

CHAPTER -3

MOTIVATION – CONCEPT AND THEORIES

3.1. BRIEF

Motivation is the basic psychological process. None would deny that it is the most important process in the more micro approach to organizational behavior. Many people equate the causes of behavior with motivation. Causes of behavior are much broader and more complex than can be explained by motivation alone. Hence motivation should never be under-rated.

Along with Perception, Personality and Learning, Motivation is a very important process in understanding a behavior. It must be remembered that, motivation should not be taken for granted as the only explanation of behavior. It acts and interacts in conjunction with other mediating process and the environment. It must also be remembered that like any other mediating processes or environment, motivation cannot be seen. Motivation is invisible. What all can be seen is the behavior. Motivation is the hypothetical construct that is used to help explain behavior. Hence it should never be equated with the behavior.

The meaning of motivation: - Today virtually, all including laymen and scholars have their own definition of motivation, containing one or more of the following terms: - Desires Wants, Wishes, Aims, Goals, Needs, Drives, Motives and Incentives. Technically motivation can be traced to the Latin word “*Movere*” that means ‘to move’. **Definition: - A motive is an inner state that energizes, actuates, activates or moves (Hence motivation), that directs or channels the behavior towards the goals.**

A motive is restlessness, a lack of you, 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 alleviate to mitigate the force. The key to understanding the motivation seems to lie in the meaning and relationship between needs, drives and goals. Basic motivation process sets-up drives to accomplish goals.

3.1.1 BASIC MOTIVATION PROCESS:

Needs =====> Drives =====> Goal
(Deprivation) (Deprivation with direction) (Reduction of drives)

Needs: - The best one word definition of needs 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: - With a few exceptions, drives or motives (*These two terms shall be used interchangeably*), are set-up to alleviate needs. A drive can be simply defined as 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 in the motivation cycle can be defined as anything that will alleviate a need and reduce it to the drive. Thus attaining a goal tends to restore physiological and psychological balance and will reduce or cut-off the drive.

3.1.2. TYPES OF MOTIVATION

PRIMARY MOTIVES: - Psychologists do not totally agree on how to clarify various human motives but they would acknowledge that some motives are unlearned and physiologically based. Such motives are variously called physiological, biological, unlearned or the primary. The last term primary is used here because it is more comprehensive than the others. The use of the term "Primary Motives" does not imply that the said group of motives always takes precedence over "General" & "Secondary" group of motives.

Although the precedence of Primary motives is implied in some motivation theories and there are many situations in which General and Secondary motives predominate over primary motives. Common examples include celibacy among priests and fasting for a religious, social or a political cause. In both of these cases learned Secondary motives are stronger than unlearned Primary motives.

The criteria must be met in order for a motive to be included in the Primary classification, i.e. it must be unlearned and must be physiologically based. Thus defined, the most commonly

recognized primary motives include Hunger, Thirst, Sleep, and Avoidance of Pain, Sex and Material Concern.

GENERAL MOTIVES: - A separate classification for general motives is not always given. Yet such a category became necessary because there are a number of motives which lie in a grey area between the Primary and Secondary classification. To be included in a general category, a motive must be unlearned but not physiologically based. Although not all psychologists would agree, the motives of Competence, Curiosity, Manipulation, Activity and Affection seem to best meet the criteria for said classification. An understanding of these general motives is crucial to the study of human behavior, especially in organizations. These are more relevant to Organizational Behavior than the Primary Motives.

THE COMPETENCE MOTIVE: - Robert W White is most closely associated with the competence motive. While built an entire theory of competence motive, 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.

During this period children cut strings and venture into world on their own. They develop needs to cross the street by themselves, ride a bicycle, play base-ball, roller skates and read. These needs are manifested by the drive for competence or mastery over the environment. 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. But once the highly specialized jobs are mastered in the modern organizations, shortly after that the competence motive would disappear.

SECONDARY MOTIVES: - These motives are clearly tied to learning concepts. A motive must be learned to be included in the secondary classification. Numerous important human motives meet this criterion. Some of the more important ones are Power, Achievement and Affiliation and those are commonly referred to as Pow, Ach & Aff. In addition, especially in

reference to organizational behavior, Security and Status are also important secondary motives.

