

## MOTIVATION

- All organizations are concerned with what should be done to achieve sustained high levels of performance through people. This means giving close attention to how individuals can best be motivated through such means as incentives, rewards, leadership and, importantly, the work they do and the organization context within which they carry out that work.
- The aim is to develop motivation processes and a work environment that will help to ensure that individuals deliver results in accordance with the expectations of management.
- Motivation theory examines the process of motivation. It explains why people at work behave in the way they do in terms of their efforts and the directions they are taking.
- It describes what organizations can do to encourage people to apply their efforts and abilities in ways that will further the achievement of the organization's goals as well as satisfying their own needs. It is also concerned with job satisfaction – the factors that create it and its impact on performance.

## THE PROCESS OF MOTIVATION

**What is motivation?** A motive is a reason for doing something. Motivation is concerned with the factors that influence people to behave in certain ways.

**The three components of motivation as listed by Arnold *et al* (1991) are:**

- **direction** – what a person is trying to do;
- **effort** – how hard a person is trying;
- **persistence** – how long a person keeps on trying.

## TYPES OF MOTIVATION

Motivation at work can take place in two ways. **First**, people can motivate themselves by seeking, finding and carrying out work (or being given work) that satisfies their needs or at least leads them to expect that their goals will be achieved. **Secondly**, people can be motivated by management through such methods as pay, promotion, praise, etc.

**There are two types of motivation as originally identified by Herzberg *et al* (1957):**

- **Intrinsic motivation** – the self-generated factors that influence people to behave in a particular way or to move in a particular direction. These factors include responsibility (feeling that the work is important and having control over one's own resources), autonomy (freedom to act), scope to use and develop skills and abilities, interesting and challenging work and opportunities for advancement.
- **Extrinsic motivation** – what is done to or for people to motivate them. This includes rewards, such as increased pay, praise, or promotion, and punishments, such as disciplinary action, withholding pay, or criticism.

## Motivation theories

- Approaches to motivation are underpinned by motivation theory. The most influential theories are classified as follows:

- **Instrumentality theory**, which states that rewards or punishments (carrots or sticks) serve as the means of ensuring that people behave or act in desired ways.
- **Content theory**, which focuses on the content of motivation. It states that motivation is essentially about taking action to satisfy needs, and identifies the main needs that influence behaviour. Needs theory was originated by Maslow (1954), and in their two-factor model, Herzberg *et al* (1957) listed needs which they termed 'satisfiers'.
- **Process theory**, which focuses on the psychological processes which affect motivation, by reference to expectations (Vroom, 1964), goals (Latham and Locke, 1979) and perceptions of equity (Adams, 1965).

