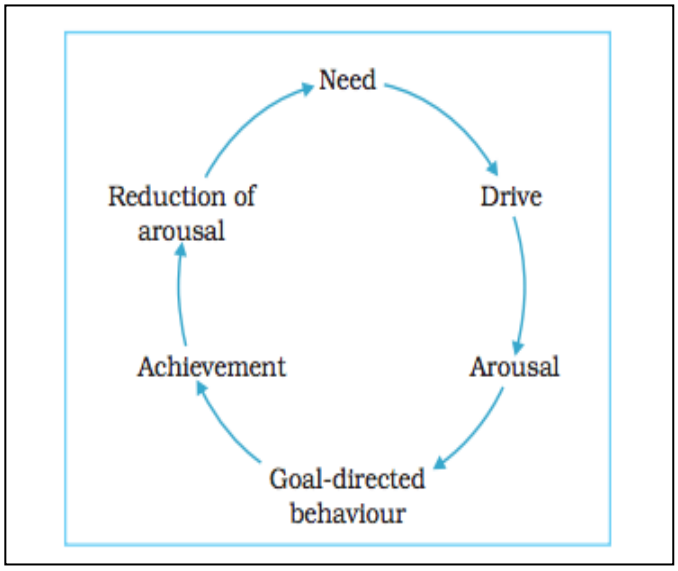
WORK MOTIVATION

Introduction:

Motivation is the basic psychological process. Motivation is a very important process in understanding a behavior. However, motivation is not the only explanation of behavior. It acts and interacts in conjunction with other mediating process and the environment. The word motivation has been derived from the Latin word "Movere" that means 'to move'. A motive is an inner state that energizes, actuates, activates or moves, that directs or channels the behavior towards the goals. A motive is restlessness, a lack of something, a force. Once in grip of a motive the organism does something. It most generally does something to reduce the restlessness, to remedy the lack, to lessen the force.



- Needs: - Need is 'deficiency'. In the homeostatic sense, needs are created whenever there is a physiological or psychological imbalance. For example a need exists when a cell in the body is deprived of food and water or the human personality is deprived of other persons who serve as friends or companions (hunger, thirst and company).
- Drives: - A drive is a deficiency with direction. Drives are action oriented and provide an energizing thrust toward goal accomplishment. They are at the very heart of the motivational process. The examples of the needs

for food and water are translated into hunger and thirst drives and the need for friends becomes a drive for affiliation.

- Goals: - At the end of motivation cycle is the goal. A goal is anything that will alleviate a need. Thus attaining a goal tends to restore physiological and psychological balance. Having food or water, reaching out to a friend is the goal which needs to be accomplished to meet the need.

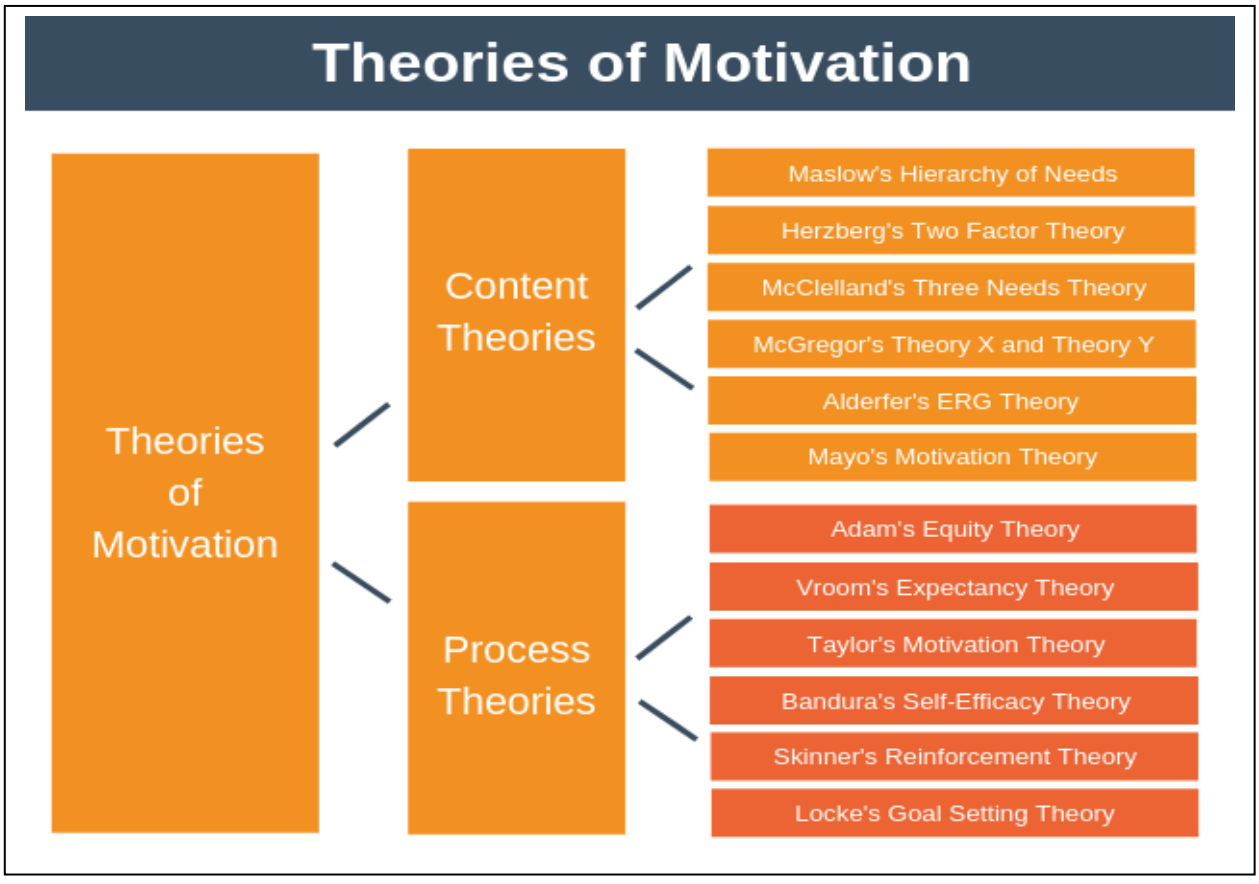
Types of Motivation-

1. Primary motives are thought to include hunger, thirst, sex, avoidance of pain. They are generally unlearned and physiologically based.
2. Secondary motives typically studied in humans include achievement, power and affiliation motivation. They are also called social motives and are learned in nature.
    - Power Motive: The leading advocate of the power motive was Alfred Adler. The power need is the need to manipulate others or the drive for superiority over others. Adler developed the concepts of inferiority complex and compensation. He felt that every small child experiences a sense of inferiority. Whenever this feeling of inferiority is combined with what he sensed as an innate need for superiority, the two rules all the behavior. The person's lifestyle is characterized by striving to compensate for feeling of inferiority which is combined with the innate drive for power. The power motive has significant implications for organizational leadership and behavior and for the informal political aspects of organizations. It has emerged as one of the most important dynamics in the study of organizational behavior.
    - Achievement Motive: - David C McClelland a renowned psychologist of Howard is most closely associated with the study the of achievement motive. In early 1947 McClelland thoroughly investigated and wrote about all aspects of achievement motive. Out of this extensive research has emerged a clear profile of characteristics of the high achiever. In most simple manner, Achievement Motive can be expressed as a desire to perform in terms of excellence or to be successful in competitive situations.
    - Affiliation Motive: - The affiliation motive plays a very vital role in human behavior. According to Hawthorn studies, the importance

