

Beralson and Steiner: "A motive is an inner state that energises activates or moves (hence, motivation) and that directs or channels behaviour towards goals."

According to *Stephen P. Robbins*, motivation is "the willingness to exert high level of effort towards organisational goals, conditioned by the ability to satisfy some individual need."

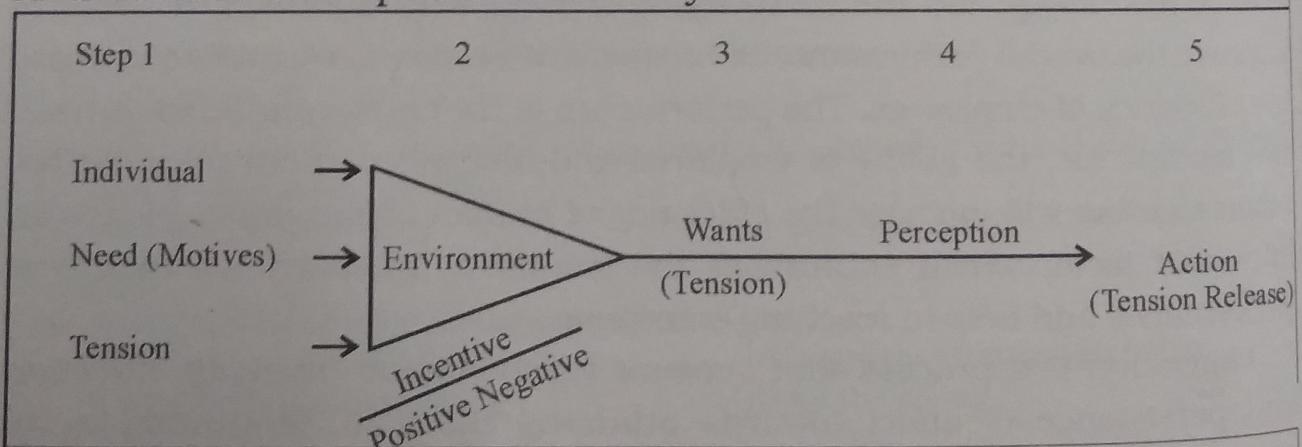
According to *Dubin*, "Motivation is the complex forces starting and keeping a person at work in an organisation."

The Encyclopaedia of Management observes, "Motivation refers to the degree of readiness of an organisation to pursue some designated goals and implies the determination of the nature and locus of the forces, including the degree of readiness."

We may define motivation as a willingness to expend energy to achieve a goal or reward. It is a force that activates dormant energies and sets in motion the action of the people. It is the function that kindles a burning passion for action among the human beings of an organisation.

The source of motivation is in the needs. The needs create tension which are modified by the person, culture or habits (environment) to create certain works in expectations. These wants are interpreted in terms of positive or negative incentive and the persons perception of the environment in order to produce a certain response or action. Motive implies action to satisfy a need. Motives are expressions of a person's needs.

They are his inner drives—personal and internal mainsprings of motivation. Under the need satisfaction approach, there are primary needs and secondary needs. As body and mind are not separable from each other, motivation at work operates in two ways.



Operation of Work Motivation

<i>Intrinsic Motivators</i>	<i>Extrinsic Motivation</i>
Self-generated factors which influence people to behave in a particular way or to move in a particular direction. More intangible.	What is done, to, or for employees in order to motivate them. More tangible.
Responsibility Freedom to act Scope to use and develop Skills and abilities Interesting and challenging work Opportunities for advancement and growth	<i>Example</i> Increased pay Holidays Working condition Rewards such as praise, promotion. Punishment such as disciplinary action withholding pay or criticism.

OBJECTIVE OF MOTIVATION

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

ROLE OF MOTIVATION IN PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT

Motivation is a skill which can and must be learnt by a manager and practised in an efficient manner. This is essential for any business to survive and succeed. Performance is considered to be a function of ability and motivation, thus :

$$\text{Job performance} = f(\text{ability}) (\text{motivation})$$

Ability, in turn, depends on education, experience and training and its improvement is a slow and long process. There are many options and an uninitiated manager may not even know where to start. The basic strategies used for motivation are :

1. Positive reinforcement
2. Setting high expectation
3. Implementing effective disciplinary activities
4. Treating people equally
5. Identifying and satisfying employee needs
6. Determining work related goals
7. Restructuring jobs
8. Rewards on job performance.