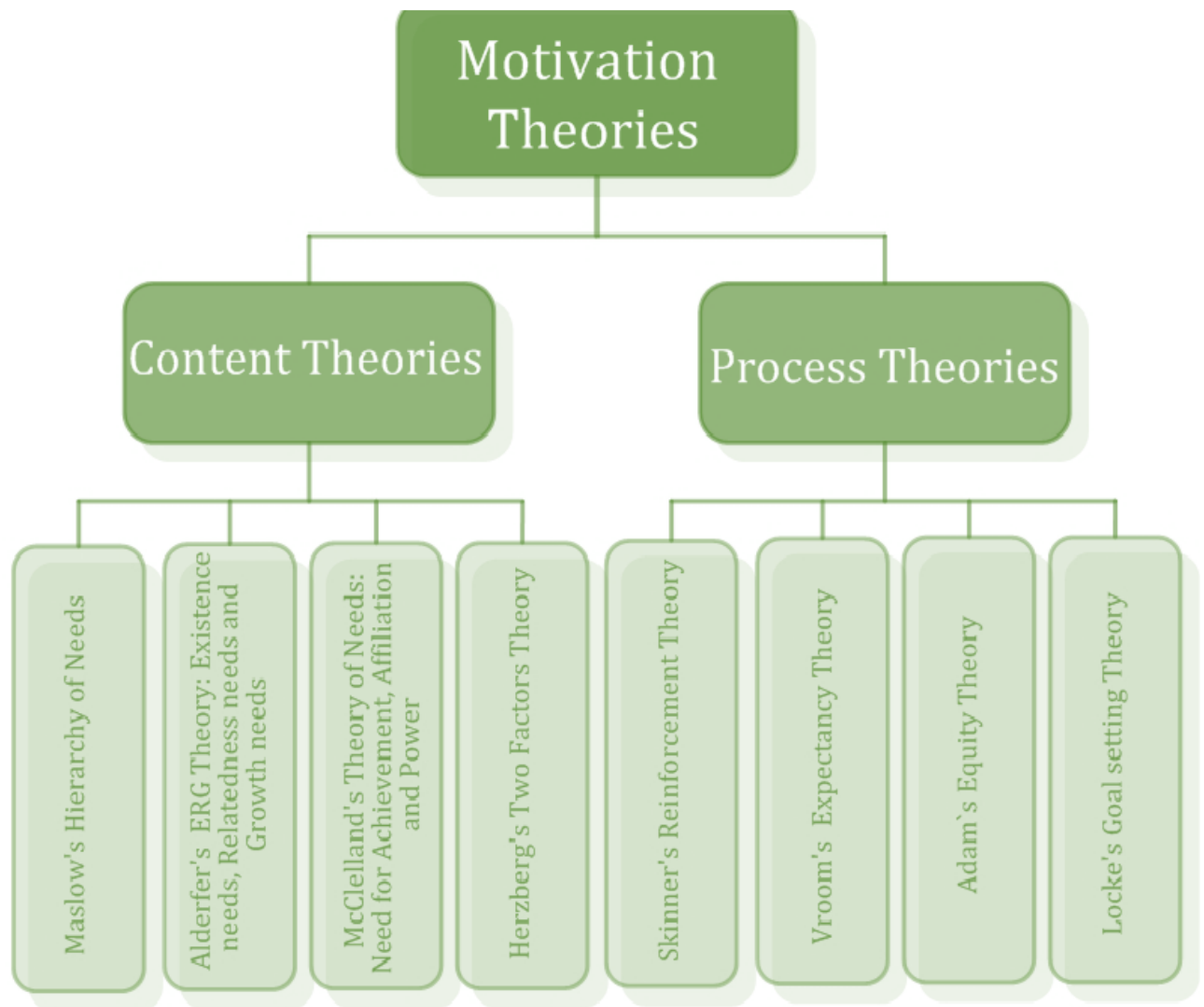
- **Content theories v/s Process theories**

**Content theories focus on WHAT**, while **process theories focus on HOW** human behaviour is motivated. Content theories are the earliest theories of motivation. Within the work environment they have had the greatest impact on management practice and policy, whilst within academic circles they are the least accepted. Content theories are also called needs theories: they try to identify what our needs are and relate motivation to the fulfilling of these needs. The content theories cannot entirely explain what motivate or demotivate us. **Process theories** are concerned with “*how*” motivation occurs, and what kind of process can influence our motivation.

The **main content theories** are: Maslow's needs hierarchy, Alderfer's ERG theory, McClelland's achievement motivation and Herzberg's two-factor theory.

The **main process theories** are: Skinner's reinforcement theory, Victor Vroom's expectancy theory, Adam's equity theory and Locke's goal setting theory (Figure 1).

No single motivation theory explains all aspects of people's motives or lack of motives. Each theoretical explanation can serve as the basis for the development of techniques for motivating.



## I. INSTRUMENTALITY THEORY

- 'Instrumentality' is the belief that if we do one thing it will lead to another.
- In its crudest form, instrumentality theory states that people only work for money.
- The theory emerged in the second half of the nineteenth century with its emphasis on the need to rationalize work and on economic outcomes. It assumes that a person will be motivated to work if rewards and penalties are tied directly to his or her performance, thus the awards are contingent upon effective performance.
- Instrumentality theory has its roots in Taylorism, i.e. the scientific management methods of F W Taylor (1911), who wrote: 'It is impossible, through any long period of time, to get workmen to work much harder than the average men around them unless they are assured a large and permanent increase in their pay.'
- Motivation using this approach has been, and still is, widely adopted and can be successful in some circumstances. But it is based exclusively on a system of external controls and fails to recognize a number of other human needs. It also fails to appreciate the fact that the formal control system can be seriously affected by the informal relationship existing between workers.