of affiliation motive in the behavior of an organization's participants has been very clear. Employees especially rank and file employees have a very intense need to belong to and be accepted by a group. This affiliation motive is an important part of group dynamics.

3. An understanding of these general motives is crucial to the study of human behavior, especially in organizations. The Competence Motive was proposed by Robert White; he was convinced that people strive to have control or competence over their environment. People need to know what they are driving to be able to make things happen. White determined that critical time for competence development is between the ages of six and nine. The experiences of success and failures that youngsters come across, during the critical period, have a lasting impact on the intensity of their competence motive. This motive has interesting implications for job design in the organization. It suggests that people may be motivated by the challenges of trying to master the jobs or to become competent in the jobs.

THEORIES OF MOTIVATION:

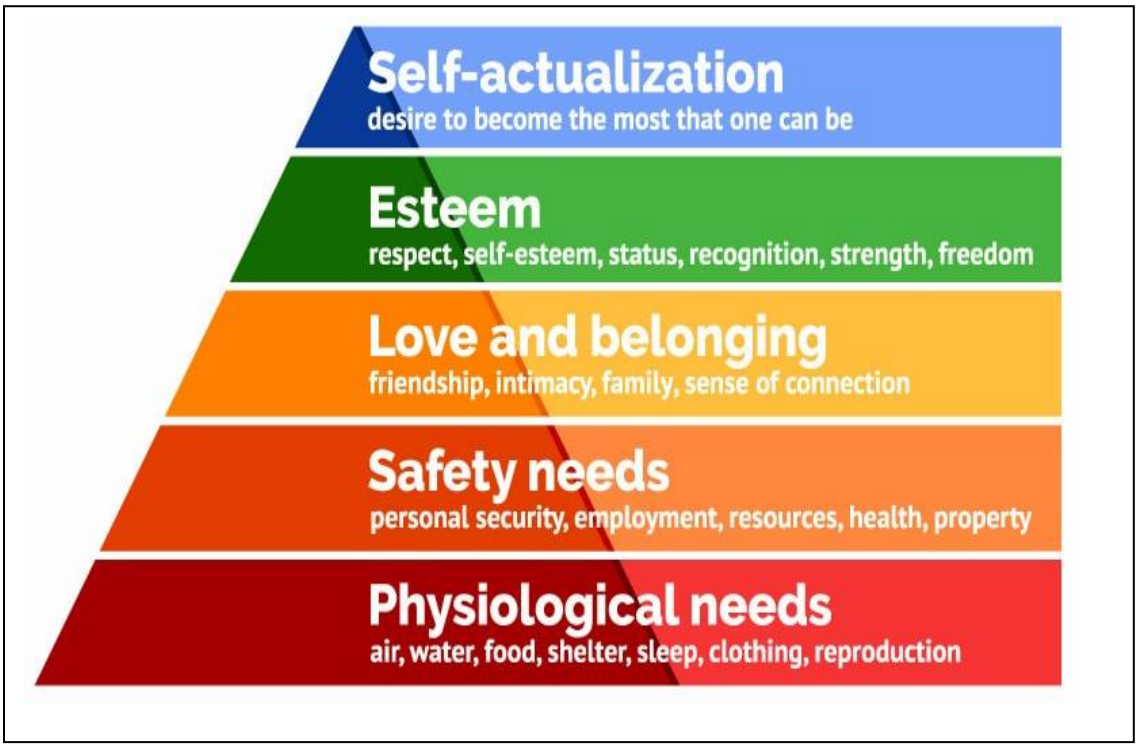


Content Theories of Work Motivation:

In a historical perspective, the content theories tend to be the earliest theories of motivation or later modifications of early theories. They have had the greatest impact on management practice and policy making. The content theories of work motivation attempt to determine what it is that motivates the people at work. The content theories are concerned with identifying needs / drives that the people have and how these needs and drives are prioritized. They are concerned with the type of incentives or goals that people strive to attain in order to be satisfied and perform well. At first money was felt to be the only incentive, however later it was felt that incentives include: working conditions, security and human relations, democratic supervision style etc.

Maslows Hierarchy of Needs

This is the most widely known theory of motivation and was hypothesised by American psychologist Abraham Maslow in the 1940s. Maslow put forward the idea that there existed a hierarchy of needs consisting of five levels in the hierarchy. These needs progressed from lower order needs through to higher level needs. He believed that once a given level of need is satisfied, it no longer serves to motivate. The next higher need has to be activated to motivate the individual.



He postulated that human motivation acted to satisfy the most basic needs first, and when those were met, the individual was motivated to meet higher level needs. The hierarchy classified physiological needs such as food and shelter as the most basic needs, followed by security needs such as personal safety and job security; social needs such as the need to belong to a group and friendship; self-esteem needs which include recognition and competence; and self-actualization needs for growth and development round out the five types of needs.

The need hierarchy has a tremendous impact on modern management to motivation. If we translate Maslow's needs into needs for organizational structures by identifying those that are relevant to a work environment, then the most basic needs required is an organizational flexibility that lets employees take breaks for snacks and meals. A stable organization with clear responsibilities provides security. Making employees feel part of a team, allowing for recognition of achievements and employee training programs can address the needs for social relationships, self-esteem and professional development. In terms of a work environment, if a company meets an employee's basic needs for a comfortable workspace and job security, the employee is self-motivated to fulfil the higher-level needs. A company merely has to provide the opportunity to fulfil such needs by offering appropriate work. If the employee can fulfil his high-level needs by working on a team, successfully completing a project and learning new skills in the course of carrying out the work, he can fulfil the three high-level needs and will be motivated to do the work well.

Alderfer's ERG Theory

To bring Maslow's need hierarchy theory of motivation in synchronization with empirical research, Clayton Alderfer redefined it in his own terms. His rework is called as ERG theory of motivation. He re-categorized Maslow's hierarchy of needs into three simpler and broader classes of needs.

