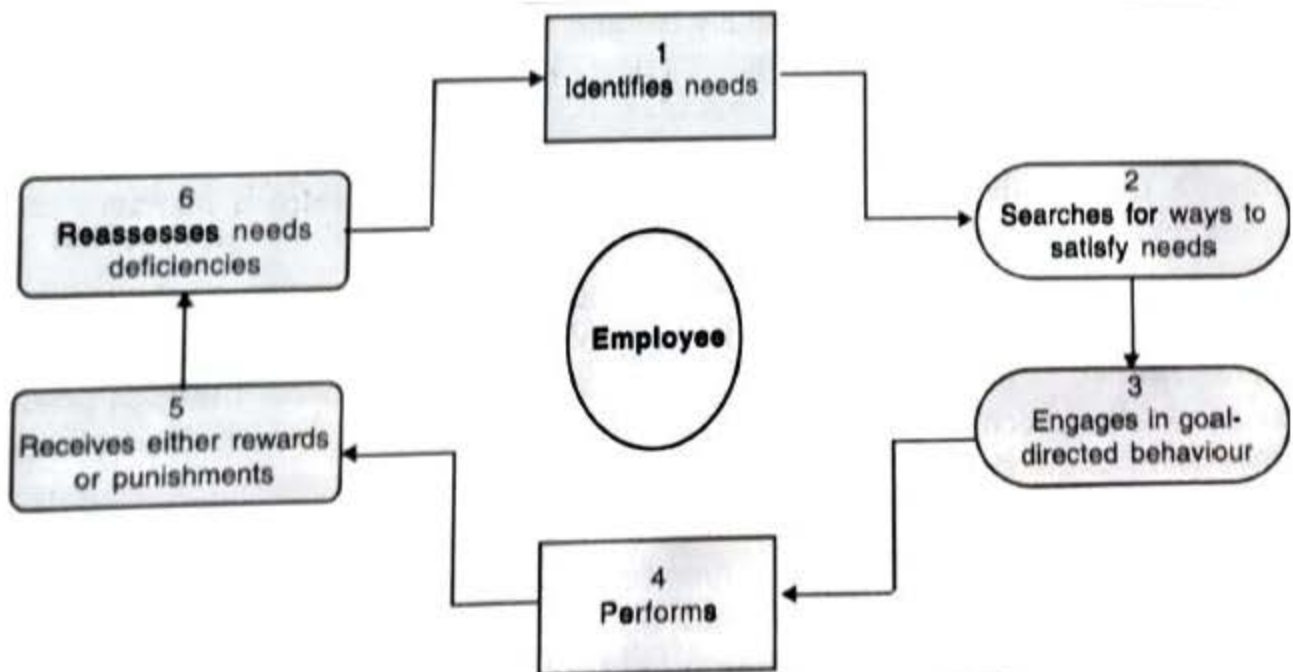
The framework comprises six steps. Motivation process, as begins with the individual's needs (step 1). Needs are felt deprivations which the individual experiences at a given time and act as energizers. These needs may be psychological (e.g., the need for recognition), physiological (e.g., the need for water, air, or food), or social (e.g., the need for friendship). These deprivations force the individual to search for ways to reduce or eliminate the (step 2).

Motivation is goal directed (step 3). A goal is a specific result that the individual wants to achieve. An employee's goals are often driving forces and accomplishing those goals can

significantly reduce needs. For example, some employees have strong drives for advancement and expectations that working long hours on visible projects will lead to promotions, and greater influence, Such needs and expectations often create uncomfortable tension within these individuals. Believing that certain specific behaviors can overcome this tension, these employees act to reduce it. Employees striving to advance may seek to work on major problems facing the organisation in order to gain visibility and influence with senior managers (step 4). Promotions and raises are two of the ways that organisation seek to maintain desirable behaviors. They are signals (feedback) to employees that their needs for advancement and recognition and their behaviors are appropriate (step 5). Once the employees have received either rewards or punishments, they reassess their needs (step 6). Some definitions on motivation are worth citing in this context.

1. "Motivation is the result of processes, internal or external to the individual, that arouses enthusiasm and persistence to pursue a certain course of action."
2. how behaviour gets started, is energized, is sustained, is directed, is stopped and what kind of subjective reaction is present in the organisation while all this is going on.

3.2.2 Importance of Motivation

As stated in the beginning of this chapter, motivation coupled with ability leads to performance. Not only are employees motivated to perform allotted tasks, they look for better ways to do a job. This statement can apply for corporate strategists, and to production workers who are looking for better ways to do a job. When people actively seek new ways of doing things, they usually find them. It is the responsibility of managers to make employees look for better ways of doing jobs. An understanding of the nature of motivation is helpful in this context.

Second, a motivated employee generally is more quality-oriented. This is true whether we are talking about a top manager spending extra time on data gathering and analysis for a report, or a clerk taking extra care when filing important documents. In either case, the organisation benefits, because individuals in and outside the organisation see the enterprise as quality conscious. A clear understanding of the way motivation works helps a manager make his employees quality-oriented.

Third, highly motivated workers are more productive than apathetic workers. Much has been written recently about the high productivity of Japanese workers and the fact that fewer workers are needed to produce an automobile in Japan than elsewhere. The high productivity of Japanese workers becomes the question of management's ability to motivate its employees. An appreciation of the nature of motivation is highly useful for managers.

Fourth, every organisation requires human resources, in addition to the need for financial and physical resources for it to function. Three behavioral dimensions of human resources are significant to the organisation: (1) people must be attracted not only to join the organisation but also to remain in it; (2) people must perform tasks for which they are hired, and must do in a dependable manner, and (3) people must go beyond this dependable role performance and engage in some form of creative, spontaneous, and innovative behaviour at work. In other Words, for an organisation to be effective, it must come to grips with the motivational problems of stimulating both the decision to participate and the decision to produce at work.

Fifth, motivation as a concept represents a highly complex phenomenon that affects, and is affected by a multitude of factors in the organizational milieu. A comprehensive

understanding of the way in which organisation functions requires that increasing attention be directed towards the question of why people behave as they do on their jobs. An understanding of the topic of motivation is thus essential in order to comprehend more fully the effects of variations in other reactions (such as leadership style, job realization and salary systems) as they relate to performance, satisfaction and so forth.

Sixth, yet another reason why increasing attention is paid towards motivation can be found in the present and future technology required for production. As technology increase in complexity, machines tend to become necessary yet insufficient vehicles of effective and efficient operations. Modern technology can no longer be considered synonymous with the term "automation". Consider the example of the highly technologically based space programme in the Indian Space Research Organisation (1SRO). The Polar Satellite Launch Vehicle's (PSLV) lift off has been the result of 12 years of developmental work, transfer of technology to private industry, smoothening the manufacture of components and subsystems, complex project management and dedicated work by literally thousands in the ISRO, industry and other national laboratories and research institutes. With this feat, India has joined the exclusive club of half a dozen nations that can build and more importantly, launch its own satellites.

The secret behind the success of ISRO has been its employees who are both capable of using and are willing to use the advanced technology to reach the goals.

Seventh, while organizations have for sometime viewed their financial and physical resources from a long-term perspective, only recently have they begun seriously to apply this same perspective to their human resources. Many organizations are now beginning to pay increasing attention to developing their employees as future resources (a "talent bank") upon which they can draw as they grow and develop. Evidence for such concern can be seen in the recent growth of management and organizational development programmers, in the increased popularity of "assessment centre" appraisals, in recent attention to manpower planning and in the emergence of "human resources accounting" systems. More concern is being directed, in addition, towards stimulating employees to enlarge their job skills (through training, job design, job rotation and so on) at both blue-collar and white-collar levels in an effort to ensure a continual reservoir of well-trained and highly motivated people.

3.2.3 Motivational Challenges

The framework of motivation (Refer framework) shows that the task of motivation is simple. But in reality, the task is more challenging.

One reason why motivation is a difficult job is that the workforce is changing. Employees join the organizations with different needs and expectations. Their values, beliefs, backgrounds, lifestyles, perceptions and attitudes are different. Not many organizations have understood these and not many OB experts are clear about the ways of motivating such diverse workforce.

Motivating employees is also more challenging at a time when firms have dramatically changed the jobs that employees perform, reduced layers of hierarchy, and jettisoned large numbers of employees in the name of rightsizing or downsizing. These actions have significantly damaged the levels of trust and commitment necessary for employees to put in efforts above minimum requirements. Some organizations have resorted to hire and fire and pay-for performance strategies almost giving up motivational efforts. Such strategies may have some effect (both positive and negative) but fail to make an individual overreach himself or herself.

Third, motives can be only inferred; they cannot be seen. The director of a B-School finds two girls working in his office showing varying performance, though both of them are of same age, same educational qualification and identical work experience. What motivates one girl but fails with another is difficult to understand.

Fourth, the dynamic nature of needs often poses challenge to any manager in motivating his or her subordinates. An employee, at any given time, has various needs, desires and expectations. Further, these factors change over time and may also conflict with each other. Employees who put in extra hours at work to fulfill their needs for accomplishment may find that these extra hours conflict directly with needs for affiliation and their desire to be with their families.

Fifth, people do not necessarily satisfy their needs, especially higher-level needs, just through work situation but through other areas of personal life as well. The manager needs a complete understanding of peoples private and social lives, not only their work related behaviors

A successful Manager: Makes Impossible possible

- *Motivation is necessary to make the employees overreach themselves. Unique feature of human beings is their capacity to make impossible possible. Motivation helps exploit this potential.*
- *Motivated employees are not only productive hut they are also committed and quality conscious.*
- *A typical employee is likely to slog satisfying lower level needs. Manager should kindle desire in the employee and make him or her aspire for higher things in life.*

3.2.4 Theories of Motivation

There is no shortage of models, strategies and tactics for motivating employees. As a result, firms constantly experiment with new motivational programmes and practices. For discussion purposes, it is useful to classify motivational models into two general categories: early and contemporary.