## II. CONTENT (NEEDS) THEORY

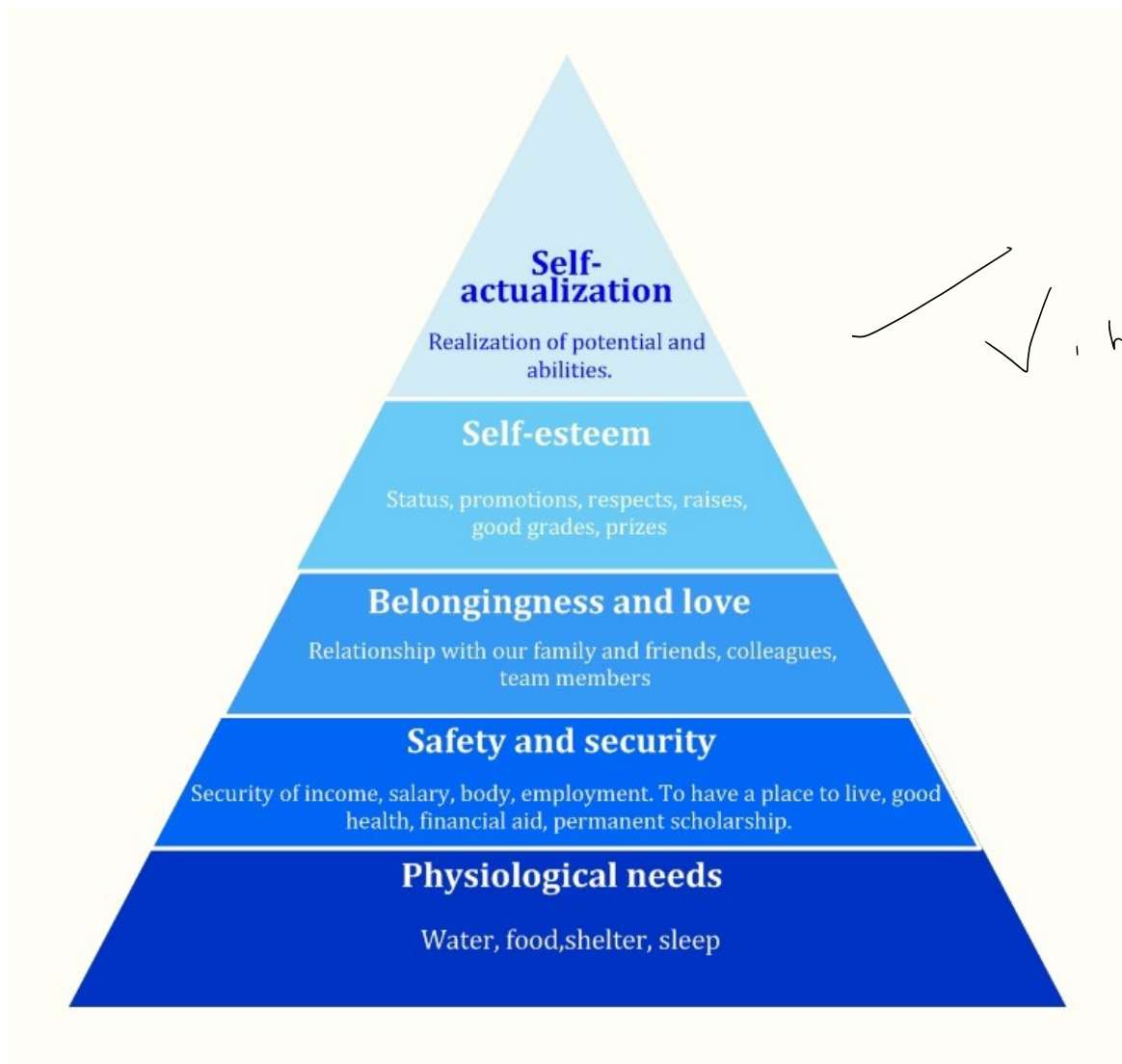
- The basis of this theory is the belief that the content of motivation consists of needs.
- An unsatisfied need creates tension and a state of disequilibrium. To restore the balance, a goal that will satisfy the need is identified, and a behaviour pathway that will lead to the achievement of the goal is selected. All behaviour is therefore motivated by unsatisfied needs.
- Not all needs are equally important for a person at any one time – some may provide a much more powerful drive towards a goal than others, depending on the individual's background and present situation. Complexity is further increased because there is no simple relationship between needs and goals. The same need can be satisfied by a number of different goals and the stronger the need and the longer its duration, the broader the range of possible goals. At the same time, one goal may satisfy a number of needs – a new car provides transport as well as an opportunity to impress the neighbours.
- Needs theory was developed originally by Maslow (1954), who postulated the concept of a hierarchy of needs which he believed were fundamental to the personality.
- Herzberg *et al*'s (1957) two-factor model cannot strictly be classified as needs theory but he did identify a number of fundamental needs.