- *Existence needs* include physiological and material safety needs. These needs are satisfied by material conditions and not through interpersonal relations or personal involvement in the work setting.
- *Relatedness needs* include all of Maslow's social needs, plus social safety and social esteem needs. These needs are satisfied through the exchange of thoughts and feelings with other people.

- *Growth needs* include self-esteem and self-actualization needs. These needs tend to be satisfied through one's full involvement in work and the work setting.

Four components—satisfaction progression, frustration, frustration regression, and aspiration—are key to understanding Alderfer's ERG theory. The first of these, *satisfaction progression,* is in basic agreement with Maslow's process of moving through the needs. As we increasingly satisfy our existence needs, we direct energy toward relatedness needs. As these needs are satisfied, our growth needs become more active. The second component, *frustration,* occurs when we attempt but fail to satisfy a particular need. The resulting frustration may make satisfying the unmet need even more important to us—unless we repeatedly fail to satisfy that need. In this case, Alderfer's third component, *frustration regression,* can cause us to shift our attention to a previously satisfied, more concrete, and verifiable need. Lastly, the *aspiration* component of the ERG model notes that, by its very nature, growth is intrinsically satisfying. The more we grow, the more we want to grow. Therefore, the more we satisfy our growth need, the more important it becomes and the more strongly we are motivated to satisfy it.

ERG Theory states that at a given point of time, more than one need may be operational. It shows that if the fulfillment of a higher-level need is subdued, there is an increase in desire for satisfying a lower-level need. According to Maslow, an individual remains at a particular need level until that need is satisfied. While according to ERG theory, if a higher- level need aggravates, an individual may revert to increase the satisfaction of a lower- level need. This is called frustration- regression aspect of ERG theory. For instance- when growth need aggravates, then an individual might be motivated to accomplish the relatedness need and if there are issues in accomplishing relatedness needs, then he might be motivated by the existence needs. Thus, frustration/aggravation can result in regression to a lower-level need. While Maslow's need hierarchy theory is rigid as it assumes that the needs follow a specific and orderly hierarchy and unless a lower-level need is satisfied, an individual cannot proceed to the higher-level need; ERG Theory of motivation is very flexible as he perceived the needs as a range/variety rather than perceiving them as a hierarchy. According to Alderfer, an individual can work on growth needs even if his existence or relatedness needs remain unsatisfied. Thus, he gives explanation to the issue of "starving artist" who can struggle for growth even if he is hungry.

Managers must understand that an employee has various needs that must be satisfied at the same time. According to the ERG theory, if the manager concentrates solely on one need at a time, this will not effectively motivate the employee. Also, the frustration- regression aspect of ERG Theory has an added effect on workplace motivation. For instance- if an employee is not provided with growth and advancement opportunities in an organization, he might revert to the relatedness need such as socializing needs and to meet those socializing needs, if the environment or circumstances do not permit, he might revert to the need for money to fulfill those socializing needs. The sooner the manager realizes and discovers this, the more immediate steps they will take to fulfill those needs which are frustrated until such time that the employee can again pursue growth.

Herzbergs' Two Factor Theory

Next to Maslow, Herzberg's theory has probably received the most attention within the workplace. Two Factor Theory (also known as Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory) was developed by Frederick Herzberg, a psychologist who found that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction acted independently of each other. Two Factor Theory states that there are certain factors in the workplace that cause job satisfaction called “Motivators”, while a separate set of factors cause dissatisfaction. He termed factors causing dissatisfaction as “Hygiene Factors”. So, he differentiated between factors that satisfied employees, and factors that dissatisfied employees. In his theory the opposite of 'satisfaction' is not 'dissatisfaction' but rather 'no satisfaction'. Likewise, the opposite of 'dissatisfaction' is 'no dissatisfaction'.

This theory is closely related to the Maslow’s need hierarchy. The hygiene factors are preventive and environmental in nature and they are more or less equal to “Maslow’s Lower level needs”. Motivators (e.g. challenging work, recognition, responsibility) which give positive satisfaction, arise from intrinsic conditions of the job itself, such as recognition, achievement, or personal growth are related to Higher level needs and Hygiene factors which do not give positive satisfaction, although dissatisfaction results from their absence (For e.g. status, job security, salary and fringe benefits) these are extrinsic to the work itself, and include aspects such as company policies, supervisory practices, or wages/salary. Essentially, hygiene factors are needed to ensure an employee is not dissatisfied. Motivation factors are needed in order to motivate an employee to higher performance.

Herzberg also further classified our actions and how and why we do them. For example, if you perform a work related action because you have to then that is classed as movement, but if you perform a work related action because you want to then that is classed as motivation.

Herzberg related job satisfaction to five factors:

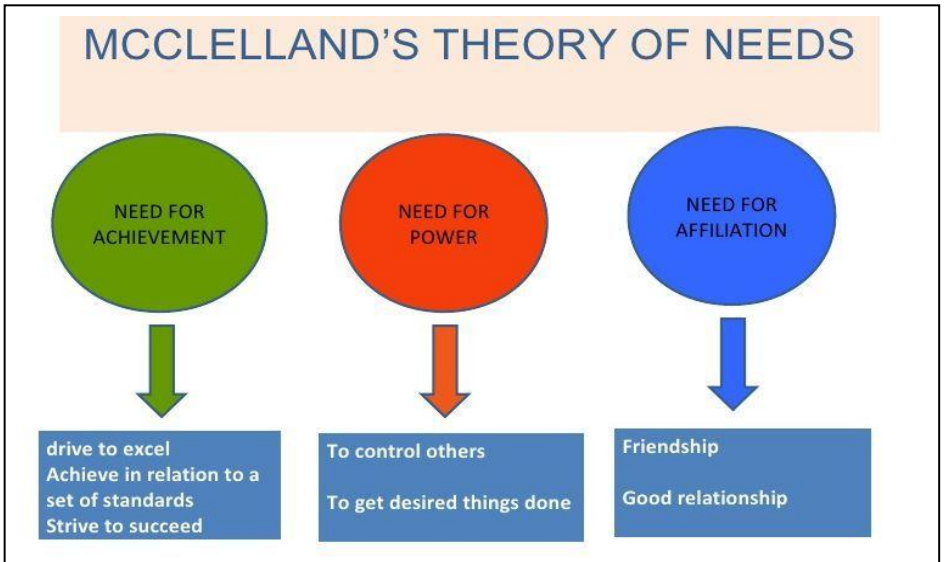
- achievement
- recognition
- work itself
- responsibility
- advancement

Herzberg related job dissatisfaction to:

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

McClelland's theory of motivation

David McClelland in his acquired-needs theory proposed that an individual's specific needs are acquired over time and are shaped by one's life experiences. David C. McClelland and his associates studied three different needs- the need for achievement, the need for affiliation, and the need for power (often abbreviated, in turn, as nAch, nAff, and nPow). McClelland believed that these three needs are learned, primarily in childhood. But he also believed that each need can be taught, especially nAch. McClelland's research is important because much of current thinking about organizational behavior is based on it.