Motivational Models
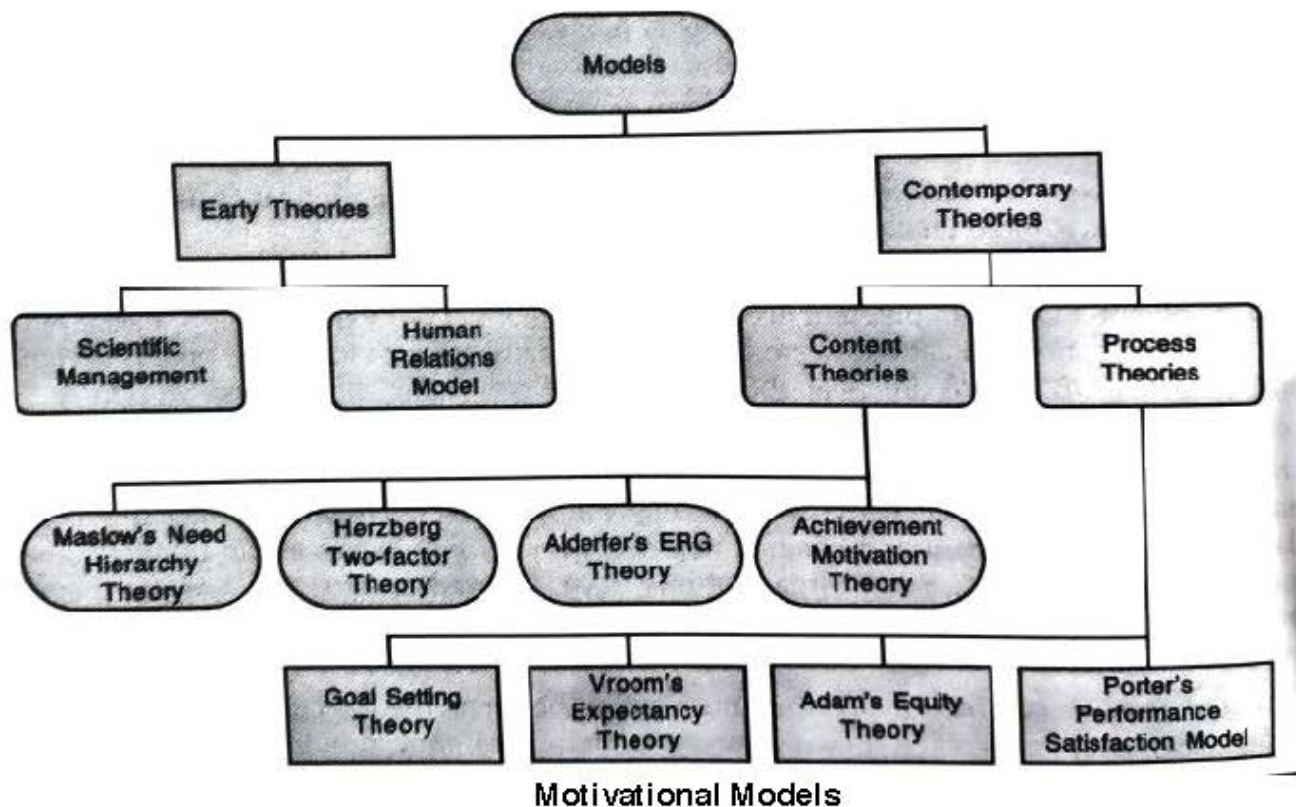
Early Theories

Scientific Management: Scientific Management is the name given to a philosophy and set of methods and techniques that stressed the scientific study and organisation of work at the operations level for the purpose of increasing efficiency. Several luminaries contributed their ideas to the philosophy of Scientific Management but the movement is more associated with F.W. Taylor who is remembered as the *"Father of Scientific Management."*

Scientific Management had contributed several techniques which are relevant even today. The techniques are:

(i) Scientific method of doing work.
(i) Planning the task.
(ii) Scientific selection, training and remuneration of workers.
(iii) Standardization.
(iv) Specialization and division of work.
(v) Time and motion studies.
(vi) Mental revolution.

Coupled with Taylor's logical and rational approach to management was simple theory of human behaviour. People are primarily motivated by economic rewards and will take direction if offered an opportunity to improve their economic positions. Put simply, Taylor's theory Y stated that:

(i) Physical work could be scientifically studied to determine the optimal method of performing a job.
(ii) Workers could thereafter be made more efficient by being given prescriptions for how they were to do their jobs.

(iii) Workers would be willing to adhere to these prescriptions if paid on a differential piece work basis.

Scientific approach to motivation has been criticized severally. In particular, behavioral scientists have argued that Taylor and his colleagues dehumanized workers by treating them as mere factors of production, who could be manipulated completely through economic incentives.

The most fundamental problem with Taylor's approach from a motivational viewpoint is concerned with his rather simplistic assumption about human behaviour. Taylor believed that workers would be motivated more by the need tor money (this assumption is called the 'rabble hypothesis). He thought that the primary interest of the worker is economic gain in the form of higher wages. Contrary to this rabble hypothesis, a Worker seeks satisfaction of a variety of needs in the workplace - need for security, social fulfillment and a challenging job, including pay

Taylor's oversimplified and routine jobs, instead of benefiting the workers, created boredom and dissatisfaction in them. The workers lost their abilities to think, willingness to take initiative and preparedness to use skills effectively.

Taylor's contribution is being appreciated now than when he was alive. For example, Peter Drucker believes that Taylor's work has had the same degree of impact upon the world as the work of Karl Manx or Sigmund Freud. The basic tenets of Scientific Management science, not rule of thumb; harmony, not discord; co-operation, not individualization; maximum output, not restricted output; and the development of each person to his greatest efficiency and prosperity were relevant during Taylor's days5, are relevant today and will continue to be so in the days to come.

Human Relations Model: It became clear that the assumption that workers were primarily motivated b money proved to be inadequate. Elton Mayo and other human relations researchers found that the social contacts which the workers had at workplaces were also important and that the boredom and repetitiveness of tasks were themselves factors in reducing motivation. Mayo and others also believed that managers could motivate employ: s by acknowledging their social needs and by making them feel useful and important.

As a result employees were given some freedom to make their own decisions on their jobs. Greater attention was paid to the organisation's informal work groups. More information was provided to employees about the manager's intentions and about the operations of organisation.

The Scientific Management Model workers had been expected to accept management's authority in return or high wages made possible by the efficient system designed by management and implemented by the workers In the Human Relations Model, workers were expected to accept management' s authority because supervisors treated them with consideration and were attentive to their needs.

The problem with the Human Relations Model is its undue reliance on social contacts at work situation fir motivating employees. Social contacts, though desirable by themselves, will not always help motivate workers.

Not withstanding what the early theories contain, there is no gainsaying the fact that for motivating employees it is necessary to ensure the feeling in them that the employees are gaining something from their actions it is not enough that accomplishment of a task is important for the organisation. To energize an employee, managers must make the

accomplishment work tasks contribute to the welfare of the employee as well. This is the realm of content theories of motivation. *Content theories of motivation* outline what workers want and need and therefore what tools managers can use to motivate their subordinates. Additionally, motivating employees means that their actions must be properly directed. This implies that the employees have leant what needs to be done and how and when to do it. Directing behaviour is the realm of process theories of motivation. These theories describe how managers can use knowledge of subordinates' needs and desires to direct subordinate behaviour appropriately.

Content Theories - Maslow's need hierarchy theory, Herzberg's two-factor theory, Alderfer's ERG theory and McClelland s achievement theory are classified as content theories: These theories use individual needs to help in the understanding of job satisfaction and work behaviors. Needs reflect either physiological or psychological deficiencies. Hunger, for example, is a physiological need, desire o emotional support is a psychological need. Needs are an additional aspect of individual attributes which complement higher demographic, contemporary and psychological characteristic

Although content theories disagree somewhat concerning the exact nature of the needs, do agree that

Individual needs $\xrightarrow{\text{Activate}}$ **Tensions** $\xrightarrow{\text{That Influence}}$ **Job satisfaction and Work behaviour**

Stated more clearly, content theorists suggest that the manager's job is to create work environment that responds positively to individual needs. Such things as poor performance, undesirable behaviors and decreased satisfactions can be partially explained in terms of dissatisfied needs. Also, the motivational value and rewards can be analyzed in terms of activated needs to which a given reward either does or does not respond.

Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory: The need hierarchy model of motivation propounded by Abraham Harold Maslow is undoubtedly the simplest and most widely discussed theory of motivation. The essence of the theory may be summarized thus:
(a) People are wanting beings whose needs can influence their behaviour. Only unsatisfied needs can influence behaviour, satisfied needs do not act as motivators.
(b) Since needs are many, they are arranged in an order of importance, or hierarchy (hence the nomenclature need hierarchy theory of motivation), from the basic to the complex.
(c) The person advances to the next level of hierarchy, or from the basic to the complex, only when the lower level need is at least minimally satisfied.
(d) Further up the hierarchy the person is able to go, the more individuality, humanness and psychological health he will display.
The Needs: Maslow's need hierarchy divides human needs into five levels as shown Illustration Each level represents a group of needs- not one need for each level.

Maslow's Need Hierarchy

The most basic level of needs comprises the primary or physiological ones. So long as they are unsatisfied, they monopolize a person's consciousness and have virtually exclusive power to motivate behaviour. However, when they are satisfied, The they cease to be motivators. Satisfaction of primary needs does not produce contentment, instead, it unleashes a new series of discontents. The secondary needs now begin to acquire the power to motivate. People do not stop wanting; after physiological needs are fulfilled, they begin to want, in succession, safety, love, esteem and self-realization. Maslow also suggested that people can travel down as well as up the hierarchy. Loss of existing satisfaction of primary needs, for example, can reactivate the level and increase its relative importance. A detailed description of each level needs follows.

Physiological Needs: The most basic, powerful and obvious of all human needs is the need for physical survival. (See **Maslow's Need Hierarchy**). Included in this group are the needs for food, drink, oxygen, sleep, sex, protection from extreme temperature and sensory stimulation. These physiological drives are directly concerned with the biological maintenance of the organism and motivated by higher order needs. Put another way, the person who fails to satisfy this basic level of needs just won't be around long enough to attempt satisfaction of higher need levels.

Admittedly, the social-physical environment in our country provides for the satistacfion s primary needs for most persons. However, if one of these needs remains unsatisfied, the individual rapidly becomes dominated by that need, so that all other needs quickly become non-existence or decidedly secondary. The chronically hungry person will never strive to compose music or build a brave new world. Such a person is much too preoccupied with getting something to eat Maslow adds:

For our chronically and extremely hungry man, Utopia can be defined simply as a place where there is plenty of food. He tends to think that, if only he is guaranteed food for the rest of life, he will be perfectly happy and wll never want anything more, Life itself tends to be defined in terms of eating. Anything else will be defined as unimportant. Freedom, love, community feeling, respect, philosophy, may all be waved aside as fripperies that are useless, since they fail to fill the stomach. Such a man may fairly be said to live by bread alone.

Physiological needs are crucial to the understanding of human behaviour. The devastating effects on behaviour produced by a lack of food or water have been chronicled in numerous experiments and autobiographies. One terrifying example of the behavioral effects brought about by prolonged food deprivation occurred when a Peruvian airliner crashed deep in the jungles of South America in 1970. Trapped with a dwindling supply of food, the survivors, including a catholic priest, resorted to eating the victims of the crash. This incident illustrates how deeply ingrained social and moral taboos can give way to biological drives under stressful conditions. Without doubt, physiological needs dominate human desires, forcing themselves on one's attention before higher order goals can be pursued.

In the organizational context, physiological needs are salary and basic represented by employees concern for working conditions. It is the duty of managers to ensure that these needs of the employees are met so that they can be motivated to strive for gratification of higher order needs.

Safety Needs: Once physiological needs are met, another set of motives, called safety or security needs, become motivators (See Fig. 10.3). The primary motivating force here is to ensure a reasonable degree of continuity, order, structure and predictability in one's environment. Maslow suggested that the safety needs are most readily observed in infants and young children because of their relative helplessness and dependence on adults.