### 1. Maslow – hierarchy of needs

This is the earliest and most widely known theory of motivation, developed by Abraham Maslow (1943) in the 1940s and 1950s.

~~This theory condenses needs into five basic categories. Maslow ordered these needs in his hierarchy, beginning with the basic psychological needs and continuing through safety, belonging and love, esteem and self-actualization (Figure 2). In his theory, the lowest unsatisfied need becomes the dominant, or the most powerful and significant need. The most dominant need activates an individual to act to fulfil it. Satisfied needs do not motivate. Individual pursues to seek a higher need when lower needs are fulfilled.~~

Maslow's hierarchy of needs is often shown in the shape of a pyramid: basic needs at the bottom and the most complex need (need for self-actualization) at the top. Maslow himself has never drawn a pyramid to describe these levels of our needs; but the pyramid has become the most known way to represent his hierarchy.



### 1. Physiological needs (e.g. food, water, shelter, sleep)

It includes the most basic needs for humans to survive, such as air, water and food. Maslow emphasized, our body and mind cannot function well if these requirements are not fulfilled.

These physiological needs are the most dominant of all needs. So if someone is missing everything in his/her life, probably the major motivation would be to fulfil his/her physiological needs rather than any others. A person who is lacking food, safety, love and esteem, would most probably hunger for food (and also for money, salary to buy food) than for anything else.

If all the needs are unsatisfied, and the organism is then overruled by the physiological needs, all other needs may turn into the background. All capacities are put into the attendance of satisfying hunger. Any other things are forgotten or got secondary importance.

### 2. Safety and security (secure source of income, a place to live, health and well-being)

If the physiological needs are relatively well contented, new needs will appear, the so called safety needs. Safety needs refer to a person's desire for security or protection. Basically everything looks less important than safety and protection (the physiological needs even sometimes). The healthy and fortunate adults in our culture are largely satisfied in their safety needs. The peaceful, sure, safety and unwavering society makes us feel in safety enough from

criminal assaults, murder, unbelievable natural catastrophes, and so on. In that case people no longer have any safety needs as first-line motivators.

Meeting with safety needs demonstrated as a preference for insurance policies, saving accounts or job security, etc., we think about the lack of economic safety. Children have a greater need to feel safe. That is the reason why this level is more important for children.

Safety and security needs include: Personal security; Financial security; Health and well-being; Safety mesh against accidents, illnesses and their adverse impacts.

To tell the truth, in real dangers and traumas – like war, murder, natural catastrophes, criminal assault, etc. -, the needs for safety become an active, first-line and dominant mobilizer of human beings.

### **3. Belongingness and love (integration into social groups, feel part of a community or a group; affectionate relationships)**

If both the physiological and the safety needs are fulfilled, the affection, love and belongingness needs come into prominence. Maslow claimed people need to belong and accepted among their social groups. Group size does not mean anything: social groups can be large or small. People need to love and be loved – both sexually and non-sexually – by others. Depending on the power and pressure of the peer group, this need for belonging may overbear the physiological and security needs.

Love needs involve giving and receiving affections (love is not synonymous with sex – sex is a physiological need). When they are unsatisfied, a person will immediately eliminate the lack of friends, peers and partner. Many people suffer from social nervousness, loneliness, social isolation and also clinical depression because of the lack of this love or belongingness factor.

### **4. Esteem (respect for a person as a useful, honourable human being)**

In our society most people long for a stable and high valuation of themselves, for the esteem of others and for self-respect or self-esteem.

Esteem means being valued, respected and appreciated by others. Humans need to feel to be valued, such as being useful and necessary in the world. People with low self-esteem often need respect from others. Maslow divided two types of esteem needs: a 'lower' version and a 'higher' version. The 'lower' version of esteem is the need for respect from others: for example attention, prestige, status and loving their opinion. The 'higher' version is the need for self-respect: for example, the person may need independence, and freedom or self-confidence.

The most stable and therefore the healthiest self-esteem is based on respect from others. External fame or celebrity and unwarranted adulation won't cause self-esteem, although you feel better for a while.