POWER MOTIVE: - The leading advocate of the power motive was Alfred Adler. In the year 1911, Adler officially broke his close ties with Sigmund Freud and proposed an opposing theoretical position. Whereas Sigmund Freud stressed the impact of the past and of sexual unconscious motivation, Adler substituted the future and persons overwhelming drive for superiority of power. Adler said: - *“Now I begin to see clearly in every physical phenomenon the striving for superiority. All our functions follow its directions, rightly or wrongly they strive for conquest, surety, increase. Whatever promises all our philosophers and psychologists dream of are Self preservation, pleasure principle, equalization, all these are but vague representations, attempts to express the great upward drive”*. *The fundamental fact of our life.*

To explain the power need – 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.

THE 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.

THE AFFILIATION MOTIVE: - The affiliation motive though very complex, plays a very vital role in human behavior. Sometimes affiliation is equated with the social motive and / or group dynamics. The affiliation motive is neither as broad as is implied by the definition of social motives nor as comprehensive or complex as is implied by definition of group dynamics. 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.

STATUS OR PRESTIGE MOTIVE: -Dr. Saul W Gellerman is a renowned psychologist and a member of the American Psychological Association. He is Manager of Personnel Research IBM World Trade Corporation. In one of his books "MOTIVATION & PRODUCTIVITY" he says : - *"A man's prestige in other words is how he expects to be treated and it has therefore a definite effect on how comfortably, conveniently and efficiently he can expect to get along in the life. Prestige is conferred by the society and not elected by an individual to suit his taste. High prestige is often as much a matter of low status people wanting to put someone on a pedestal or platform"*.

3.1.3. THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

Content Theories of Work Motivation: - 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 (Scientific Management) and then little later it was felt that incentives include: Working conditions, Security and Human Relations, (Democratic Supervision Style).

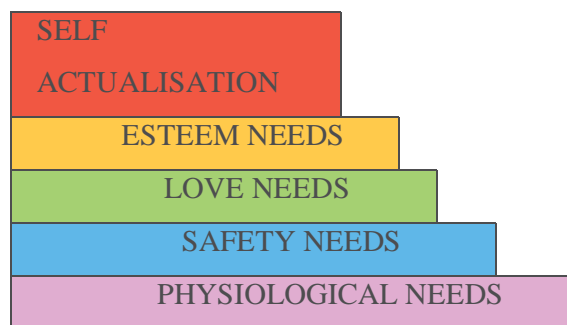
Lately the content of motivation has been deemed to be so called "Higher Level" need and motives such as "Esteem" and "Self Actualization" by **Maslow**, Responsibility, Recognition, Achievement and Advancement by **Herzberg** and Growth and Potential Development by **Alderfer**. A thorough understanding of major content models

contributes to understanding of work motivation and its application techniques. So they can feel guided and protected as it is of an individual wanting to enhance his own status by getting on to that pedestal or the platform himself.

Everyone begins life with a certain degree of prestige motive merely by virtue of its origins. Prestige Motivation can be a powerful and continuing force in shaping a man's career, since the kind of jobs one holds can be a vehicle for "par excellence" for upward mobility. People seek prestige throughout their lives in countless ways, some of them subtle and others blatant.

SECURITY MOTIVE: - All men are after all vulnerable to accidents, riots, diseases and the vagaries of economics and there is no doubt when men are buffeted too hard by misfortunes, their efficiency drops. Therefore individuals and organizations that employ them have a common welfare interest in acquiring some degree of assurance that 'Life's catastrophes will be blunted or starved off if possible and employees will be protected against life catastrophes to the maximum possible extent'.

Abraham Maslow felt and arranged motivational needs in a hierarchal manner. 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.



Maslow did not intend that his need hierarchy be directly applied to work motivation. Despite this lack of intent on Maslow's part, others such as Douglas McGregor, in his widely read book, "The Human Side of Enterprise", popularized Maslow's theory in management literature. The need hierarchy has a tremendous impact on modern management to motivation.

HERZBERG'S TWO FACTOR THEORY OF MOTIVATION: -

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, while a separate set of factors cause dissatisfaction. He termed factors causing dissatisfaction as "Hygiene Factors". 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 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.