Safety needs exert influence beyond childhood. The preference for secured income, the acquisition of insurance and owning one's own house may be regarded as motivated in part by safety seeking. At least in part, religious and philosophic belief systems may also be interpreted in this fashion. Religions and philosophies help a person organize his world and the people in it into a coherent and meaningful whole, thus making the person feel "safe". Other expressions of the need for safety occur when individuals are confronted with real emergencies, e.g., war, crime, waves, floods, earthquakes, riots, social disorganizations and similar other conditions.

Security needs in the organizational context correlate to such factors as job security, salary increases, safe working conditions, unionization and lobbying for protective legislation Managerial practices to satisfy the safety needs of employees include pension scheme, group insurance, provident fund, gratuity, safe working conditions, grievance procedure, system T seniority to govern lay-off and others. Arbitrary or unpredictable actions, actions which create feeling of uncertainty (particularly regarding continued employment), favoritism, or discrimination on the part of superiors hardly create feeling of security in an employee's mind

. **Social Needs:** Also called belonging and love needs, these constitute the third level in the hierarchy of needs. (See Fig. 10.3). These needs arise when physiological and safety needs are satisfied. An individual motivated on this level longs for affectionate relationship with others, namely, for a place in his or her family and/or reference groups. Group membership becomes a dominant goal for the individual. Accordingly, the person will feel keenly the pangs of loneliness, social ostracism, friendliness and rejection, especially when induced by the absence of friends, relatives, a spouse or children.

Unlike Freud who equated love with sex, Maslow believed that love involves a healthy, loving relationship between two people, which includes mutual respect, admiration and trust. Maslow also stressed that love needs involve both giving and receiving love. Being loved and accepted is instrumental to healthy feelings of worth. Not being loved leads to feelings of futility, emptiness and hostility. In the organizational context, social needs represent the need

for a compatible work group, peer acceptance, professional friendship and friendly supervision. Managers do well to informal groups. Besides, supervision needs to be effective and friendly behaviour with subordinates pays.

Unfortunately, many managers view friendly relations of employees with their peers as a threat to the organisation and act accordingly. Managers have often gone to considerable lengths to control and direct employees' relationships in ways that are opposed to the natural groupings of human beings. Therefore, when a manager assumes that informal groups always threaten the organisation, and actively strives to breakup existing groups, the individuals affected may become resistant, antagonistic and un-cooperative. These resistant actions are often consequences or symptoms, not causes, for the manager may have thwarted the satisfaction of social needs and perhaps even safety needs.

Self-esteem Needs: Next in Maslow's hierarchy are esteem or egoistic needs. (See need hierarchy triangle) Maslow classified these needs into two subsidiary sets: self-respect and esteem from others. The former includes such things as desire for competence, confidence, personal strength, adequacy, achievement, independence and freedom. An individual needs to know that he is worthwhile and capable of mastering tasks and challenges in life. Esteem from others includes prestige, recognition, acceptance, attention, status, reputation and appreciation. In this case, individuals need to be appreciated for what they can do, i.e., they must experience feelings of worth because their competence is recognized and valued by others.

Satisfaction of the self-esteem needs generates feelings and attitudes of self-confidence, worth, strength, capability and of being useful and necessary in the world. In contrast, the thwarting of these needs leads to feelings and attitudes of inferiority, ineptness, weakness and helplessness. These negative self-perceptions, may, in turn give rise to basic discouragement, sense of futility and hopelessness in dealing with life's demands and a low evaluation of self vis-à-vis others. Maslow emphasized that the most healthy self-esteem is based on earned respect from others rather than on fame, status, or adulation. Esteem is the result of effort- it is earned. Hence, there is a real psychological danger of basing one's esteem needs on the opinions of others rather than on real ability, achievement and adequacy. Once a person relies exclusively upon the opinions of others for his own self-esteem, he places himself in psychological jeopardy, To be solid, self-esteem must be founded on one's actual worth rather than on external factors beyond one's control.

In the workplace, self-esteem needs correspond to Job title, merit pay increase, peer/ supervisory recognition, challenging work, responsibility, and publicity In company publications. Managerial practices to fulfill these needs Include challenging work assignments, performance feedback, performance recognition, personal encouragement and Involving employees in goal getting and decision-making.

Self-actualization Needs: Finally, If all the earlier four level needs are satisfied, the need for self-actualization comes to the fore (See Need Hierarchy). Maslow characterized self-actualization as desire to become everything that one is capable of becoming. The person who has achieved this highest-level presses towards the full use and exploitation of his talents, capacities and potentialities. In other words, to self-actualize Is to become the total kind of person that one wants to become to reach the peak of one's potential.

The need for self-actualization Is distinctive, In that it Is never fully satisfied. It appears to remain Important and insatiable. The more apparent satisfaction of It a person obtains, the more important the need for more seems to become.

Though the impulse to realize one's potential is natural and necessary, only a few, usually the gifted, ever do so. Maslow himself estimated that less than one per cent of the population fulfils the need for self-actualization. Maslow advances three reasons for this. First, people are invariably blind to their own potentialities. Second, the social environment often stifles development towards self-fulfillment. Women, for example, were stereotyped for long, to be housewives. This prevented them from reaching self-fulfillment. A final obstacle is the strong negative influence exercised by the safety needs. The growth process demands a constant willingness to take risks, to make mistakes, and to break old habits. This requires courage. It logically follows that anything that increases the individual's fear and anxiety also increases his tendency to regress towards safety and security.

In an organisation, self-actualization needs correlate to desire for excelling oneself in one's job, advancing an important idea, successfully managing a unit and the like. By being aware of the self-actualization needs of subordinates, managers can use a variety of approaches to enable subordinates to achieve personal as well as organizational goals.
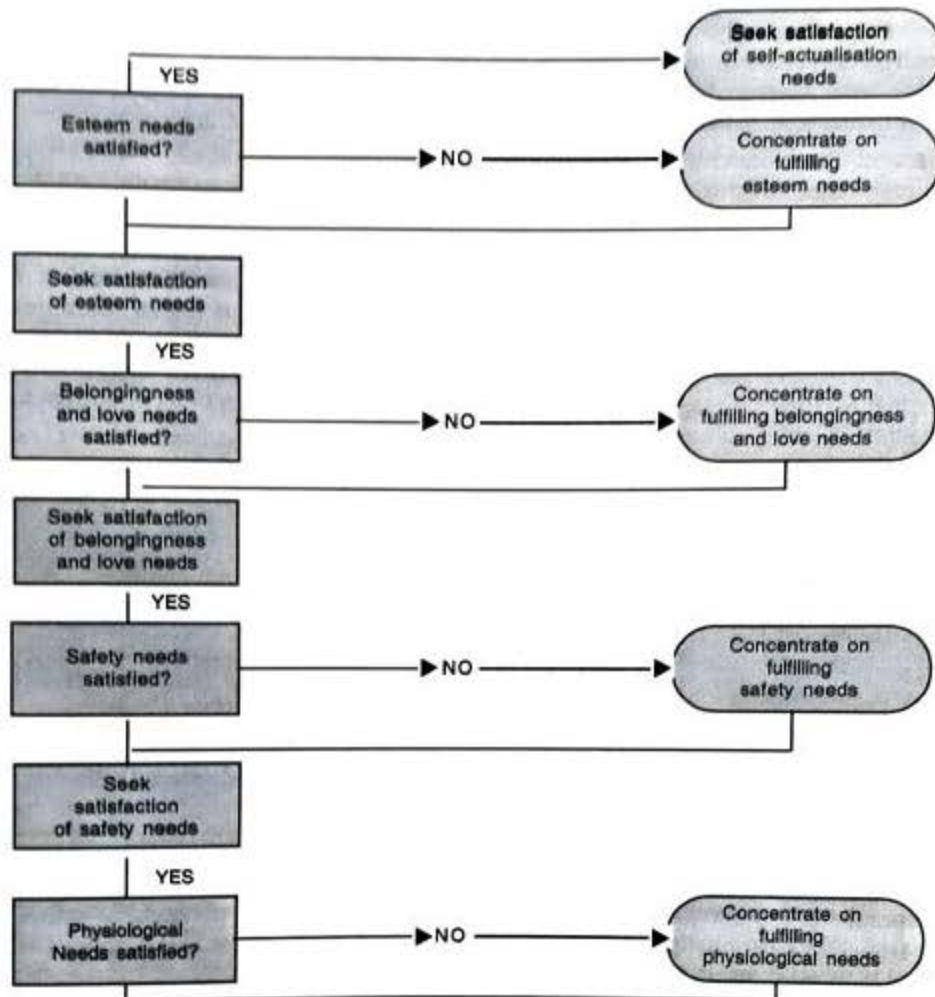
Flow diagram of Need Satisfaction

(See Flow Diagram of Need Satisfaction) illustrates one's ascension up the hierarchy of needs. The individual is able to go further up only when his previous needs are satisfied. If unsatisfied, the needs will hold his concentration till they are satisfied. Thus, there is satisfaction-progression dimension in Maslow's model. What is the role of a typical manager? The task is to lift the employees from lower level needs to the higher level ones. Employees must be motivated to aspire for self-actualization needs.

Evaluation of the Model: Maslow's theory represents a significant departure from economic theories of motivation. As a result, the theory has an important impact in two ways. First, the theory presents an entire array of non-economic worker needs. If an employee does not respond to economic incentives, managers have alternative sources of employee motivation to consider.

Second, Maslow's hierarchy provides an important explanation for the changing motivations of workers over time. When a new employee first starts on the job, needs lower on the hierarchy physiological or safety needs-are likely to command the most attention. Later, as these needs are fulfilled, the employee's attention will turn to the fulfillment of higher order such as gaining the acceptance and respect of co-workers.

Third, it is said that the theory offers some useful ideas for helping managers think about motivating their employees. As a result of their widespread familiarity with the model, the managers are more likely to identify employee needs, recognize that they may be different across employees, offer satisfaction for the particular needs and realize that giving more of the same reward may have a diminishing impact on motivation.

The fourth merit of the theory is that it accounts for both interpersonal and intrapersonal variations in human behaviour. It suggests answers to questions that have puzzled supervisors Why do some employees seem highly motivated by money while others are not? Why do some workers get engrossed in their work, while others loaf around? The answer may be that they occupy varying levels on Maslow's needs hierarchy. This has an important implication for the manager. The implication is that the desired behaviour is most likely to occur if it results in the satisfaction of an employee's prepotent need. Rewards or incentives, therefore, will be effective when they are linked to the prepotent level

Fifth, the need hierarchy model is dynamic in that it presents motivation as a constant changing force, expressing itself through the constant striving for fulfillment of new and higher levels of needs. Man is never satisfied. Instead of resting on his laurels when one goal is reached or a need is satisfied, the individual will typically redirect his efforts and capacities towards attainment of still higher level needs.

Sixth, Maslow's approach to human behaviour marks a total departure from earlier approaches. Called humanistic psychology, Maslow's approach is based on existential philosophy. One of the basic tenets of existential philosophy is that a man is a healthy, good and creative being, capable of carving out his own destiny. The philosophy prompted Maslow to conceptualize self-actualization needs. One may not subscribe to existential philosophy, but Maslow deserves to be complimented because of his departure from Freud who was obsessed with sex and Skinner who sought to extend observations derived from animal research to human behaviour.