### **5. Self-actualization (individual's desire to grow and develop to his or her fullest potential)**

'What humans can be, they must be.' (Maslow, 1954)

Self-actualization reflects an individual's desire to grow and develop to his/her fullest potential. People like opportunities, choosing his/her own versions, challenging positions or creative tasks. Maslow described this level as the '*need to accomplish everything that one can, to become the most that one can be*'. Maslow believed that people must overcome their other needs – described above -, not only achieve them. At this level, individual differences are the largest.



- As each level is adequately satisfied, we are then motivated to satisfy the next level in the hierarchy, always new and higher needs are coming. This is what we mean, when the basic human needs are drawn like a pyramid, a hierarchy. Life experiences, including divorce and loss of job, may cause an individual to fluctuate between levels of the hierarchy.
- These five different levels were further sub-categorised into two main groups: *deficiency and growth needs*.

**Deficiency needs** – The very basic needs for survival and security.

These needs include:

- *physiological needs*
- *safety and security needs*
- *social needs – belongingness and love*
- *esteem needs*

It may not cause a physical indication if these ‘deficiency needs’ are not fulfilled, but the individual will feel anxious and tense. So, the most basic level of needs must be fulfilled before a person wants to focus on the secondary or higher level needs.

**Growth needs** – Personal growth and fulfilment of personal potential.

These needs include:

- *self-actualisation needs*

This hierarchy is not as rigid as we may have implied. For example, there are some humans for whom self-esteem or self-actualization seems to be more important than love or belonging. The popularity of this theory of motivation rooted in its simplicity and logic.

## 2. Alderfer – ERG theory: Existence needs, relatedness needs and growth needs

Alderfer (Furnham, 2008) distinguished three steps or classes of needs: *existence, relatedness and growth*. Maslow’s physiological and safety needs belong together to existence needs. Relatedness can be harmonised to belongingness and esteem of others. Growth is the same as Maslow’s self-esteem plus self-actualization. Both Maslow and Alderfer tried to describe how these needs, these stages of needs become more or less important to individuals.

- **Existence needs:** These include needs for basic material necessities. In short, it includes an individual’s physiological and physical safety needs.

- **Relatedness needs:** Individuals need significant relationships (be with family, peers or superiors), love and belongingness, they strive toward reaching public fame and recognition. This class of needs contain Maslow’s social needs and external component of esteem needs.

- **Growth needs:** Need for self-development, personal growth and advancement form together this class of need. This class of needs contain Maslow's self-actualization needs and intrinsic component of esteem needs.

Alderfer agreed with Maslow that unsatisfied needs motivate individuals. Alderfer also agreed that individuals generally move up the hierarchy in satisfying their needs; that is, they satisfy lower-order before higher-order needs. As lower-order needs are satisfied, they become less important, but Alderfer also said: as higher-order needs are satisfied they become more important. And it is also said that under some circumstances individuals might return to a lower need. Alderfer thought that individuals multiply the efforts invested in a lower category need when higher categorized needs are not consequent.

For example, there is a student, who has excellent grades, friends, and high standard of living, maybe also work at the university. What happens if this individual finds that he or she is frustrated in attempts to get more autonomy and responsibility at the university, maybe also more scholarship that generally encourage individuals' growth? Frustration in satisfying a higher (growth) need has resulted in a regression to a lower level of (relatedness) needs (*'I need just my friends, some good wine, I do not want to go to the university anymore.'*).

This event is known and called as the frustration-regression process. This is a more realistic approach as it recognises that, because when a need is met, it does not mean it will always remain met.

ERG theory of motivation is very flexible: it explains needs as a range rather than as a hierarchy.

**Implication of this theory:** Managers must understand that an employee has various needs that must be satisfied at the same time. ERG theory says, if the manager concentrates only on one need at a time, he or she won't be able to motivate the employee effectively and efficiently. Prioritization and sequence of these three categories, classes can be different for each individual.

### 3. McClelland – Need for achievement, affiliation and power

In the early 1960s McClelland – built on Maslow's work – described three human motivators. McClelland (Arnold et al., 2005) claimed that humans acquire, learn their motivators over time that is the reason why this theory is sometimes called the '**Learned Needs Theory**'. He affirms that we all have three motivating drivers, and it does not depend on our gender or age. One of these drives or needs will be dominant in our behaviour.

McClelland's theory differs from Maslow's and Alderfer's, which focus on satisfying existing needs rather than creating or developing needs. This dominant motivator depends on our culture and life experiences, of course (but the three motivators are permanent).