- Need for Achievement: The need for achievement as the name itself suggests is the urge to achieve something in what you do. If you are a lawyer it is the need to win cases and be recognized, if you are a painter it is the need to paint a famous painting. It is the need that drives a person to work and even struggle for the objective that he wants to achieve. This need is how much people are motivated to excel at the tasks they are performing, especially tasks that are difficult. Achievement needs become manifest when individuals experience certain types of situations.

  People who possess high achievement needs are people who always work to excel by particularly avoiding low reward low-risk situations and difficult to achieve high-risk situations. Such people avoid low-risk situations because of the lack of a real challenge and their understanding that such achievement is not genuine. They also avoid high-risk situations because they perceive and understand it to be more about luck and chance and not about one's own effort. The more the achievements they make the higher their performance because of higher levels of motivation. These people find innovative clever ways to achieve goals and consider their achievement a better reward than financial ones. They take calculated decision and always appreciate feedback and usually works alone.

McClelland describes three major characteristics of high-nAch people:

1. They feel personally responsible for completing whatever tasks they are assigned. They accept credit for success and blame for failure.
2. They like situations where the probability of success is moderate. High-nAch people are not motivated by tasks that are too easy or extremely difficult. Instead, they prefer situations where the outcome is uncertain, but in which they believe they can succeed if they exert enough effort. They avoid both simple and impossible situations.
3. They have very strong desires for feedback about how well they are doing. They actively seek out performance feedback. It doesn't matter whether the information implies success or failure. They want to know whether they have achieved or not. They constantly ask how they are doing, sometimes to the point of being a nuisance.

Need for achievement is essential for organizations, this is especially true for jobs that require self-motivation and managing others. Employees who continuously have to be told how to do their jobs require an overly large management team, and too many layers of management spell trouble in the current marketplace. Today's flexible, cost-conscious organizations have no room for top-heavy structures; their high-nAch employees perform their jobs well with minimal supervision. Designing jobs that are neither too challenging nor too boring is key to managing motivation. Job enrichment is one effective strategy; this frequently entails training and rotating employees through different jobs, or adding new challenges.

- Need for Affiliation: This need is the second of McClelland's learned needs. The need for affiliation is the urge of a person to have interpersonal and social relationships with others or a particular set of people. The need for affiliation (nAff) reflects a desire to establish and maintain warm and friendly relationships with other people. They seek to work in groups by creating friendly and lasting relationships and has the urge to be liked by others. They tend to like collaborating with others to competing with them and usually avoid high-risk situations and uncertainty.

  As with nAch, nAff varies in intensity across individuals. As you would expect, high-nAff people are very sociable. They're more likely to go bowling with friends after work than to go home and watch television. Other people have lower affiliation needs. This doesn't mean that they avoid other people, or that they dislike others. They simply don't exert as much effort in this area as high-nAff people do.

  The nAff has important implications for organizational behavior. High-nAff people like to be around other people, including other people at work. As a result, they perform better in jobs that require teamwork. Maintaining good relationships with their co-workers is important to them, so they go to great lengths to make the work group succeed because they fear rejection. So, high-nAff employees will be especially motivated to perform well if others depend on them. In contrast, if high-nAff people perform jobs in isolation from other people, they will be less motivated to perform well. Performing well on this job won't satisfy their need to be

around other people. Effective managers carefully assess the degree to which people have high or low nAff. Employees high in nAff should be placed in jobs that require or allow interactions with other employees. Jobs that are best performed alone are more appropriate for low-nAff employees, who are less likely to be frustrated.

- Need for Power: The third of McClelland's learned needs, the need for power (nPow), is the need to control things, especially other people. The need for power is the desire within a person to hold control and authority over another person and influence and change their decision in accordance with his own needs or desires. It reflects a motivation to influence and be responsible for other people. An employee who is often talkative, gives orders, and argues a lot is motivated by the need for power over others. The need to enhance their self-esteem and reputation drives these people and they desire their views and ideas to be accepted and implemented over the views and ideas over others. Status and recognition is something they aspire for and do not like being on the losing side.

  These people are strong leaders and can be best suited to leading positions. They either belong to Personal or Institutional power motivator groups. If they are a personal power motivator they would have the need to control others and an institutional power motivator seeks to lead and coordinate a team towards an end.

  A personal power seeker endeavours to control others mostly for the sake of dominating them. They want others to respond to their wishes whether or not it is good for the organization. They "build empires," and they protect them.

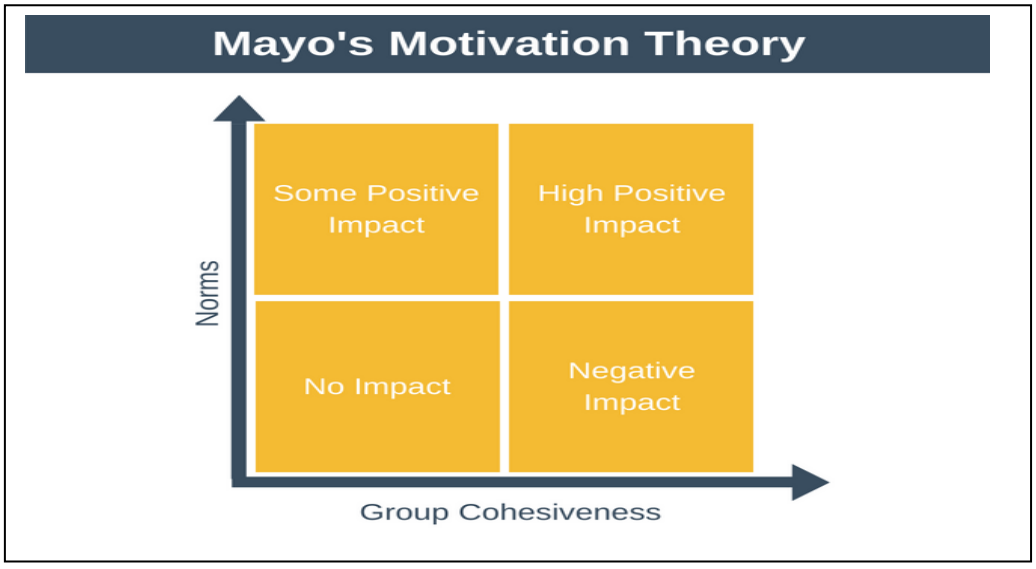
  McClelland's other power seeker is the social power seeker. A high social power seeker satisfies needs for power by influencing others, like the personal power seeker. They differ in that they feel best when they have influenced a work group to achieve the group's goals, and not some personal agenda. High social power seekers are concerned with goals that a work group has set for itself, and they are motivated to influence others to achieve the goal. This need is oriented toward fulfilling responsibilities to the employer, not to the self.