Finally, the theory deserves appreciation for its simplicity, commonness, humanness and Intuitiveness.

The need hierarchy theory has been criticized by many and the number of critics exceeds the number who support the theory.

First, it is said that Maslow's theory Is not a theory of work motivation. In fact, Maslow, himself did not intend that his need hierarchy be directly applied to work motivation. He did not delve into the motivating aspects of humans in organisations until about 20 years after he originally proposed his theory. Despite this lack of intent on Maslow's part, others, such as Douglas McGregor, in his widely read book "The Human Side of Enterprise", popularized Maslow's theory in management literature.

Second, the hierarchy of needs simply does not exist. At all levels, needs are present at given time. An individual motivated by self-actualization needs, for example, cannot afford to forget his food.

Third, assuming hierarchy does exist among needs, it may not be the same in all countries Maslow's hierarchy applies to American and British managers. Japanese managers, however, would seem to have hierarchy that places social and security needs higher, because they are less well satisfied than self-actualization. Northern European managers would seem to have a hierarchy that reverses Maslow's positioning of safety and love. These and other variations imply that Maslow's hierarchy may be better reflection of the culture of its birth than a guide to motivation in other culture.

Because of the differing needs and priorities of organizations; particularly MNCS, need to adopt different personnel policies and practices to meet local needs. This was what Honda did in the US when it set up its plant.

Fourth, not only are there differences across countries in needs hierarchy, there within countries and are variations among individuals. Within a country, culturally disadvantaged employees may feel stronger deprivation of lower level needs, whereas culturally advantaged employees seek satisfaction of higher level needs.

Maslow himself pointed out that individuals differ In the relative Intensity of their various needs. For example, some individuals remain strongly Influenced by feeling of insecurity despite objective conditions that satisfy the needs of most similarly situated persons. Fifth, Maslow's assumption about psychological health is not acceptable to many. Mi existential philosophy is also questioned by the critics. Contrary to Maslow's belief, many individuals may stay content with lower level needs- physiological or safety needs. They may not move farther In the hierarchy of needs In search of satisfaction.

Sixth, It has also been pointed that managers will not have time to leisurely diagnose where every employee is on Maslow's hierarchy. Furthermore, they may not be free to supp rewards tailor-made to each of them. Given these constraints In addition to the presence Cultural and Individual differences In patterns of need satisfaction, how can manager make a practical use of Maslow's theory?

Seventh, we had told in the beginning that Individuals differ in personality, attitudes, perception, tastes and priorities. Obliviously, they place different values on the same need. A Typical employee may prefer to work In a hierarchical and bureaucratic organisation with less pay but assured Job security. High status and more attractive pay in another organisation but with less Job security may not attract him or her.

Eighth, for Maslow need-satisfaction Is the main motivating factor. But satisfaction itself may not lead to improved performance. A satisfied worker is not a productive worker goes the statement.

Ninth, some rewards satisfy more than one need, as for example, salary. What an employee earns every month meets his or her basic as well as higher level needs. Even for

people within the same hierarchy, the motivating factors will not be the same. There are many different ways in which people may seek satisfaction, for example, esteem needs.

Finally, people seek satisfaction for any level of needs not necessarily from work related behaviors. Work-related behaviors and personal life together help satisfy needs. Manager should understand Individuals as employees and as private people.

In spite of Its serious limitations, the need hierarchy theory Is important because of its contribution In terms of making management reward diverse needs of humans at work. Their names of hierarchy are not Important. But some of them, particularly higher level needs like esteem and actuallsation needs, are important to the content of work motivation.

Motivation - Hygiene : Another very popular theory of motivation is that proposed by psychologist Frederick Herzberg. This model, which Is variously termed the two-factor theory, the dual factor theory, and the motivation-hygiene theory, has been widely accepted by managers concerned with the problem of human behaviour at work.

There are two distinct aspects of the motivation - hygiene theory. The first and more basic part of model represents a formally stated theory of work behaviour. It is this two-factor model of motivation which Is considered In thls chapter, The second aspect of Herzberg's work has focused upon the behavioral consequences of Job enrichment and Job satisfaction program.

Herzberg and hls associates Mausner, Peterson and Capwell began their initial work on factors affecting work motivation In the mld-50s. Their first effort entailed a thorough review of existing research to the date on the subject. Based on this review, Herzberg carried out his now famous survey of 200 accountants and engineers. Herzberg used the critical Incident method of obtaining data for analysis. The respondents were essentially asked two questions: (1) When did you feel particularly good about your Job; and (2) When did you feel exceptionally bad about your Job?

Responses obtained from this Critical Incident Method were interesting. It was revealed that factors which made respondents feel good were totally different from those which made them feel bad. As seen In illustration certain characteristics tend to be consistently related to Job satisfaction (factors on the rlght-slde of the illustration), and others to Job dissatisfaction (factors on the left-side of the illustration).

Intrinsic factors, such as achievement, recognition, the work Itself, responsibility, advancement and growth seem to be related to Job satisfaction. These factors are variously known as motivators, satisfiers and Job content factors. When questioned when they felt good about their work, respondents tended to attribute these characteristics to them. On the other hand, when they were dlssatlsfled, they tended to extrinsic factors, such as company policy and administration, supervision, work conditions, salary, status, security and Interpersonal relations. These factors are also known as dissatisfies, hygiene factors, maintenance factors or Job content factors. Herzberg chose the term hygiene and maintenance to describe these factors they help prevent occurrence of undesirable consequences.

According to Herzberg, satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not opposite poles of one dimension, they are two separate dimensions. Satisfaction is affected by motivators and dissatisfaction by hygiene factors. This is the key idea of Herzberg and it has important implications for managers. To achieve motivation, managers should cope with both satisfiers and dissatisfiers. Improve hygiene factors - dissatisfaction is removed from the minds of employees. A favorable frame of mind is not created for motivation. Provide satisfiers,
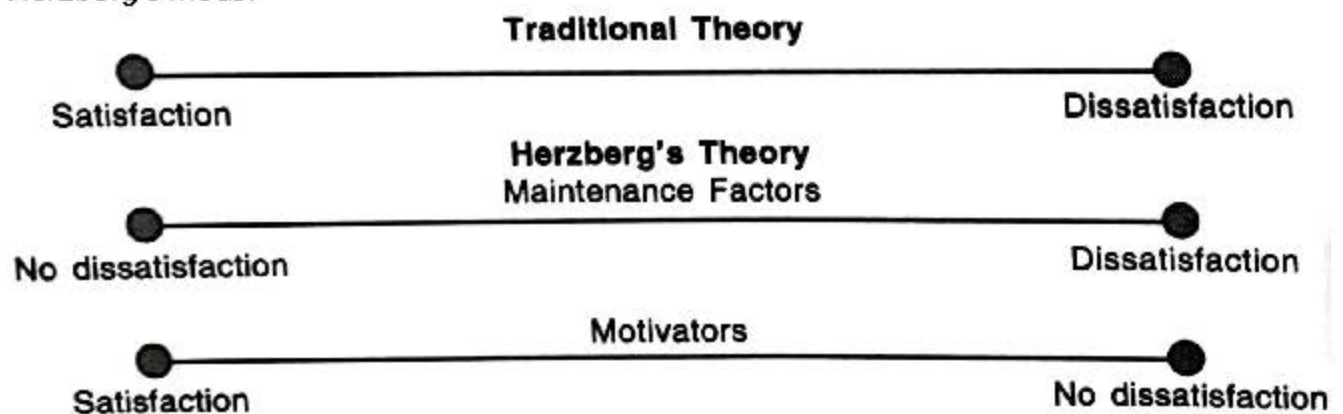
motivation will then take should be realistic not to expect motivation by only improving the "hygiene" of work environment.

Hygienes: Job dissatisfaction	Motivators: Job satisfaction
	Achievement
	Recognition of achievement
	Work itself
	Responsibility
	Advancement
	Growth
Company policy and administration	
Supervision	
Interpersonal relations	
Working conditions	
Salary*	
Status	
Security	

* Because of its ubiquitous nature, salary commonly shows up as a motivator as well as hygiene. Although primarily a hygiene factor, it also often takes on some of the properties of a motivator, with dynamics similar to those of recognition for achievement.

Herzerberg's Hygiene and Motivators

This is the crux of the two-factor theory of motivation. (See Illustration) essence of the Herzberg's model

Traditional Theory

Satisfaction ●————————————————————● Dissatisfaction

Herzberg's Theory
Maintenance Factors

No dissatisfaction ●————————————————————● Dissatisfaction

Motivators

Satisfaction ●————————————————————● No dissatisfaction

Herzberg's Hygiene & Motivation

Need Hierarchy and Two-factor Theories Compared and Contrasted: There are similarities and dissimilarities between Maslow's need hierarchy and Herzberg's hygiene-motivation theories of motivation. Both of them have become very popular and have been widely accepted by academics and managers. The most striking similarity between the two theories is that they assume that specific needs energize behaviour. Furthermore, there appears to be a great deal of agreement as to the totality of human needs. (see **Herzberg's Hygiene &**

Motivation) shows how the needs in both the models might be related. It is reasonable to argue that Herzberg's motivators satisfy the higher order needs of Maslow's, i.e., self-esteem and self-actualization.
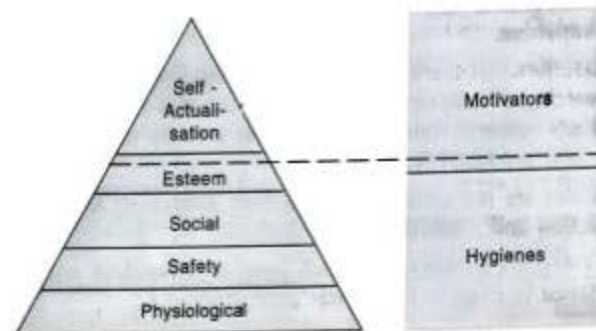
A Comparison of Maslow's Need Hierarchy and Herzberg's Two Factor Theory

The hygiene factors are the equivalent of the physiological, security and social needs of the Need hierarchy model. The differences between the two models are presented in Table below

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MASLOW'S AND HERZBERG'S MOTIVATIONAL THEORIES

Issue	Maslow	Herzberg
Type of theory	Descriptive	Prescriptive
The satisfaction-performance relationship	Unsatisfied needs energise behaviour, this behaviour causes performance	Needs cause performance
Effect of need satisfaction	A satisfied need is not a motivator (except self-actualisation)	A satisfied (hygiene) need is not a motivato other satisfied needs are motivators
Need order	Hierarchy of needs	No hierarchy
Effect of pay	Pay is a motivator if it satisfies needs	Pay is not a motivator
Effect of needs	All needs are motivators at various times	Only some needs are motivators
View of motivation	Macro view – deals with all aspects of existence	Micro view – deals primarily with work related motivation
Worker level	Relevant for all workers	Probably more relevant to white-collar and professional workers

Evaluation of the Two-factor Theory: Like the need hierarchy theory, the hygiene-motivation theory has been the subject of appreciation and criticism. The criticisms of the theory are the following:

1. The procedure that Herzberg adopted is limited by its methodology. When things are going well, people claim credit for themselves. Contrarily, they blame failure on the extrinsic environment.
2. The reliability of Herzberg's methodology is questioned. Since raters have to make interpretations, it is possible that they may contaminate the findings by interpreting one response in one manner while treating another similar response differently.
3. The theory, to the degree that it is valid, provides an explanation of job satisfaction. It is not really a theory of motivation. No overall measure of satisfaction was utilized. In other words, a person may dislike part of his job, yet think the job is acceptable.
4. The theory is inconsistent with previous research. The motivation hygiene theory ignores situational variables.
5. Herzberg assumes that there is a relationship between satisfaction and productivity. But the research methodology he used looked only at satisfaction, not at productivity.
6. To make such research relevant, one must assume a high relationship between satisfaction and productivity. (The two factors are not actually distinct. Both motivators and hygienes contribute to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction.
7. Thanks to Herzberg's theory, there has been a tremendous emphasis on motivators. The importance of hygiene factors has been ignored.