**The three motivators are:**

- **achievement:** a need to accomplish and demonstrate competence or mastery
- **affiliation:** a need for love, belonging and relatedness
- **power:** a need for control over one's own work or the work of others



These learned needs could lead to diversity and variety between employees. More precisely, prioritization and importance of these motivational needs characterises a person's behaviour. As we wrote, although each person has all of these needs to some extent, only one of them tends to motivate an individual at any given time.

**Achievement motivation** – a need to accomplish and demonstrate competence or mastery. It pertains to a person's need for significant success, mastering of skills, control or high standards. It is associated with a range of actions. Individuals seek achievement, attainment of challenging (and also realistic) goals, and advancement in the school or job.

This need is influenced by internal drivers for action (intrinsic motivation), and the pressure used by the prospects of others (extrinsic motivation). Low need for achievement could mean that individuals want to minimise risk of failure, and for this reason people may choose very easy or too difficult tasks, when they cannot avoid failure. In contrast, high need for achievement means that humans try to choose optimal, sufficiently difficult tasks, because they want to get the chance to reach their goals, but they have to work for it, they need to develop themselves.

Individuals with high need for achievement like to receive regular feedback on their progress and achievements; and often like to work alone; seek challenges and like high degree of independence.

Sources of high need for achievement can be: praise for success, goal setting skills, one's own competence and effort to achieve something, and it does not depend only on luck; of course positive feelings and also independence in childhood. McClelland said that training, teaching can increase an individual's need for achievement. For this reason, some have argued that need for achievement is not a need but a value.

**Affiliation motivation** – a need for love, belonging and relatedness

These people have a strong need for friendships and want to belong within a social group, need to be liked and held in popular regard. They are team players, and they may be less effective in leadership positions.

High-need-for-affiliation persons have support from those with whom they have regular contact and mostly are involved in warm interpersonal relationships. After or during stressful situation individuals need much more affiliation. In these situations people come together and find security in one another. There are times when individuals want to be with others and at other times to be alone – affiliation motivation can become increased or decreased. Individuals do not like high risk or uncertainty.

**Authority/power motivation** – a need to control over one's own work or the work of others. These persons are authority motivated. There is a strong need to lead and to succeed in their ideas. It is also needed to increase personal status and prestige. This person would like to control and influence others. McClelland studied male managers with high need for power and high need for affiliation and found that managers with a high need for power tended to run more productive departments in a sales organization than did managers with a high need for affiliation.

It is important to speak about gender differences in need for power. It is said that men with high need for power mostly have higher aggression, drink more, act in sexually exploitative manner, and participate in competitive sports, and also political unrests. At the same time women with higher need for power show more socially acceptable and responsible manner, are more concerned and caring. These types of people prefer to work in big, multinational organisations, businesses and other influential professions.

McClelland argues that strong need for achievement people can become the best leaders – as we wrote it above. But at the same time there can be a tendency to request too much of their employees, because they think that these people are also highly achievement-focused and results-driven, as they are. Think about your teachers and professors! I am sure they all want the best for you, they would like to develop you, but I do not think you feel the same every time. McClelland said that most people have and show a combination of these characteristics.

#### 4. Herzberg – Two factor theory

It is also called **motivation-hygiene theory**.

This theory says that there are some factors (motivating factors) that cause job satisfaction, and motivation and some other also separated factors (hygiene factors) cause dissatisfaction (Figure 3). That means that these feelings are not opposite of each other, as it has always previously been believed.

Opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction, but rather, no satisfaction.

According to Herzberg (1987) the job satisfiers deal with the factors involved in doing the job, whereas the job dissatisfiers deal with the factors which define the job context.

If the **hygiene factors**, for example salary, working conditions, work environment, safety and security are unsuitable (low level) at the workplace, this can make individuals unhappy, dissatisfied with their job.

**Motivating factors**, on the other hand, can increase job satisfaction, and motivation is based on an individual's need for personal growth. If these elements are effective, then they can motivate an individual to achieve above-average performance and effort. For example, having responsibility or achievement can cause satisfaction (human characteristics) (Dartey-Baah, 2011).

Hygiene factors are needed to ensure that an employee is not dissatisfied. Motivation factors are needed to ensure employee's satisfaction and to motivate an employee to higher performance.