McClelland has argued that the high need for social power is the most important motivator for successful managers. Successful managers tend to be high in this type of nPow. High need for achievement can also be important, but it sometimes results in too much concern for personal success and not enough for the employer's success. The need for affiliation contributes to managerial success only in those situations where the maintenance of warm group relations is as important as getting others to work toward group goals. The implication of McClelland's research is that organizations should try to place people with high needs for social power in managerial jobs. It is critical, however, that those managerial jobs allow the employee to satisfy the nPow through social power acquisition. Otherwise, a manager high in nPow may satisfy this need through acquisition of personal power, to the detriment of the organization.

Mayo's Motivation theory

Mayo management theory states that employees are motivated far more by relational factors such as attention and friendship than by monetary rewards or environmental factors such as lighting, humidity, etc.

Mayo created this matrix to show how productivity changed in different situations.



The importance of group working cannot be overstressed. It is the group that determines productivity, not pay and not processes. You can think of group cohesiveness as being how well the group gets on, their comraderie. You can think of norms as being whether the group encourages positive or negative behaviors.

This theory states that, at organization level, the team members should communicate regularly and exchanges of feedback is essential. Team should be working as a group rather than as individuals. If team is too big to work as one group then it should be broken down, into smaller groups. If bonus is given, it should not be only based on achievements, but should also include how the result was achieved and the contribution to teamwork. This will encourage group cohesiveness.

McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y

In 1960, Douglas McGregor formulated Theory X and Theory Y suggesting two aspects of human behaviour at work, or in other words, two different views of individuals (employees): one of which is negative, called as Theory X and the other is positive, so called as Theory Y. According to McGregor, the perception of managers on the nature of individuals is based on various assumptions.

Assumptions of Theory X

- An average employee intrinsically does not like work and tries to escape it whenever possible.
- Since the employee does not want to work, he must be persuaded, compelled, or warned with punishment so as to achieve organizational goals. A close supervision is required on part of managers. The managers adopt a more dictatorial style.
- Many employees rank job security on top, and they have little or no aspiration/ ambition.
- Employees generally dislike responsibilities.
- Employees resist change.
- An average employee needs formal direction.

Assumptions of Theory Y

- Employees can perceive their job as relaxing and normal. They exercise their physical and mental efforts in an inherent manner in their jobs.

- Employees may not require only threat, external control and coercion to work, but they can use self-direction and self-control if they are dedicated and sincere to achieve the organizational objectives.
- If the job is rewarding and satisfying, then it will result in employees' loyalty and commitment to organization.
- An average employee can learn to admit and recognize the responsibility. In fact, he can even learn to obtain responsibility.
- The employees have skills and capabilities. Their logical capabilities should be fully utilized. In other words, the creativity, resourcefulness and innovative potentiality of the employees can be utilized to solve organizational problems.

Thus, we can say that Theory X presents a pessimistic view of employees' nature and behaviour at work, while Theory Y presents an optimistic view of the employees' nature and behaviour at work. If correlate it with Maslow's theory, we can say that Theory X is based on the assumption that the employees emphasize on the physiological needs and the safety needs; while Theory X is based on the assumption that the social needs, esteem needs and the self-actualization needs dominate the employees. McGregor views Theory Y to be more valid and reasonable than Theory X. Thus, he encouraged cordial team relations, responsible and stimulating jobs, and participation of all in decision-making process.

Quite a few organizations use Theory X today. Theory X encourages use of tight control and supervision. It implies that employees are reluctant to organizational changes. Thus, it does not encourage innovation. Many organizations are using Theory Y techniques. Theory Y implies that the managers should create and encourage a work environment which provides opportunities to employees to take initiative and self-direction. Employees should be given opportunities to contribute to organizational well-being. Theory Y encourages decentralization of authority, teamwork and participative decision making in an organization. Theory Y searches and discovers the ways in which an employee can make significant contributions in an organization. It harmonizes and matches employees' needs and aspirations with organizational needs and aspirations.

Process Theories of Work Motivation:

The psychological and behavioral processes that motivate a person to act in a particular way are referred to as process theories of motivation. In essence, these theories examine how a person's needs will affect his behavior in order to

achieve a goal related to those needs. These theories focus on the mechanism by which we choose a target, and the effort that we exert to "hit" the target. There are four major process theories: (1) operant conditioning, (2) equity, (3) goal, and (4) expectancy.

Operant Conditioning Theory

Operant conditioning theory is the simplest of the motivation theories. It basically states that people will do those things for which they are rewarded and will avoid doing things for which they are punished. This premise is sometimes called the "law of effect." Operant conditioning theory does offer greater insights than "reward what you want and punish what you don't," and knowledge of its principles can lead to effective management practices. Operant conditioning focuses on the learning of voluntary behaviors.

The term operant conditioning indicates that learning results from our "operating on" the environment. After we "operate on the environment" (that is, behave in a certain fashion), consequences result. These consequences determine the likelihood of similar behavior in the future. Learning occurs because we do something to the environment. The environment then reacts to our action, and our subsequent behavior is influenced by this reaction.

There are three ways to make a response more likely to recur: positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement, and avoidance learning. In addition, there are two ways to make the response less likely to recur: nonreinforcement and punishment.

Ways to Strengthen the S → R Link

1. S → R → C+ (Positive Reinforcement)

2. S → R → C– (Negative Reinforcement)

3. S → R → (no C–) (Avoidance Learning)

Ways to Weaken the S → R Link

1. S → R → (no C) (Nonreinforcement)

2. S → R → C– (Punishment)

According to reinforcement theorists, managers can encourage employees to repeat a behavior if they provide a desirable consequence, or reward, after the behavior is performed. A positive reinforcement is a desirable consequence that satisfies an active need or that removes a barrier to need satisfaction. It can be as simple as a kind word or as major as a promotion. Companies that provide "dinners for two" as awards to those employees who go the extra mile are utilizing positive reinforcement. It is important to note that there are wide variations in what people consider to be a positive reinforcer. Praise from a supervisor may be a powerful reinforcer for some workers (like high-nAch

individuals) but not others. On the other hand managers use negative reinforcement when they remove something unpleasant from an employee's work environment in the hope that this will encourage the desired behavior. Ted doesn't like being continually reminded by Philip to work faster (Ted thinks Philip is nagging him), so he works faster at stocking shelves to avoid being criticized. Philip's reminders are a negative reinforcement for Ted. Again, many organizational discipline systems rely heavily on avoidance learning by using the threat of negative consequences to encourage desired behavior. When managers warn an employee not to be late again, when they threaten to fire a careless worker, or when they transfer someone to an undesirable position, they are relying on the power of avoidance learning.