A study conducted by Sarveswara Rao G.V. (1972) revealed certain facts which are worth quoting here. The findings are: (1) the two-factor theory is an over generalization of facts and it is methodologically bound; (2) satisfaction and dissatisfaction are two distinct feelings; (3) both motivators and hygiene factors contribute to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction, although the relative influence of the two factors vary according to occupational levels, and (4) motivators have more potential influence on both satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

There are certain merits of the theory. One of the most significant contribution of Herzberg's work was the tremendous impact it had on stimulating thought, research and experimentation on the topic of motivation at work. Before 1959, little research had been carried out in the area of work motivation and the research that did exist was largely fragmentary. Maslow's work on the need hierarchy theory and others were largely concerned with laboratory based findings, or clinical observations and neither had seriously addressed the problems of the workplace at that time. Herzberg filled this void by specially calling attention to the need for increased understanding of the role of motivation in organisation.

Second, Herzberg's theory offers specific action recommendation for managers to improve motivational levels. Herzberg cleared many misconceptions concerning motivation. For example, he argued that money should not be viewed as the most potent force on the job. He advanced a strong case for "content" factors which have a considerable bearing on behaviour. According to Herzberg, it is these content factors and not money that are primarly related to work motivation.

Third, the job design technique of job enrichment is the contribution of Herzberg Finally, Herzberg has two- dimensionalized the needs, instead of five as was done by Maslow. All things considered, it may be stated that Herzberg's theory has been widely read and few managers are unfamiliar with his recommendations. The increased popularity since the

1960s of vertically expanding mid- jobs to allow workers greater responsibility in planning and controlling their work can be largely attributed to Herzberg's findings and recommendations.

Are Needs Theories Relevant?

To the question are the needs theories of motivation relevant, the answer is partly no. In today's organizations needs such as food, shelter, sleep, salary, quality of supervision, and working conditions are taken for granted. Rarely employees are concerned about their non-availability as they are provided in abundance. It is for this reason that popular books on OB do not cover Maslow and Herzberg motivational theories.
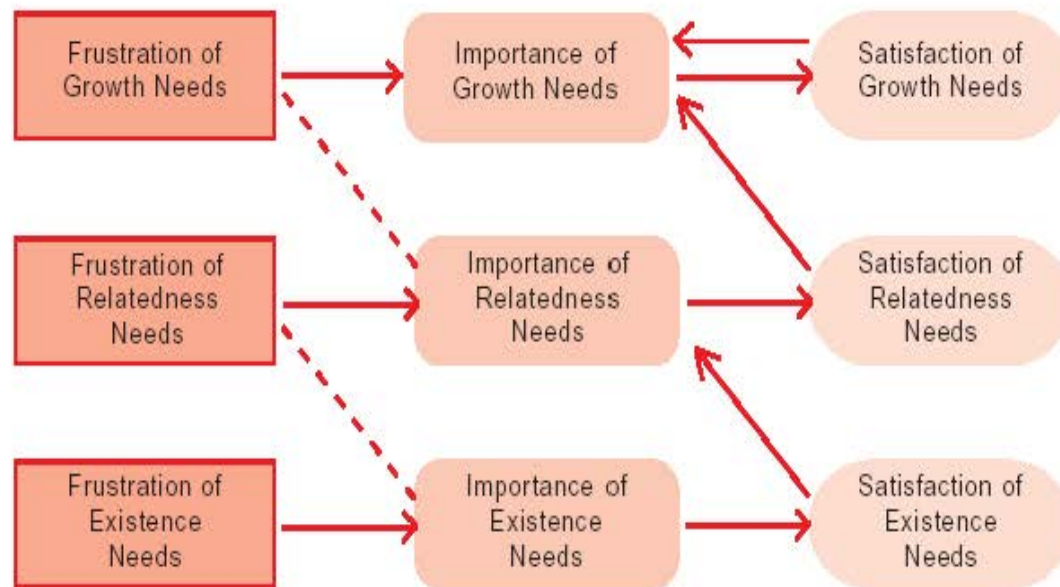
But there are many organizations, particularly those in the unorganized sector, where decent toilets are a luxury. Maslow's physiological and Herzberg hygiene's continue to be relevant and they do matter in motivating employees and they do matter in motivating employees..

ERG Theory: A modification of Maslow's need hierarchy was proposed by Clay Alderfer. Alderfer's views on motivation arose from the results of questionnaires he gave to over 100 employees at several levels in a bank. Alderfer's work led him to propose that there (rather than Maslow's five) primary categories of human needs. These categories are: are three

(a) Existence: The basic physiological needs (hunger and thirst) and protection from physical danger.

(b) Relatedness: Social and affiliation needs and the need for respect and regard from others.

(c) Growth: The need to develop and realize one's potential.

By establishing these broader categories of human needs, Alderfer retained the idea of a

hierarchy of needs, but offered a less rigid version of Maslow's "satisfaction-progression" hypothesis. For example, since Maslow's social and esteem needs are together in Alderfer's ERG model under the umbrella of "relatedness" needs, neither takes fulfillment precedence over the other.

Where Maslow proposed "satisfaction-progression" model, Alderfer came out with frustration-regression" hypothesis (**See Satisfaction Progression & Dissatisfaction Regression**). If fulfillment of a higher order need is blocked - if something prevents the higher-order need from being fulfilled - an individual's attention will regress back towards fulfillment of needs lower in the hierarchy. For instance, if relatedness needs are relatively fulfilled but growth-need fulfillment is blocked, an individual's attention will return to fulfillment of relatedness needs. Besides, Alderfer's ERG theory assumes that growth needs become more rather than less important as they become fulfilled.

Frustration of Growth Needs → Importance of Growth Needs ← Satisfaction of Growth Needs

Frustration of Relatedness Needs → Importance of Relatedness Needs → Satisfaction of Relatedness Needs

Frustration of Existence Needs → Importance of Existence Needs → Satisfaction of Existence Needs

Satisfaction Progression & Frustration Regression

Evaluation of the Theory: Advantages of the ERG theory are as follows: .

First, the ERG theory is more consistent with our among knowledge of individual differences people. Variables such as education, family background and cultural environment alter the importance or driving torce that a group of needs holds for a particular individual. The evidence demonstrates that people in other cultures rank the need categories differently, for instance, natives of Spain and Japan place social needs before their psychological requirements. This would be consistent with the ERG theory. The ERG theory, therefore, represents a more valid version of the need hierarchy.

Second, Aderfer's theory has better founding than Maslow and Herzberg.

Overall, ERG theory seems to take some of the strong points of the earlier content theories, but is less restrictive and limiting.

Disadvantages of the theory are as follows: The theory does not offer clear-cut guidelines. The ERG theory implies that individuals will be motivated to engage in behaviour which will satisfy one of the three sets of needs postulated by the theory. In order to predict what behaviour any given person will be motivated to engage, it would require an assessment of that person to determine which of the three needs were most salient and most important to that person. The individuals would then be predicted to engage in behaviour which lead to attainment of outcomes with the capacity of fulfilling these silent needs.

McClelland's Needs Theory

The fourth needs theory is proposed by David McClelland. The theory has received wide attention and its propositions have been tested and validated. McClelland identified three learned or acquired needs, popularly called manifest needs. The three needs are: Need for achievement (nAch) Need for power (nPow) Need for affiliation (nAff)

The theory is famously called the Achievement-Motivation theory. The relative intensity of these drives varies among individuals. It also tends to vary across occupations. McClelland saw the achievement need to be the most critical for a country's economic progress and success. The need to achieve is linked to entrepreneurial spirit and the development of available resources. A brief explanation of each need follows.

Need for Achievement (nAch) The nAch concerns issues of excellence, competition, challenging goals, persistence, and overcoming difficulties. A person with a high need ror achievement seeks for excellence in performance, enjoys challenging and difficult goals, s persevering, and competitive in work.

- Of the three needs, need for achievement receives much attention and application. It ha been found that people with nAch perform better than those with a moderate or low need o achievement. Three characteristic features make people with high achievement need distinct They set goals that are moderately difficult but achievable
- They like to receive feedback on their progress towards the goals.
- They do not like having external events or other people interfere with their progress towards the goals.

Money is a weak motivator for those people except when it provides feedback an recognition. In contrast, employees with low nAch perform their work better when money used as an incentive.

Developing Achievement Motives: McClelland and his associates have made specific suggestions for developing a high achievement need. They are:

(a) Give employees periodic feedback on performance. This will provide information that will enable them to modify or correct their performance.

(b) Provide good models of achievement. Employees who are "heroes" should be available for others to emulate.

(c) Arrange tasks so that employees can pursue moderate challenges and responsibilities. Avoid tasks that are either extremely difficult or extremely easy.

(d) 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.

Though McClelland placed emphasis an nAch drives, he also studied need for power and affiliation.

Need for Power People with high need for power desire to exercise control over others and are concerned about maintaining their leadership position. They frequently rely on persuasive communication, make more suggestions in meetings, and tend to publically judge situations more often. Satisfaction is derived from being in positions of control and influence.

Distinction is made between socialized power and personalized power. Personalized power is used for individual gain, whereas socialized power is used for the benefit of society. An effective leader should strive for socialized power and not personalized power. He or she must have a high degree of altruism and social responsibility and be concerned about the consequences of his or her actions on others.

Need for Affiliation The need for affiliation (nAft) is concerned with establishing and maintaining warm, close and intimate relationships with other people. Those with high nAff are motivated to express their emotions and feelings to others while expecting them to do the same in return. High nAff employees generally work well in coordinating roles to mediate conflict and in sales positions where the main task is cultivating long term relations.

WORK PREFERENCES OF PERSONS HIGH IN NEED FOR ACHIEVEMENT, AFFILIATION AND POWER

Individual Needs	Work Preferences	Example
High need for achievement	Individual responsibility; Challenging but achievable goals; Feedback on performances	Field salesperson with challenging quota and opportunity to earn individual bonus.
High need for affiliation	Interpersonal relationships; Opportunities to communicate	Customer service representative; Member of work groups subject to group bonus plan.
High need for power	Control over other persons Attention; Recognition	Formal positions of supervisory responsibility appointment as head of special task force or committee.