IMPORTANCE OF MOTIVATION

Management tries to utilise all the sources of production in the best possible manner. This can be achieved only when employees cooperate in this task. Efforts should be made to motivate employees for contributing their maximum. The efforts of management will bear fruit if the employees are not encouraged to work more. The motivated employee becomes an asset to an organisation. The effective and important outcome of motivation are :

High Performance : Motivated employees will put maximum efforts for achieving organisational goals, hence, a higher performance can be achieved. If the employees are given more incentive for increasing performance, then incentive will act like motivational factors which will stimulate the employees to perform better.

Low Employee Turnover and Absenteeism : Unsatisfied employees will try to switch over to other jobs when they feel demotivated and frustrated. Dissatisfaction among employees leads to absenteeism. Once the employees are motivated, their goals are roped in with organisational goals, and

financial and non-financial incentives are provided, then individual will leave the organisation at any cost.

Better Organizational Image : The organisation offers better monetary and non-monetary benefit to the employees who will have a better image among them. This image helps in recruiting the good talent to the organisation which ultimately leads to employment of the organisation.

COMPONENTS OF MOTIVATION

Deci and Ryan's model prescribes methods for increasing intrinsic motivation and decreasing the impact of extrinsic motivation. It also explains the mechanism for why people do what they do. This model, called 'Self-Determination Theory', and has three important components that must be present for an individual to be intrinsically motivated :

Competence : Competence is the need to perceive oneself as successful at achieving a task or an activity. To feel competent, a person must believe he has the knowledge and skill to perform the task, as well as environmental support and structure to do it. A sense of competence must be present for a person to be intrinsically or extrinsically motivated.

Competence can be achieved by training the employee on the skills and knowledge to accomplish a task and by supporting the employee with the necessary time, tool and resources.

Autonomy/Control : Autonomy is the perception that one has a choice in performing the task and is not influenced by any other source in making that determination. A sense of autonomy must be present for intrinsic motivation to occur. Control is the reverse of autonomy. In other words, if someone feels competent, but controlled, that will lead to extrinsic motivation. Control occurs when the employee senses that he or she does not have a choice in the matter or is influenced by some external source. This undermines the sense of passion or pleasure that arises from performing the task.

Often managers fear letting go of the control and supporting autonomy. The manager must realise that supporting autonomy does not imply a permissive excuse for 'anything goes'. Rather, the manager can provide choices for prioritising and accomplishing a task that results in the achievement of a pre-specified organisational goal. These types of choices are presented within the reality of the work environment and the boundaries necessary for team, division and company success.

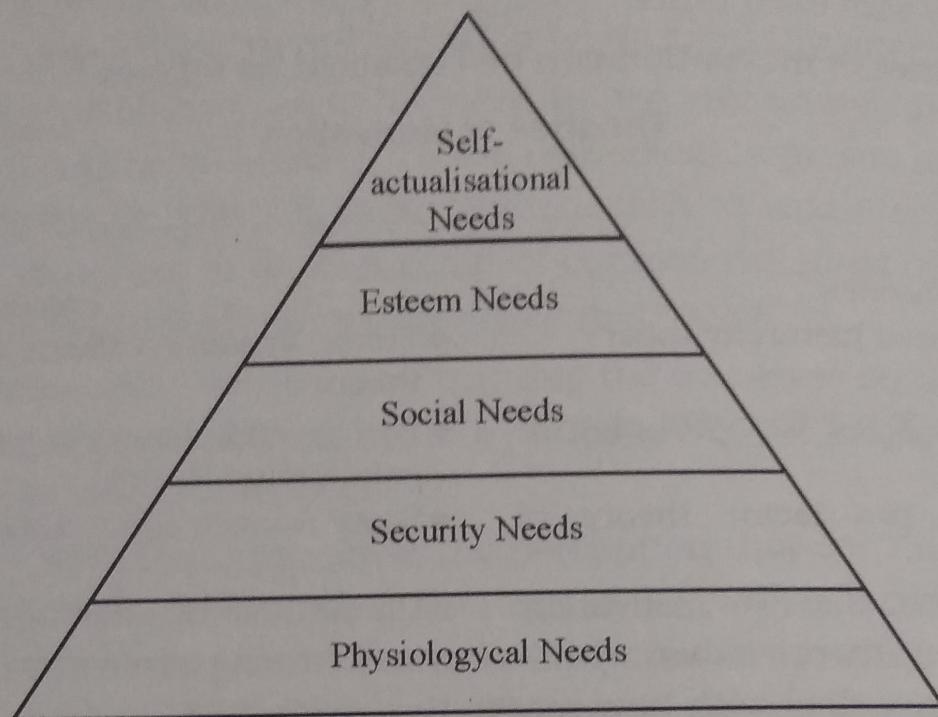
Relatedness : Relatedness is the feeling that one is emotionally tied to signify others in his life.