Equity theory

Equity theory states that motivation is affected by the outcomes we receive for our inputs compared to the outcomes and inputs of other people. This theory is concerned with the reactions people have to outcomes they receive as part of a "social exchange." As the theory of work motivation, credit for equity theory goes to J Stacy Adams. According to equity theory, our reactions to the outcomes we receive from others (an employer) depend both on how we value those outcomes in an absolute sense *and* on the circumstances surrounding their receipt. Equity theory suggests that our reactions will be influenced by our perceptions of the "inputs" provided in order to receive these outcomes ("Did I get as much out of this as I put into it?"). Even more important is our comparison of our inputs to what we believe others received for their inputs ("Did I get as much for my inputs as my coworkers got for theirs?").

The fundamental premise of equity theory is that we continuously monitor the degree to which our work environment is "fair." In determining the degree of fairness, we consider two sets of factors, inputs and outcomes. Inputs are any factors we contribute to the organization that we feel have value and are relevant to the organization. The value attached to an input is based on *our* perception of its relevance and value. Whether or not anyone else agrees that the input is relevant or valuable is unimportant to us. Common inputs in organizations include time, effort, performance level, education level, skill levels, and bypassed opportunities. Since any factor we consider relevant is included in our evaluation of equity, it is not uncommon for factors to be included that the organization (or even the law) might argue are inappropriate

(such as age, sex, ethnic background, or social status). Outcomes are anything we perceive as getting back from the organization in exchange for our inputs. Again, the value attached to an outcome is based on our perceptions and not necessarily on objective reality. Common outcomes from organizations include pay, working conditions, job status, feelings of achievement, and friendship opportunities. Both positive and negative outcomes influence our evaluation of equity. Stress, headaches, and fatigue are also potential outcomes. Since any outcome we consider relevant to the exchange influences our equity perception, we frequently include unintended factors (peer disapproval, family reactions).

Equity theory predicts that we will compare our outcomes to our inputs in the form of a ratio. On the basis of this ratio we make an initial determination of whether or not the situation is equitable. If we perceive that the outcomes we receive are commensurate with our inputs, we are satisfied. If we believe that the outcomes are not commensurate with our inputs, we are dissatisfied. This dissatisfaction can lead to ineffective behaviors for the organization if they continue. The key feature of equity theory is that it predicts that we will compare our ratios to the ratios of other people. It is this comparison of the two ratios that has the strongest effect on our equity perceptions. These other people called referent others because we "refer to" them when we judge equity. Usually, referent others are people we work with who perform work of a similar nature. That is, referent others are perform jobs that are similar in difficulty and complexity to the employee making the equity determination.

Equity theory is widely used, and its implications are clear. In the vast majority of cases, employees experience (or perceive) underreward inequity rather than overreward. Employers try to prevent unnecessary perceptions of inequity. They do this in a number of ways. They try to be as fair as possible in allocating pay. Second, most employers are no longer secretive about their pay schedules. They donot reveal the exact pay, but they do tell employees the minimum and maximum pay levels for their jobs and the pay scales for the jobs of others in the organization. Such practices give employees a factual basis for judging equity.

Goal-Setting theory

Goal theory states that people will perform better if they have difficult, specific, accepted performance goals or objectives. The theory was proposed by Edwin Locke in 1960's.

- The first and most basic premise of goal theory is that people will attempt to achieve those goals that they *intend* to achieve. Thus, if we intend to do something, like get an A on an exam, we will exert effort to accomplish it. This doesn't mean that people without goals are unmotivated. It simply means that people with goals are more motivated. The intensity of their motivation is greater, and they are more directed.
- The second basic premise is that *difficult* goals result in better performance than easy goals. This does not mean that difficult goals are always achieved, but our performance will usually be better when we intend to achieve harder goals. Difficult goals cause us to exert more effort, and this almost always results in better performance.
- Third premise of goal theory is that *specific* goals are better than vague goals. Goal theory says that we perform better when we have specific goals.

  A key premise of goal theory is that people must *accept* the goal. Usually we set our own goals. But sometimes others set goals for us. Goal theory also states that people need to *commit* to a goal in addition to accepting it. Goal commitment is the degree to which we dedicate ourselves to achieving a goal. Goal commitment is about setting priorities.

  Allowing people to participate in the goal-setting process often results in higher goal commitment. This has to do with ownership. And when people participate in the process, they tend to incorporate factors they think will make the goal more interesting, challenging, and attainable. Thus, it is advisable to allow people some input into the goal-setting process. Imposing goals on them from the outside usually results in less commitment (and acceptance). Goal theory can be a tremendous motivational tool. In fact, many organizations practice effective management by using a technique called "management by objectives" (MBO). MBO is based on goal theory and is quite effective when implemented consistently with goal theory's basic premises.

Vroom expectancy motivation theory

Victor Vroom was the first to formulate an expectancy theory directly aimed at work motivation in 1964. Whereas Maslow and Herzberg look at the relationship between internal needs and the resulting effort expended to fulfil them, Vroom's expectancy theory separates effort (which arises from motivation), performance, and outcomes.

Expectancy theory thus focuses on the two major aspects of motivation, *direction* (which alternative?) and *intensity* (how much effort to implement the alternative?). The attractiveness of an alternative is determined by our "expectations" of what is likely to happen if we choose it. The more we believe that the alternative chosen will lead to positively valued outcomes, the greater its attractiveness to us.

Vroom's expectancy theory assumes that behavior results from conscious choices among alternatives whose purpose it is to maximize pleasure and to minimize pain. We are motivated to maximize desirable outcomes (a pay raise) and minimize undesirable ones (discipline). Expectancy theory goes on to state that we are also logical in our decisions about alternatives. It considers people to be rational. People evaluate alternatives in terms of their "pros and cons," and then choose the one with the most "pros" and fewest "cons."

Vroom realized that an employee's performance is based on individual factors such as personality, skills, knowledge, experience and abilities. He stated that effort, performance and motivation are linked in a person's motivation. He uses the variables Expectancy, Instrumentality and Valence to account for this.