Table 1. Herzberg's Two Factory Theory (Source: Author's own table)

Dissatisfaction – Low level	Hygiene factors
No dissatisfaction-High level	
No satisfaction – Low level	Motivating factors
Satisfaction – High level	

### Herzberg's five factors of job satisfaction (motivating factors):

- *achievement*
- *recognition*
- *work itself*
- *responsibility*
- *advancement*

Only these factors can motivate us. But at the same time we need the lack of dissatisfactions (we need hygiene factors, "workpeace") to achieve more efficient work.

### Herzberg's five factors of job dissatisfaction (hygiene factors – deficiency needs):

- *company policy and administration*
- *supervision*
- *salary*
- *interpersonal relationships*
- *working conditions*

Summary of Content Theories of Motivation (Source: Author's own table)

Maslow	Alderfer	McClelland	Herzberg
Physiological	Existence		Hygiene
Safety and security			
Belongingness and love	Relatedness	Need for Affiliation	
Self-esteem	Growth	Need for power	Motivators
Self-actualization		Need for achievement	

**Process theory - “hows” of motivation. Instead of focusing on what people need, these models focus on the psychological and behavioral processes that humans follow.**

### Vroom's expectancy theory

The expectancy theory places an emphasis on the process and on the content of motivation as well, and it integrates needs, equity and reinforcement theories.

Victor Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory aims to explain how people choose from the available actions. Vroom defines motivation as a process that governs our choices among alternative forms of voluntary behaviour. The basic rationale of this theory is that motivation stems from the belief that decisions will have their desired outcomes.

The motivation to engage in an activity is determined by appraising three factors. These three factors are the following:

- **Expectancy** – a person's belief that more effort will result in success. If you work harder, it will result in better performance.

In this case the question is: "*Am I capable of making a good grade on a math test if I learn more?*" Appraisal of this factor is based on the effort to learn math, on knowledge of math, on the previous experience of math test results, on self-efficacy and specific self-rated abilities.

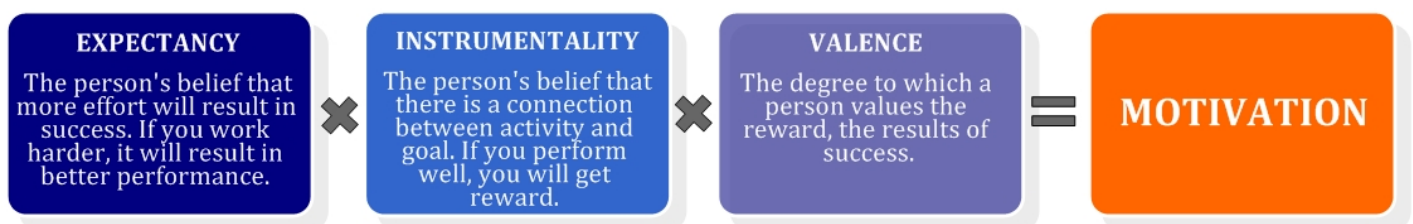
- **Instrumentality** – the person's belief that there is a connection between activity and goal. If you perform well, you will get reward.

In this case the question is that: "*Will I get the promised reward (a good mark) for performing well on a math test?*" Appraisal of this factor is based on the accuracy and consistency of marking. If one day I get a good grade and another day I get a bad grade for the same performance, then the motivation will decrease.

- **Valence** – the degree to which a person values the reward, the results of success.

In this case the question is that: "*Do I value the reward that I get?*" Appraisal of this factor is based on the importance of its subject (math), the good mark, and the good performance in general.

Vroom supposes that expectancy, instrumentality and valence are multiplied together to determine motivation. This means that if any of these is zero, then the motivation to do something will be zero as well.



For example, if I think:

A person who doesn't see the connection between effort and performance will have zero expectancy. A person who can't perceive the link between performance and reward will have zero instrumentality. For a person who doesn't value the anticipated outcome, reward will have zero valence.

- *that no matter how hard I'm studying I can't learn math due to lack of necessary skills or*
- *that no matter how good I perform on the test I don't always get good mark so the reward is unpredictable, not dependent on my success or*
- *the good mark from math is not important for me, and I'm not interested in math, so the reward is not attractive, then I won't be motivated to learn for the exam.*

The expectancy theory highlights individual differences in motivation and contains three useful factors for understanding and increasing motivation. This theory implies equity and importance of consistent rewards as well (Konig & Steel 2006).