By involving employees in discussions on policy and decisions, managers increase the sense of belonging they have towards the team and the organisation.

thereby original effort.

MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS

Maslow need hierarchy is the first systematic conceptual model of human motivation. He explained that human needs influence human behaviour. He being a psychologist understood human behaviour through psycho-analysis. Maslow's need hierarchy concept consists of five human needs, arranged in an ascending order.



Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

1. Physiological needs (biological needs) like hunger, thirst, sex, sleep.
2. Security needs (safety needs) like protection against natural calamities, threat danger.
3. Social needs (love needs) like belongingness to group, family, friendship.
4. Esteem needs (ego needs) which can be divided into groups like self-confidence, independence, competence, status, importance, appreciation.
5. Self-actualisation needs like self-fulfilment, realisation of one's potential, creativity.

According to Maslow, human beings usually strive to satisfy their physiological needs first. Once, these are satisfied they no longer motivate human behaviour. People are then motivated by the next higher order needs. Human beings strive to satisfy their needs in the sequential order and in a step-by-step manner. The urgency of a satisfied need decreases and another unsatisfied need emerges to replace it. Satisfaction is a relative term, that is, the emergence of need is a gradual phenomenon, not sudden. Human needs are interdependent, interrelated and overlapping and human behaviour is multimotivated.

DOUGLAS MCGREGOR'S THEORY X AND THEORY Y

Prof. Douglas McGregor has presented two opposite sets of assumptions on employees and management views about the nature of man at work. These have been represented by Theory X and Theory Y. Theory X stands for the set of traditional beliefs held while Theory Y stands for the set of beliefs based upon researches in behavioural sciences which is concerned with modern social views on man.

Assumption of Theory X

- (i) Employees inherently dislike work and whenever possible will attempt to avoid it.
- (ii) Since employees dislike work, they have to be corrected, controlled or threatened with punishment to achieve goals.
- (iii) Employees will avoid responsibilities and seek formal direction whenever possible.
- (iv) Most workers place security above all other factors associated with work and will display little ambition.

Assumption of Theory Y

- (i) Employees can now work as natural as rest or play.
- (ii) People will exercise self-direction and self-content if they committed to objectives.
- (iii) The average person can leave to accept even self-responsibility.
- (iv) The ability to make innovative decision is widely dispersed throughout the population and is not necessarily the role province of this in management position.

According to McGregor Theory X in order to improve performance, the manager will put employees in discipline, incentive programme, welfare measures, close supervision, pension and other benefit programme. In the Indian context, Theory X is accepted widely because majority of individual employees are low paid and have only subsistence level of earning.

According to McGregor's Theory Y, workers will do far more than is expected of them if treated like human beings and permitted to experience

participation, motivation, communication and opportunities in formulating managerial and personnel policies. McClelland Motivation Theory and Performance. McClelland proposed that individual specific needs are acquired over time and are shaped by one's self-experience. These needs can be classed as achievement affiliation and power.