- Expectancy is the belief that increased effort will lead to increased performance i.e. if I work harder, then this will be better. This is affected by such things as:

1. Having the right resources available (e.g. raw materials, time)
2. Having the right skills to do the job
3. Having the necessary support to get the job done (e.g. supervisor support, or correct information on the job)

- Instrumentality is the belief that if you perform well, a valued outcome will be received. The degree to which a first level outcome will lead to the second level outcome, i.e. if I do a good job, there is something in it for me. This is affected by such things as:

1. Clear understanding of the relationship between performance and outcomes – e.g. the rules of the reward 'game'.
2. Trust in the people who will take the decisions on who gets what outcome
3. Transparency of the process that decides who gets what outcome

- Valence is the importance that the individual places upon the expected outcome. For the valence to be positive, the person must prefer attaining the outcome to not attaining it. For example, if someone is mainly motivated by money, he or she might not value offers of additional time off.

The three elements are important behind choosing one element over another because they are clearly defined: effort-performance expectancy (E>P expectancy), performance-outcome expectancy (P>O expectancy) and valences.

- E>P expectancy: our assessment of the probability that our efforts will lead to the required performance level. The effort-performance expectancy, abbreviated E1, is the perceived probability that effort will lead to performance (or E ➨ P). Performance here means anything from doing well on an exam to assembling 100 toasters a day at work. Sometimes people believe that no matter how much effort they exert, they won't perform at a high level. They have weak E1s. Other people have strong E1s and believe the opposite—that is, that they can perform at a high level if they exert high effort.
- P>O expectancy: our assessment of the probability that our successful performance will lead to certain outcomes. The performance-outcome expectancy, E2, is the perceived relationship between performance and outcomes (or P ➨ O).1 Many things in life happen as a function of how well we perform various tasks. E2 addresses the question "What will happen if I perform well?" People with strong E2s believe that if they perform their jobs well, they'll receive desirable outcomes—good pay increases, praise from their supervisor, and a feeling that they're really contributing. In the same situation, people with weak E2s will have the opposite perceptions—that high performance levels don't result in

desirable outcomes and that it doesn't really matter how well they perform their jobs as long as they don't get fired.

- Valences are simply the degree to which we perceive an outcome as desirable, neutral, or undesirable. Highly desirable outcomes (a 25 percent pay increase) are positively valent. Undesirable outcomes (being disciplined) are negatively valent. Outcomes that we're indifferent to (where you must park your car) have neutral valences. Positively and negatively valent outcomes abound in the workplace—pay increases and freezes, praise and criticism, recognition and rejection, promotions and demotions.

Expectancy theory predicts that employees in an organization will be motivated when they believe that:

- Putting in more effort will yield better job performance
- Better job performance will lead to organizational rewards, such as an increase in salary or benefits
- These predicted organizational rewards are valued by the employee in question

In order to enhance the performance-outcome tie, managers should use systems that tie rewards very closely to performance.
Managers also need to ensure that the rewards provided are deserved and wanted by the recipients. In order to improve the effort-performance tie, managers should engage in training to improve their capabilities and improve their belief that added effort will in fact lead to better performance. Expectancy theory states that to maximize motivation, organizations must make outcomes contingent on performance.

Organizations exert tremendous influence over employee choices in their performance levels and how much effort to exert on their jobs. That is, organizations can have a major impact on the direction and intensity of employees' motivation levels. Practical applications of expectancy theory include:

- Strengthening the effort ➡ performance expectancy by selecting employees who have the necessary abilities, providing proper training, providing experiences of success, clarifying job responsibilities, etc.

- Strengthening the performance ➡ outcome expectancy with policies that specify that desirable behavior leads to desirable outcomes and undesirable behavior leads to neutral or undesirable outcomes. Consistent enforcement of these policies is key—workers must believe in the contingencies.
- Systematically evaluating which outcomes employees value. The greater the valence of outcomes offered for a behavior, the more likely employees will commit to that alternative. By recognizing that different employees have different values and that values change over time, organizations can provide the most highly valued outcomes.
- Ensuring that effort actually translates into performance by clarifying what actions lead to performance and by appropriate training.
- Ensuring appropriate worker outcomes for performance through reward schedules (extrinsic outcomes) and appropriate job design (so the work experiences itself provides intrinsic outcomes).
- Examining the level of outcomes provided to workers. Are they equitable, given the worker's inputs? Are they equitable in comparison to the way other workers are treated?
- Measuring performance levels as accurately as possible, making sure that workers are capable of being high performers.

Taylor's Motivation Theory

Frederick W. Taylor's Motivation Theory is premised on the fact that employees are motivated to be productive by one thing, 'Money'. Because of this, Taylor believed that management should exercise close control over employees, to ensure that they were getting their money's worth.

His Theory of Scientific Management argued the following:

- Workers do not naturally enjoy work and so need close supervision and control.
- Managers should break down production into a series of small tasks.
- Workers should be given appropriate training and tools so that they can work as efficiently as possible on one set task.
- Workers should be paid according to the number of items they produce in a set period of time, time-piece-rate pay.

- These would lead to encouragement of the workers to work hard and maximise productivity.

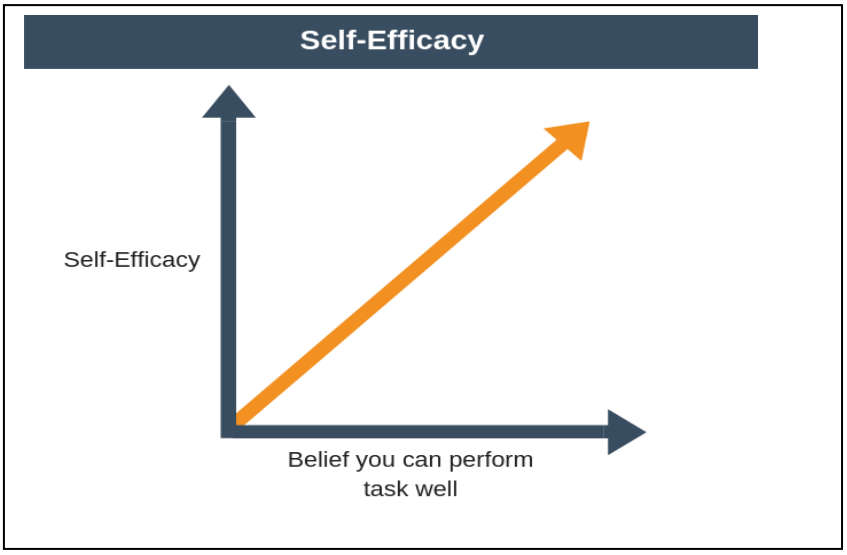
Taylor's methods were widely adopted as business saw benefits of increased productivity levels and lower unit costs.

This approach has close link to autocratic management style where managers take all the decisions and simply give orders to subordinates and workers are viewed as lazy and avoiding responsibility. However workers dislike Taylor's approach as they are only given boring, repetitive tasks to carry out.