Evaluation of the Theory: Like any other theory on motivation, McClelland's theory too has been criticized, criticisms often being unfair. In the first place, the critics question whether motives can be taught to adults. Considerable psychological literature suggests that the acquisition of motives normally occurs in childhood and is very difficult to change once it has been established. McClelland, however, counters that there is strong evidence from politics and religion to indicate that adult behaviour can be drastically altered in a relatively short time.

The second criticism of this theory questions the contention that the needs are permanently acquired. McClelland is the only theorist who argues that the needs can be socially changed through education and training. Opponents contend that the change may be only temporary similar to the one which occurs at an evangelistic meeting or a political rally.
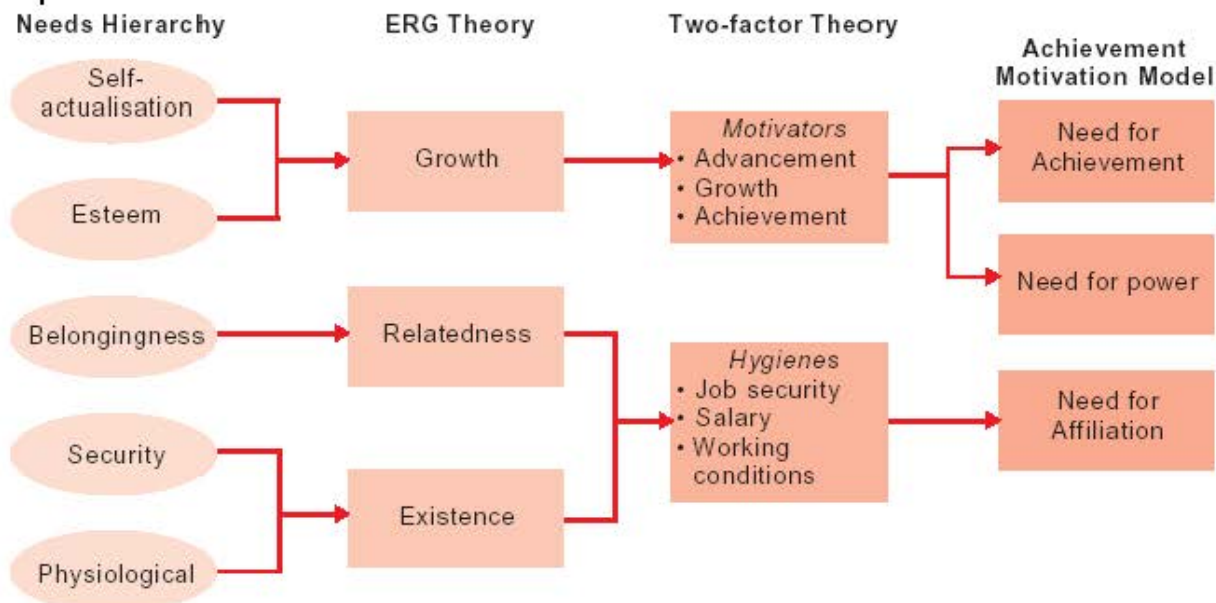
The third criticism relates to the methodology used by McClelland and his associates to advocate the theory. These researchers used the famous Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) of Murray as the main tool to determine basic needs. While projective techniques as TAT have many advantages over structured questionnaires, the interpretation of responses is more subject to researcher's bias.

On the positive side, it may be stated that the research findings highlight the Importance of matching the individual and the job. Employees with high achievement needs thrive on work that is challenging, satisfying, stimulating and complex; they welcome autonomy, variety and frequent feedback from supervisors. Employees with low achievement needs prefer situations of stability, security and predictability. They respond better to considerate than to impersonal high-pressure supervision and look to the workplace and co-workers for social satisfaction. McClelland also suggests that managers can, to some extent, raise the achievement need level of subordinates by creating the proper work environment-permitting their subordinates a measure of independence, increasing responsibility and autonomy, gradually making tasks more challenging and praising and rewarding high performance.

Thus, McClelland's work seems to have numerous practical applications at least in the economic realm, It would appear that the current problem is to concentrate on the development of an environment that will support the desired need, be it affiliation, power or achievement, to change the need to fit the environment. The essence of the theory is that

- Individual need + Responsive work environment = can create (Work motivation & Job satisfaction)

Implication of Content Theories

Needs Hierarchy   **ERG Theory**   **Two-factor Theory**   **Achievement Motivation Model**

Self-actualisation

Esteem

→ Growth →

Motivators
- Advancement
- Growth
- Achievement

→ Need for Achievement

→ Need for power

Belongingness → Relatedness

Security

Physiological

→ Existence →

Hygienes
- Job security
- Salary
- Working conditions

→ Need for Affiliation

For a student, it looks as though all the content theory need hierarchy, two-factor, achievement motivation and ERG look alike. In fact, it app basically two theories have become too many.

There are similarities in the types of needs proposed by these theories. As (**see matching content theories**) these theories propose similar types of needs, but divide them into slightly different categories.

Both Maslow and Alderfer, for example, build a hierarchy of needs, whereas Herzberg proposed two discrete continua for two need categories.

Herzberg's hygiene factors correspond with the lower three levels of Maslow's theory. Similarly, Herzberg's motivation factors parallel the top two levels of Maslow's hierarchy. There are also similarities between need hierarchy and ERG theories.

The existence needs in the ERG theory correspond to the physiological and safety needs of Maslow's hierarchy. The related needs overlap with the interpersonal needs and the need for respect from others in Maslow's theory. Finally, the growth needs correspond to Maslow's self-esteem and self-actualization needs.

McClelland's can likewise be dovetailed with other theories. The need for affiliation clearly is analogous to relatedness needs in the ERG theory, belongingness in Maslow's hierarchy and interpersonal relations in Herzberg's theory. The need for power overlaps with Alderfer's relatedness and growth needs; the need for achievement fits well with Alderfer's growth needs and Maslow's self-actualization needs.

Similarities notwithstanding, each theory, has served an important function in the evolution of management theories of work motivation. Need hierarchy theories highlighted the importance of non-economic needs such as Maslow's esteem needs or Alderfer's relatedness needs – in motivating employees. Herzberg's two-factor theory raised in manager's minds an important distinction between extrinsic and intrinsic sources of motivation. McClelland's theory drove home the idea that some needs are learned.

Taken together, all the content theories emphasize the variety of possible worker needs. This has two important implications for OB practitioners. First, these theories remind managers that there is no such thing as an ideal job design. While our later discussions of job design will focus on how to make jobs more enlarged, more enriched and more involving, it should always be remembered that more of any of these job features, is only better for a worker who wants or needs more. This conclusion has led some management thinkers to suggest that an important point of selecting a new employee is finding one whose needs fit what the job has to offer

A second implication of content theories for OB practitioners is the need to tailor compensation schemes to different individual needs. Incentive schemes, for example, allow workers to choose their own rewards, the inspiration behind this practice being content theories of motivation.

Successful Manager 10 ways to motivate

Ten Ways to Motivate

1. Be motivated yourself.
2. Understand what motivates your subordinates.
3. Give them challenges.
4 Treat them with respect. Listen to them.
5. Empower them to do things their way.
6. Give incentives.
7. Celebrate triumphs - but don't dwell on failures.
8. Stand up for your reports.
9. Help them learn.
10. Reward achievement.

Directing Behaviour- Process Theories

Content theories discussed till now, explain the dynamics of employee needs, such as why people have different needs at different times. By understanding an employee's needs, we can discover what motivates that person. Process theories do not explain how needs they describe the emerge. Rather, process through which needs are translated into behaviour. Specially, process theories explain why someone with a particular need engages in a particular direction, intensity and persistence of effort to satisfy the need. The most popular process theories are: expectancy theory, equity theory, goal-setting theory and Porter's performance-satisfaction model

Expectancy Theory

Simplifying the expectancy theory, it may be stated that work effort is directed towards behaviors that people believe will lead to desired outcomes. The theory carries three lessons to OB practitioners:

- The employee believes that working hard will lead to task accomplishment
- He or she believes that task performance will fetch expected outcomes.
- He or she desires those outcomes.

Propounded by Victor Vroom, expectancy theory posits that employees are rational and impulsive. They think about what they have to do to be rewarded and how much the not rewards matter to them before they indulge in task performance. These terms are basic to Vroom's theory: expectancy, instrumentality and valence.

Expectancy refers to the belief that hard work leads to performance. In some situations employees may believe that they can unquestionably accomplish the task. In other

situations they expect that even their highest level of effort will not result in the desired performance level. Expectancy is simple probability and therefore ranges from 0 to +1. O indicates that task performance does not follow hardwork and+1 signifies that task accomplishment is assured.

Instrumentality Even if an employee works hard and performs at peak level, motivation may not occur if that performance is not suitably rewarded. In other words performance is not perceived as instrumental in bringing about rewards. Instrumentality also varies from 1, (meaning the reward is 100 per cent certain to follow) to 0 (indicating that that performance there is no chance fetches desired rewards). Vroom's position of instrumentality is to vary it from -1 to +1. But we have assumed instrumentality to vary from 0 to 1 for simplicity sake).

Valence: Valence refers to the preference for an outcome. In other hands, valence is the value the individual attaches to a work outcome. Valence forms a scale from -1 (highly undesirable outcome) to +1 (highly desirable outcome). Obviously, someone who does not care about the rewards offered by the organisation is not motivated to attain them. Only those rewards that have a high positive valence (+ 1) to their recipients will motivate behavior.

In summary according to expectancy theory:

Motivation = Expectancy X Instrumentality X Valence
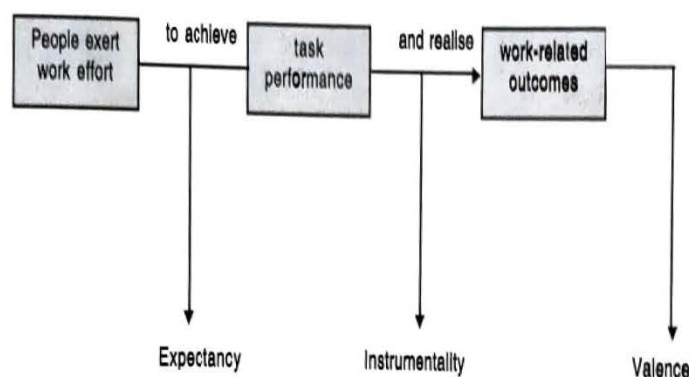
Expectancy Theory

Managers of successful firms strive to ensure that employees' levels of expectancy, instrumentality and valence are high so that they will be highly motivated as is illustrated by Motorola's efforts at managing globally (See Expectancy Theory illustration).

Evaluation of Theory: The expectancy model has been both appreciated as well as criticized. One of the appealing characteristics of expectancy model is that it provides clear guidelines for increasing employee motivation by altering the person's expectancies, instrumentalities and valences.