Achievement : People with high need for achievement seek to excel and thus, tend to avoid both low risk and high risk situation. Achievers avoid low risk situation as these are easily attained, while in high risk projects achievers see the outcome as one of chance rather than one's own effort. Achievers need regular feedback in order to monitor the progress of their achievement.

Affiliation : Employees with a high affiliation need harmonious relationship with other people and need to feel accepted by other people. They tend to conform to the norms of their work group. High affiliation individual prefer work that provides significant personal interaction.

Power : A person's need can be of two types—personal and institutional. Those who need personal power want to direct others and this need often is perceived as undesirable. Persons who need institutional power want to organise the efforts of others for further goal of the organisation. Managers with a high need for institutional power tend to be more effective than those with a high need for personal power.

HERZBERG'S MOTIVATION-HYGIENE MODEL

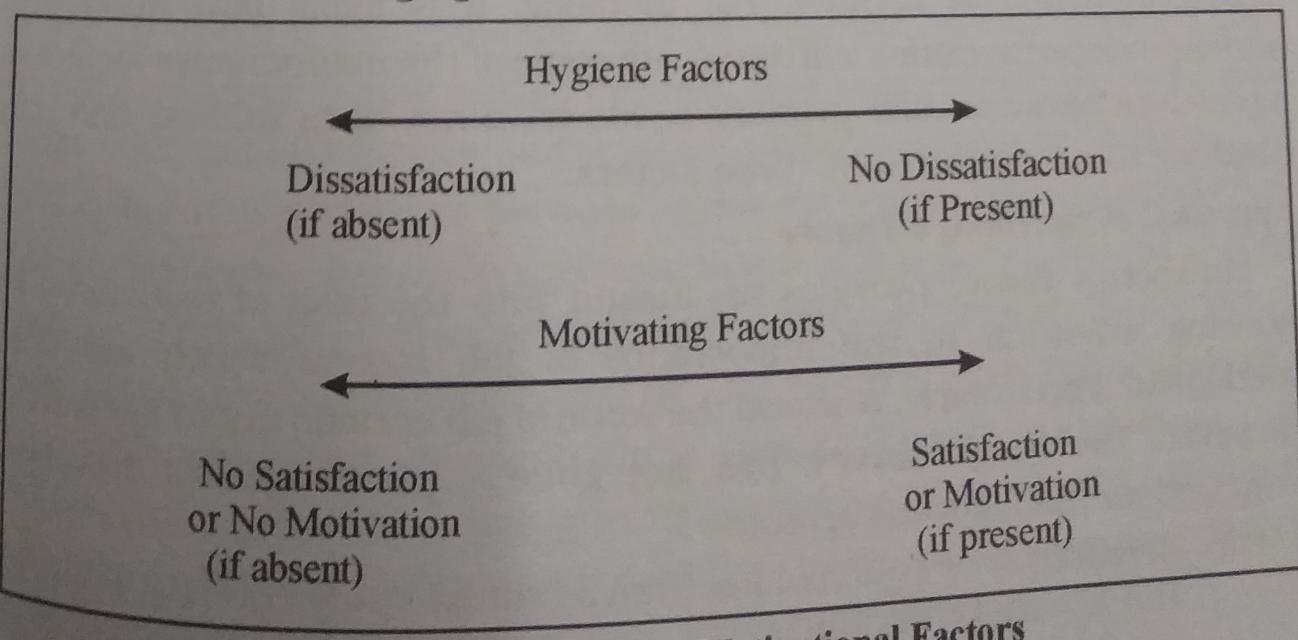
A significant development in motivation was distinction between motivational and maintenance factors in job situation. A research was conducted by Herzberg and his associates based on the interview of 200 engineers and accountants who worked for eleven different firms in Pittsburgh area. These men were asked to recall specific incidents in their experience which made them feel either particularly good or particularly bad about jobs. The findings of the research were that good feelings in the group under test were keyed to the specific tasks that the men performed rather than to background factors such as money, security or working conditions and when they felt bad, it was because of some disturbance in these background factors which had caused them to believe that they were being treated unfairly. This led to draw a distinction between what are called as 'motivators' and 'hygiene factors'. To this group of engineers and accountants, the real motivators were opportunities to become more expert and to handle more demanding assignments. Hygienic factors served to prevent loss of money and efficiency. Thus, hygienic factors provide no motivation to the employees, but the absence of these factors serves as dissatisfier.