Self-Efficacy Theory of Motivation

In self-efficacy theory the beliefs become a primary, explicit explanation for motivation (Bandura, 1977). Self-efficacy is the belief that you are capable of carrying out a specific task or of reaching a specific goal; here the belief and the action or goal is specific. The Self-Efficacy Theory of Motivation was developed by Albert Bandura. He described self-efficacy in detail in his 1997 book, Self-Efficacy: The Exercise of Control.

Self-Efficacy is the belief that one is capable of achieving a specific goal or performing a specific task. Self-efficacy is task specific. The higher the self-efficacy the more one will believe that one is capable of achieving a task or goal. Conversely, the lower self-efficacy will lead to lesser believe in one's capability to achieve a task. Self-efficacy is important to motivation, because people are less likely to give a task their full effort if their self-efficacy is low for that task.



Positive self-efficacy, or the belief that one can do what is necessary to achieve his/her goals, has been shown to be important in determining whether or not employees will succeed in reaching their goals. Key factors affecting self-efficacy include:

- Positive, mastery experiences that give employees a sense of accomplishment when they have faced a challenge
- Positive, vicarious experiences that occur when employees see others succeed and feel an increased sense of their own ability to succeed
- Social persuasion, where other people either increase or decrease an employee's sense of confidence and ability to succeed
- Negative, physiological reactions that might occur as a result of stress, depression, or anxiety.

Thus these four factors can be used to determine self-efficacy and in turn performance for a task.

1. Experience: Experience refers to your past experience of completing similar tasks. This is the most important factor in self-efficacy.

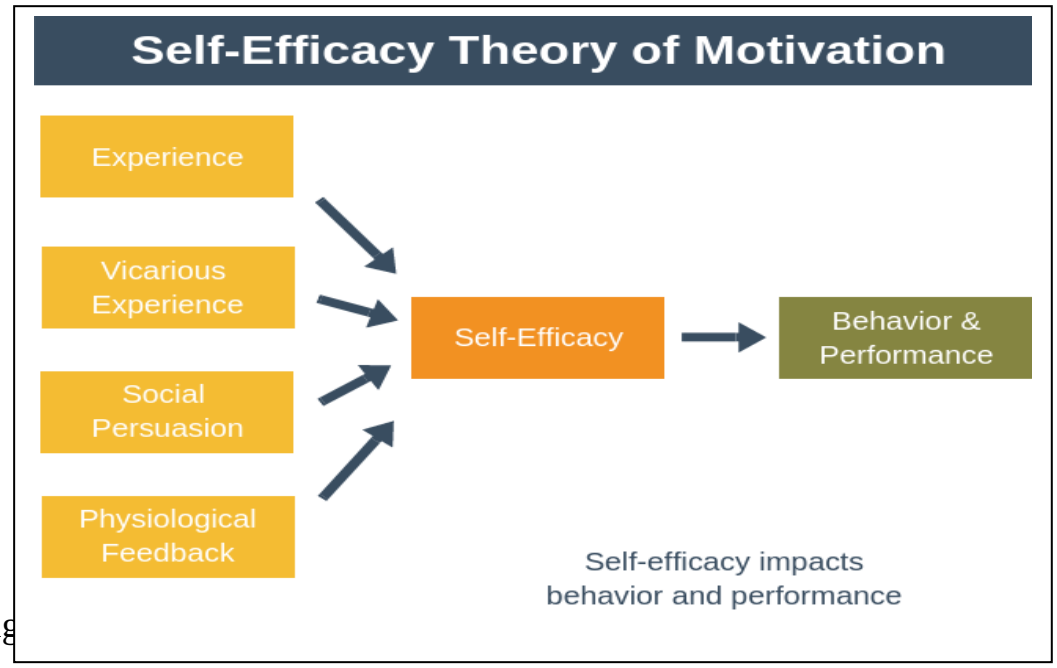
2. Vicarious Experience: One can develop self-efficacy vicariously by watching other people perform a task.

If you watch someone similar to you perform a task and succeed at that task then your self-efficacy will increase. Conversely, if you watch someone similar to you perform a task and fail then this can have a negative effect on your self-efficacy.

3. Social Persuasion: You can increase your self-efficacy if others give you encouragement that you can perform a task. Likewise, your self-efficacy will decrease if you receive discouraging or disparaging remarks about your ability to perform a task.

4. Physiological Feedback: When confronted with a task you experience a sensation from your body. The way we interpret these signals will impact our self-efficacy. For example, if someone is due to perform a presentation to a large crowd of people he might experience butterflies in stomach. How do he interpret this feeling? If he interprets this feeling as being excited to get on stage this will increase self-efficacy. If he experiences these butterflies as a stage-fright or anxiety, this will decrease his self-efficacy for this and similar tasks.

In general, the more at ease one is with a particular type of task, the higher the self-efficacy will be.



Using

To make use of the Self-Efficacy Theory of Motivation as an individual, we need ways to build our self-efficacy. Managers can also use these approaches to help build the self-efficacy of a team member, which will boost not only their competence but their motivation. Self-efficacy influences the tasks employees choose for themselves and also affects the level of effort and persistence when learning tough tasks.
There are four ways in which you can build self-efficacy.

1. Master Tasks: To begin the process of increasing self-efficacy for a particular task, we should begin by setting realistic but challenging goals based on where we are right now. When you succeed with that goal, we should build on it by setting slightly more challenging goal. Over time these accomplishments will grow to build you a high self-efficacy for this type of task.

2. Model Behavior: Finding role models to observe who have high self-efficacy in the area or skill where one is looking to build self-efficacy. These role models can be a powerful motivating force especially if they have also built their self-efficacy from a similar position.

3. Social Persuasion: While modelling behavior is about observing others who have achieved high self-efficacy in a particular area and using this as motivation, social persuasion is about finding mentors and coaches. These are people who will work directly to build self-efficacy step by step.

4. Improve Emotional State: We all interpret our past experiences and the physical sensations coming from our bodies. Sometimes we can misinterpret this information. Suppose we get nervous before giving a presentation. This feeling is perfectly natural. But suppose we believe that we're bad at performing presentations. The feeling is so strong it affects our performance in our presentation. This is obviously bad. Because of our poor performance in our last presentation, we further believe in our own minds that we're no good at presentations. Thus we get even more nervous the next time we have to do one. But it's not that we are actually bad at presentations, just that we have interpreted the signals wrong. If we could learn over time to interpret these signals in a positive way we could improve our self-efficacy around doing presentations in a significant way. One way to do this is by changing the limiting the beliefs we have.

These are the various theories which help in the organizational sector in balancing the employee-employer relationship, with maximum productivity and minimum dissatisfaction.