Several practical implications of expectancy theory are shown in Table 10.4. The contents of the table are self-explanatory.

The expectancy model as expected is a cognitive theory. Individuals are viewed as thinking, and reasoning beings who have beliefs and anticipations concerning future events in their lives. They do not simply act impulsively. It is a model which values human dignity.

This theory also assumes that individuals do not act on the basis of strong internal drives, unmet needs, or the application of satisfiers or dissatisfiers.

The expectancy theory helps managers see beyond what Maslow and Herzberg showed that motivation to work can only occur when work can satisfy unsatisfied needs. Vroom's theory implies that managers must make it possible for an employee to see that effort can result in appropriate need satisfying rewards. Ihis may require special efforts, for example, affirmative action to correct the damage caused by any discriminative action in the past. In any case, it is necessary to build and maintain a climate of expectancies that will support requisite levels of motivation to work.

Despite its general appeal, the expectancy model has some problems. Like any newer model, it needs to be tested to learn how will research evidence supports it. For example, the numerous relationships among the three variables are still open to question It is also important to discover what kind of behavior the model explains and to which situations it does not apply very well.

Variable	Objective	Applications
E P Expectancies requirements.	To increase the belief that employees are capable	• Select people with required skills and knowledge. • Provide required training and clarify job
	of performing the job successfully	• Provide sufficient time and resources. • Assign simpler or fewer tasks until employees can master them. • Provide examples of similar employees who have successfully performed the tasks. • Provide counseling and coaching to employees who lack self-confidence.
P O instrumentalities	To increase the belief that good performance will result in valued outcomes	• Measure job performance accurately. • Clearly explain the outcomes that will result from successful performance. • Describe how the employee's rewards were based on past performances.
Valences of outcomes	To increase the expected value of outcomes resulting from desired performance	• Distribute rewards that employees value. • Individualise rewards. • Minimise the presence of counter-valent outcomes.

Application of Expectancy Theory

Contrary to the assumption of the expectancy theory that individuals make decisions consciously, there are numerous instances where This is particularly decisions are made with no conscious thought. true for routine jobs. It is proved that people often make decisions and later try to rationalize them, rather than use the process indicated in the expectancy theory to make the decision in the first place.

Some critics argue that the theory has only limited use because it tends to be valid only in situations where the effort-performance and the performance-reward linkages are clearly perceived by the employees. Since many individuals in organisations are rewarded on the basis of seniority, education, job requirements and positions rather than on their actual performance, the theory tends to be idealistic.

Further, the model raised some fundamental questions. Is it so complex that managers will tend to use only its highlights and not explore its details and implications? Will other managers ignore it altogether? Many managers in operating situations do not have the time or resources to use a complex motivational system on the job. However, as they begin to learn about it, perhaps they can use parts of it.

Limitations apart, the expectancy model is useful inasmuch as it serves as a heuristic decision tool to guide managers in dealing with the complexity of motivation in organizations. Motivation principles such as encouraging employee performance (valence and expectancy)

and matching rewards to performance (instrumentality) can be drawn from the theory. These principles can be used to guide managers in designing organisational rewards, work systems, management by objective and goal setting.

Equity Theory: The equity theory is another process theory. The theory owes its origin to several prominent theorists like Festinger, Heider, Romans, Jacques, Patchen, Weick and Adams. However, it is Adam's formulation of the equity theory which is a highly developed and researched statement on the topics. Therefore, Adam's formulation is considered here.

Like any other theory, the equity theory is also alternatively known as the "social comparison" theory and "inequity" theory. True to its name, the equity theory is based on the assumption that individuals are motivated by their desire to be equitably treated in their work relationships. When employees work for an organisation, they basically exchange their services for pay and other benefits. The equity theory proposes that individuals attempt to reduce any inequity they may feel as a result of this exchange relationship. For example, if employees feel that they are either overpaid or underpaid, the equity theory posits that they will be motivated to restore equity. Four terms are important in the theory:

- Person: The individual for whom equity or inequity exists.
- Comparison other: Any group or individual used by a person as a referent regarding
- inputs and outcomes. Comparison other is also called relevant other. Inputs: Characteristics which individuals bring with them to the job: education, skills, experience and the like. These are subjectively perceived by a person. (See Example in input & output in an organisation)).
- Outcomes: Pay, promotion and fringe benefits received from a job. These are also subjectively perceived by a person. (See Example in input & output in an organisation).

The theory proposes that the motivation to act develops after the person compares inputs/outcomes with the identical ratio of the relevant other. Inequity is defined as the perception that person's job inputs/outcomes ratio is not equal to the inputs/outcomes ratio of the comparison other.

The basic equity proposal assumes that, upon feeling inequity, the person is motivated to reduce it. Further, the greater the felt inequity, the greater the motivation to reduce it. Thus, Inequity as motivational force will act as follows:

- Individual Perceives in equity => Individual Experiences tension=>Individual wants to reduce tension => Individual takes action

Inputs	Outcomes
Age	Challenging job assignment
Attendance	Fringe benefits
Interpersonal skills location)	Job perquisites (parking space or office
Communication skills	Job security
Job effort (long hours)	Monotony
Level of education	Promotion
Past experience	Recognition
Performance	Responsibility
Personal appearance	Salary
Seniority	Seniority benefits
Social status	Status symbols
Technical skills	Working conditions

Example of Inputs & Outputs in Organization

Porter & Lawler Model

Porter and Lawler's Model: Lyman Porter and Edward Lawler 1, two OB researchers, developed an expectancy model of motivation that stretches beyond Vroom's work. This model attempted to-
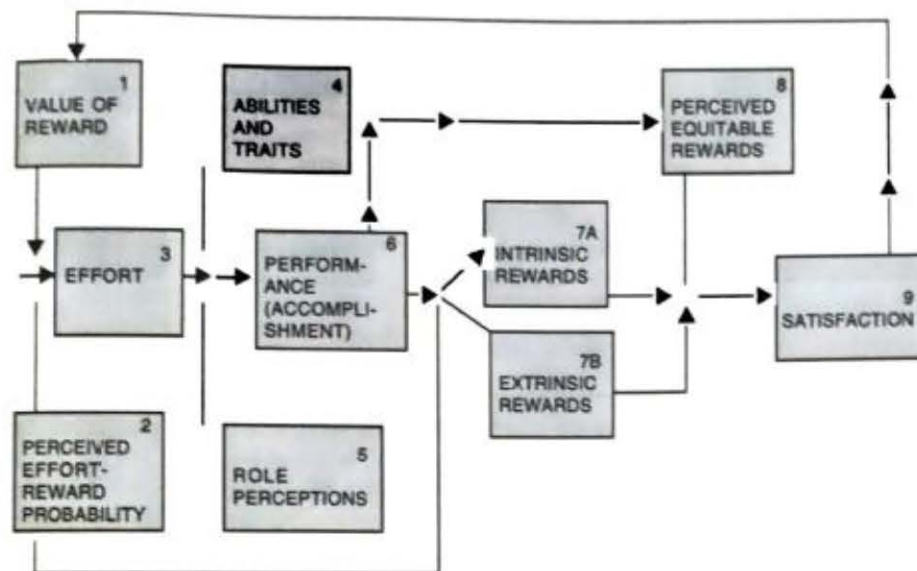
(a) Identify the source of people's valences and expectancies, and

(b) Link effort with performance and job satisfaction. Fig. 10.13 illustrates the model.

Predictors of Effort: Effort is perceived as a function of the perceived value of a reward (the reward's valence) and the perceived effort-reward probability (an expectancy). Employee should exhibit more effort when they believe they will receive valued rewards for task accomplishment.

Predictors of Performance: Performance is determined by more than effort. **(See Portler & Lawler Model)** indicates that the relationship between effort and performance is moderated by an employee's abilities and traits and role perceptions. That is, employees with higher abilities attain higher performance for a given level of effort than employees with lesser abilities. Similarly, effort results in higher performance when employees clearly understand and are comfortable with their roles. This occurs because effort is channeled into the most important tasks. For example, stage fright can render an otherwise well prepared actor or speaker ineffective

Predictors of Satisfaction: Performance begets intrinsic and extrinsic rewards to employees. Intrinsic rewards are intangible outcomes such as achievements. Extrinsic rewards are tangible outcomes such as pay and recognition. Now, job satisfaction is determined by employees perceptions of the equity of the rewards received. **(See Portler and Lawler Model)** further shows that job satisfaction affects employees' subsequent valence of rewards. Finally, employees' future effort » reward probabilities are influenced by past experience with performance and rewards.

Goal-setting Theory: A goal is basically a desirable objective, the achievement of which is uppermost in the mind of a person. Goals are used for two purposes in organizations:

(a) As motivational devices in the sense that employees work towards meeting these goals.

(b) As a control device when perfomance is monitored in relation to the goals set for individuals and departments.

We focus on the first purpose in this context.

The basic idea behind the goal-setting theory is that a goal serves as a motivator because it causes people to focus their inputs on their jobs and organisations. It is the job of managers to ensure that employees divert their resources towards achieving goals. Proponents of thee goal setting theory argue that it works by directing attention and action, mobilizing effort, increasing persistence, and encouraging the development of strategies to achieve the goals. Feedback regarding results is also an essential element.

Originally focusing on the second purpose (stated above), goal-setting is developing into a motivational theory as researchers attempt to better understand the cognitive factors that influences success. Essentially, there are three elements in the goal-setting theory (See Goal Setting Process)
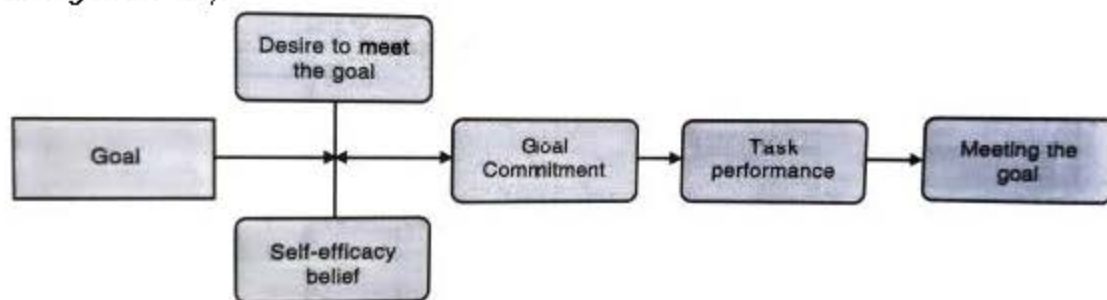
Goal setting Process

First is the desire in an individual to attain his or her goal. It is the nature of any human being to have goals and entertain the desire to reach them. When individuals succeed in meeting the goal, they feel competent and successful.