Some job conditions operate primarily to dissatisfaction employees when they are absent, but their presence does not motivate employees in a strong way. Many of these factors are traditionally perceived by management as motivators, but the factors are really more potent as dissatisfiers. They are called maintenance factors in job because they are necessary to maintain a reasonable level of satisfaction among the employees. Their absence proves to be a strong dissatisfier. They are also known as dissatisfiers or hygienic factors because they support employees' mental health. Another set of job conditions operates primarily to build strong motivation and high job satisfaction among the employees. These conditions are 'motivational factors'. Herzberg's maintenance and motivational factors have been shown in the Table :

Herzberg's Maintenance and Motivational Factors

<i>Maintenance or Hygienic Factors</i>	<i>Motivational Factors</i>
1. Company Policy and Administration	1. Achievement
2. Technical Supervision	2. Recognition
3. Inter-personal relations with Supervisor	3. Advancement
4. Inter-personal relations with Peers	4. Work itself
5. Inter-personal relations with Subordinates	5. Possibility of growth
6. Salary	6. Responsibility
7. Job Security	
8. Personal life	
9. Working conditions	
10. Status	

Hygienic factors include such things as wages, fringe benefits, physical conditions and overall company policy and administration. The presence of these factors at a satisfactory level prevents job dissatisfaction, but they do not provide motivation to the employees. So they are not considered as motivational factors. Motivational factors, on the other hand, are essential for increasing the productivity of the employees. They are also known as satisfiers and include such factors as recognition, feeling of accomplishment and achievement, opportunity of advancement and potential for personal growth, responsibility and sense of job and individual importance, new experience and challenging work etc.



ERG THEORY

The ERG theory was proposed by Clayton Alderfer in the year 1969. He proposed this theory in a Psychological Review article entitled "An Empirical Test of a New Theory of Human Need". In a reaction to Maslow's famous hierarchy of needs, Alderfer distinguishes three categories of human needs that influence worker's behaviour. These three categories are as follows:

- Existence
- Relatedness
- Growth

Existence Needs : Existence needs include physiological and safety needs (such as hunger, thirst and sex).

Relatedness Needs : Relatedness needs consist of social and esteem needs (such as involvement with family, friends, co-workers and employers).

Growth Needs : Growth needs consist of internal esteem and self-actualisation (such as desires to be creative, productive and to complete meaningful tasks).

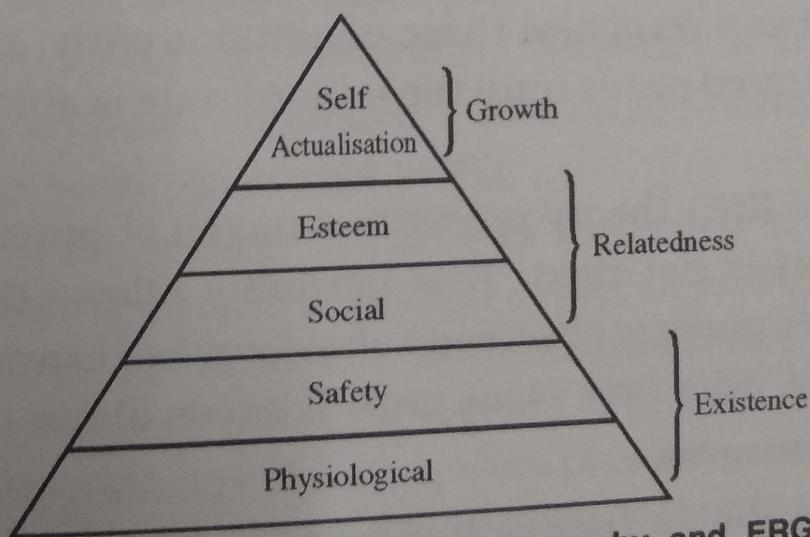
The ERG theory is based on the work of Maslow, so it has much in common with it but also differs in some important aspects. The similarities to and differences from Maslow's hierarchy theory are discussed below.

Similarities to Maslow's Hierarchy Theory

The ERG needs can be mapped to those of Maslow's theory as follows :

- *Existence* : Physiological and safety needs.
- *Relatedness* : Social and external esteem needs.
- *Growth* : Self-actualisation and internal esteem needs.

This can also be shown with the help of following figure :



Relationship Between need hierarchy and ERG

Like Maslow's model, the ERG theory is hierarchical—existence needs have priority over relatedness needs and relatedness needs have priority over growth.

Difference from Maslow's Hierarchy Theory

In ERG theory there is reduction in number of levels to three as compared to five. A part from this there are three

the subordinate is able to pursue growth goals.

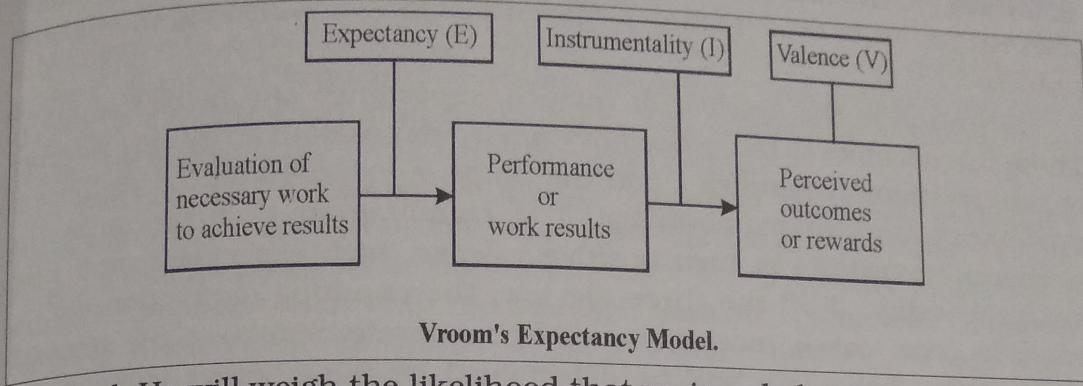
VROOM'S VALENCE-EXPECTANCY THEORY

Attacking Herzberg's two factor theory, Vroom offered an expectancy approach to the understanding of motivation. According to him, a person's motivation towards an action at any time would be determined by an individual's perception that a certain type of action would lead to a specific outcome and his personal preference for his outcome.

There are three variables of Vroom's model given in the form of an equation. Since the model is multiplicative, all the three variables must have high positive values to imply motivated performance choices. If any of the variables approaches zero, the probability of motivated performance approaches zero.

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

Valence is the strength of an individual's preference for a reward, expectancy is the probability that a particular action will lead to a desired reward and instrumentality denotes an individual's estimate that performance would result in achieving the reward. Thus, if an individual has a particular goal, some behaviour must be produced in order to achieve



that goal. He will weigh the likelihood that various behaviours will achieve the desired goals and if certain behaviour is expected to be more successful than others, that particular behaviour would be preferred by the individual. Vroom's model has been illustrated in Fig. :

Valence (Reward Preference). It refers to the strength of an individual's preference for receiving a reward. It is an expression of the value he places on a goal (outcome or reward). The value attached to a goal or reward is subjective as it varies from person to person. For instance, if a young and dynamic employee wants a promotion, then promotion has high valence or strength for that employee. Similarly, a retiring employee may have high valence for reemployment.

People have different valences for various outcomes. The relative valence they attach to various outcomes is influenced by conditions such as age, education and type of work. The valence of a person for a goal may be positive or negative depending upon his positive or negative preference for this goal. If a person is indifferent to an outcome, his valence is zero. Thus, the total range of valence is from -1 to +1.

✓ **Expectancy (Effort-Performance Probability).** It refers to the extent to which the person perceives or believes that his efforts would lead to the completion of a task. Expectancy is stated as a probability, i.e., an individual's estimate of the probability of an outcome from an action. Since it is an association between effort and performance, its value may range from 0 to 1. If the individual feels that chances of achieving an outcome are zero, he will not even try. On the other hand, if expectancy is higher, the individual would put higher efforts to achieve the desired outcome.