The second element is the acceptance by individuals of job and organizational goals as personal goals. This is the idea ot goal commitment- the extent to which people invest themselves in meeting a goal. Where desire to meet a goal is strong, commitment to the goal

Finally, goal-setting theory posits that beliefs about self-efficacy and goal commitment influence task performance. This makes sense because only when an individual has the necessary skills and abilities and a strong commitment will he or she perform the task which leads to goal attainment.
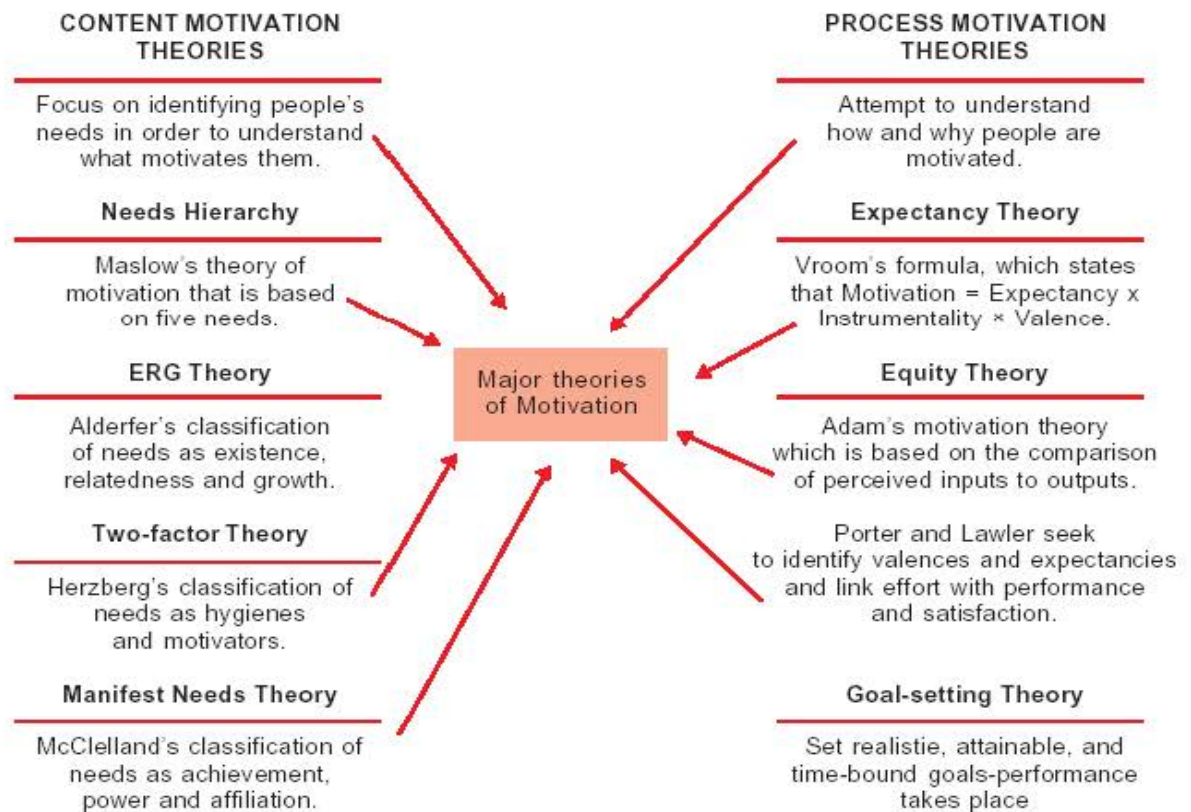
Review of Models

Till now, the theories of motivation have been explained against a national context. What is interesting to note is that motivation is impacted by culture of extant culture. We propose to discuss culture-specific practices to motivate employees across countries.

At the heart of motivation are felt needs which drive the individual to act. The individual may have several ways to satisfy his or her needs. He or she selects the best course and engages in a behaviour that begets rewards which help satisfy the felt needs. Thus, motivation takes place.

Which needs activate the individual to act, what course of action he or she engages in and what rewards the person expects, are culture-specific? Rich country citizens tend to be more motivated by higher order needs like achievement, 8rowth and realising one's potential than spend energy and time on fulfilling lower level needs, Such as food, clothing and shelter. It is the other way round in the developing countries where base level needs are the main motivators.

With regard to the goal directed behaviour at work, the A Japanese worker, for impact of national culture is striking. A Japanese worker for instance, is not expected to boast about his or her work performance. For an Indian, work is not just a means of living. National culture and social institutions also influence the levels of satisfaction workers expect to receive in an organisation, and how committed workers are to their organisation and its social goals.

CONTENT MOTIVATION THEORIES

Focus on identifying people's needs in order to understand what motivates them.

Needs Hierarchy

Maslow's theory of motivation that is based on five needs.

ERG Theory

Alderfer's classification of needs as existence, relatedness and growth.

Two-factor Theory

Herzberg's classification of needs as hygienes and motivators.

Manifest Needs Theory

McClelland's classification of needs as achievement, power and affiliation.

PROCESS MOTIVATION THEORIES

Attempt to understand how and why people are motivated.

Expectancy Theory

Vroom's formula, which states that Motivation = Expectancy x Instrumentality × Valence.

Equity Theory

Adam's motivation theory which is based on the comparison of perceived inputs to outputs.

Porter and Lawler seek to identify valences and expectancies and link effort with performance and satisfaction.

Goal-setting Theory

Set realistie, attainable, and time-bound goals-performance takes place

Major theories of Motivation

Essentials of Motivational Theories

TABLE 10.6: CULTURAL CONTRASTS IN MOTIVATION			
	American	Japanese	Arab
Management Styles	Leadership; Friendliness	Persuasion; Functional group activities	Coaching; Personal attention; Parenthood
Control	Independence; Decision making; Space, Time, Money	Group harmony	Of others/parenthood
Emotional Appeal	Opportunity Company success	Group participation; Admiration	Religion; Nationalistic;
Recognition	Individual contribution	Group identity; Belonging to group	Individual status; Class/Society; Promotion
Material Awards	Salary; Commission; Profit sharing	Annual bonus; Social services; Fringe benefits	Gift for self/family; Family affair; Salary increase
Threats	Loss of job	Out of group	Demotion

Management Styles: Management styles are effective motivators in each culture. American styles are characterized by professionalism and friendliness. Japanese managers motive employees parenting-type role that includes coaching and personal attention.

Control: All people are motivated by the power of being in control of their own lives or work space. Americans feel good about being independent and in control of their own destinies. Japanese motivation comes through group harmony and consensus, whereas the Arab manager strives for control of others through a parenting relationship.

Emotional Appeal: Americans respond to available opportunity. Sentiments may not evoke response. The Japanese are motivated by reputation and company success, which are allied with their cultural values of belonging and group achievement. Arab motivation comes from an appeal to the sense of self within the authority structure.

Recognition: Americans want to be directly recognised for their individual contributions and achievements. Japanese recognition comes through identification with the Recognition in Arab cultures generally results from the individual's status in the hierarchy. When a department reaches its goal, the recognition will first go to the head and then percolate down to the lowest level employees.

Material Reward: The American rewards that are culturally appropriate reflect the values of the macro culture. Americans measure individual success more in terms of material possessions. Monetary rewards motivate Americans. The Japanese are motivated by rewards shared among the group, such as bonuses, social services and fringe benefits available to group members. Arabs are motivated by gifts for the individual and family, which reflect admiration or appreciation for the individual's achievement.

Threats: Threats motivate people for the wrong reasons. Since the Americans' identities are often directly linked to their jobs, the threat of being fired is significant to them. For the Japanese, the greatest threat is the fear of exclusion from the group. To the Arab, a demotion is a threat to one's reputation and status.

Cultural Values: As stated earlier, motivational tools and processes reflect each unique culture. In the American culture, competition, risk-taking, material possessions, self-reliance and freedom are all motivational values. In contrast, group harmony, belonging and achievement are important and valued tools in motivation of Japanese workers, The Arab workers value reputation, authority, and social status, and respond to these values in their motivation process.

Key Terms

1. **Motivation**: Dictionary gives one word meaning of motivation as inducement or incentive. But in psychology (we are interested in psychology) motivation has content and process dimensions. The content dimension of motivation includes a set of forces that cause people to behave in a particular way. The process dimension of motivation refers to the use of forces- internal and external- that arouse enthusiasm and persistence to pursue a certain course of action. Thus, motivation refers to the process of using forces that cause people to behave in certain ways to accomplish tasks.
2. **Need Hierarchy:** Identifying, prioritizing and building hierarchy among needs. Such hierarchy indicates which need is more urgent.
3. **Physiological Needs:** The lower-order needs (in the hierarchy) that seek satisfaction of fundamental biological drives such as the need for air, food, water and shelter.

Physiological needs are the most basic needs because unless they are met people become ill and suffer.

4. **Safety Needs:** These are concerned with the need to operate in an environment that is physically and psychologically safe and secure one free from threats of harm.
5. **Social Needs**: These refer to the need to be affinitive - that is, to be liked and accepted by others. As social animals, we all want to be with others and to have them approve of us.
6. **Esteem Needs:** Needs to achieve success and make others recognise our accomplishments.
7. **Self-actualization Needs:** Becoming what people are capable of being. When people are self-actualized, they perform at their maximum level of creativity, making them extremely valuable assets to the organizations
8. **Job Intrinsic factors**: These include achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, advancement and growth. These are job content factors and are variously known as satisfiers and motivators When present, these factors motivate employees.260)
9. **Hygienes:** These include company policy, supervision, working conditions, interpersonal relations, status and security. When absent, these factors create unsettled minds in employees. When provided, employees are placed in favorable frames of minds. Job extrinsic factors and dissatisfies are other names of hygienes.
10. **Need for Achievement:** Employees are highly motivated when they are inspired by achievement needs. They derive satisfaction (motivation) from achieving goals.264
11. **Need for Power:** Employees exhibiting needs for power are motivated from the ability to control others. Goal achievement is less important than the means by which goals are achieved.
12. **Need for Affiliation**: Social and interpersonal activities motivate employees who are inspired by needs for affiliation.
13. **Expectancy:** Refers to the belief that a particular level of effort will be followed by a particular level of performance. An employee operating a faulty piece of equipment may have a low expectancy that his or her efforts will lead to high levels of performance. Figuratively

Individual effort **=>** Individual Performance
14. **Instrumentality:** An individual's belief regarding the likelihood of being rewarded in accordance with his or her own level of performance. Failure to reward performance demotivates an employee. A worker, for example, who is extremely productive, may be poorly motivated to perform if the pay system fails to recognize his or her success. Instrumentality can also be stated as follows

Individual Performance **=>** Recognizing and rewarding
15. **Valence:** Valence refers to the value a person places on the rewards he or she expects to recover from an organisation. Recollecting the previous example, an employee may be poorly motivated even though the pay system recognizes and rewards performance, if he or she has little value for money.
16. **Equity:** Equity refers to a sense of fairness particularly in relation to rewards an employee expects and receives from his or her organisation. The employee feels inequitably treated when his or her rewards are lower than those of someone else in the same position and for identical performance. Such inequitable rewards demotivate the employee.

17. **Comparison Other:** Any group or individual used by a person as a referent regarding inputs and outcomes. Relevant other is another name for comparison other.
18. **Goal Setting Theory:** The basic premise behind the goal setting theory is that a goal serves as a motivator because it causes people to focus their inputs on jobs and organizations.