✓ **Instrumentality (Performance-Reward Probability).** It refers to the probability to which the performance (first level outcome) would lead to the desired reward (second level outcome). For instance, an individual wants a promotion and feels that superior performance is very important in

REINFORCEMENT THEORY

Reinforcement theory is the process of shaping behaviour to control the consequences of the behaviour. In reinforcement theory a combination of rewards and/or punishments is used to reinforce desired behaviour or extinguish unwanted behaviour. Any behaviour that elicits a consequence is called *operant behaviour*, because the individual operates on his or her environment. Reinforcement theory concentrates on the relationship between the operant behaviour and the associated consequences, and sometimes referred to as operant conditioning.

Background and Development of Reinforcement Theory

Behavioural theories of learning and motivation focus on the effect the consequences of past behaviour have on future behaviour. This is in contrast to classical conditioning, which focuses on responses that are triggered by stimuli in an almost automatic fashion. Reinforcement theory suggests that individuals can choose from several responses to a given stimulus, and that individuals will generally select the response that has been associated with positive outcomes in the past. E. L. Thorndike articulated this idea in 1911, in what has come to be known as the law of effect. The law of effect basically states that, all other things being equal, responses to stimuli that are followed by satisfaction will be strengthened, but responses that are followed by discomfort will be weakened.

B. F. Skinner was a key contributor to the development of modern ideas about reinforcement theory. Skinner argued that the internal needs and drives of individuals can be ignored because people learn to exhibit certain behaviours based on what happens to them as a result of their behaviour. This school of thought has been termed the behaviourist, or radical behaviourist, school.

Reinforcement, Punishment and Extinction

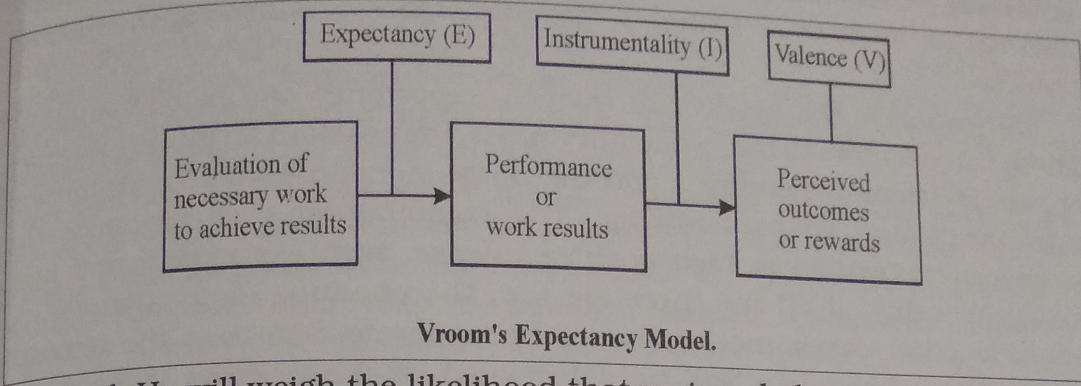
The most important principle of reinforcement theory is, of course, reinforcement. Generally speaking, there are two types of reinforcement:

1. Positive reinforcement,
2. Negative reinforcement.

1. *Positive reinforcement* : Positive reinforcement results when the occurrence of a valued behavioural consequence has the effect of strengthening the probability of the behaviour being repeated. The specific behavioural consequence is called a reinforcer. An example of positive reinforcement might be a salesperson that exerts extra effort to meet a sales quota (behaviour) and is then rewarded with a bonus (positive reinforcer). The administration of the positive reinforcer should make it more likely that the salesperson will continue to exert the necessary effort in the future.

2. *Negative reinforcement* : Negative reinforcement results when an undesirable behavioural consequence is withheld, with the effect of strengthening the probability of the behaviour being repeated. Negative reinforcement is often confused with punishment, but they are not the same. Punishment attempts to decrease the probability of specific behaviours; negative reinforcement attempts to increase desired behaviour. Thus, both positive and negative reinforcement have the effect of increasing

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Vroom's Expectancy Model.

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