Motivator Factors:-

- Achievement
- Recognition
- Work Itself
- Responsibility
- Promotion
- Growth

Hygiene Factors

- Pay and Benefits
- Company Policy and Administration

- Relationships with co-workers
- Physical Environment
- Supervision
- Status
- Job Security
- Salary

Victor Vroom's Expectancy Theory of Work Motivation: - The expectancy theory of work motivation has its root in the cognitive concepts of pioneering psychologists Kurt Lewin and Edward Tolman and the choice behavior and utility concepts from classical economic theory. However the first to formulate an expectancy theory directly aimed at work motivation was Victor Vroom in 1964. Contrary to most critics, Vroom proposed his expectancy theory as an alternative to the content models, which he felt were inadequate explanations of the complex process of work motivation.

In the academic circles his theory has become a popular explanation of work motivation and has generated considerable research. The basic assumption is that the choices made by a person among alternative courses of actions are lawfully related to psychological events occurring contemporaneously with the behavior.

This is commonly called VIE theory, based on the concepts of:

V – Valence

I – Instrumentality

E – Expectancy

By valence Vroom means strength of an individual's performance for a particular outcome. Other terms that might be used include value, incentive, attitude and expected utility. In order for the valence to be positive, the person must prefer attaining the outcome to not attaining. A valence of zero occurs when the individual is indifferent toward the outcome. The valence is negative when the individual prefers not attaining the outcome, to attaining the outcome.

Another major input into valence is the instrumentality of the first level outcome in obtaining the desired second level outcome. For example assume that an individual desires promotion

and he feels that superior performance is a very strong factor in achieving that goal. His first level outcomes are then superior, average or poor performance. His second level outcome is promotion.

The first level outcome of high performance thus acquires a positive valence in virtue of its expected relationship to the preferred second level outcome of promotion. In the above example, the person will be motivated toward superior performance because of the desire to be promoted. The superior performance (First level outcome) is seen as big as instrumental in obtaining promotion (Second level outcome). Another major variable in Vroom's motivational process is Expectance. Although at the first glance the expectancy concept may appear to be identical to instrumentality input into valence, but in fact it is quite different. Expectancy differs from instrumentality, in that it relates efforts to first level outcomes where instrumentality relates first and second level outcomes to each other.

In other words expectancy is the probability (Ranging from 0 to 1) that a particular action or effort will lead to a particular first level outcome. Instrumentality refers to the degree to which a first level outcome will lead to a desired second level outcome. In nutshell, the strength of motivation to perform a certain act will depend on the algebraic sum of the products of the valence for the outcome. This includes the instrumentality that is many times the expectancies.

EQUITY THEORY OF WORK MOTIVATION

Equity theory has been around just as long as the expectancy theories of work motivation. Equity theory has its roots in Cognitive Dissonance Theory and Exchange Theory.

As the theory of work motivation, credit for equity theory goes to J Stacy Adams. Simply put, the theory argues that the major input into job performance and satisfaction is the degree of equity (or inequity) that people perceive in their work situation. In other words, it is another cognitively based motivation theory and Adams depicts a specific process of how this motivation occurs. Using the terminology of person (any individual for whom equity or inequity exists) and the other (any individual with whom is the relevant exchange relationship or with whom person compares him or herself),

Adam states: - “Inequity exists for person whenever he or she perceives that the ratio of his outputs to inputs and the ratio of other person’s outputs to inputs are unequal. This can be illustrated by the following equation:

$$\frac{\text{individual's outcomes}}{\text{individual's own inputs}} = \frac{\text{relational partner's outcomes}}{\text{relational partner's inputs}}$$

ATTRIBUTION THEORY AND LOCUS OF CONTROL: -

Recently the attribution that the people make and the locus of control that they perceive have emerged as important explanations of work motivation. “Kelley” stresses that the theory is mainly concerned with the cognitive process by which an individual interprets his or her behavior as being caused by (or attributed) to certain parts of the relevant environment. It is concerned with the “WHY” questions of motivation and behavior. Since most causes attributes and whys are not directly observable, the theory says that people must depend upon cognitions, particularly perceptions.

The attribution theorists assume that humans are rational and are motivated to identify and understand the general structure of their relevant environment. It is this search for attributes that characterizes the attribution theory. “Heider” believed that people will behave differently if they perceive internal attributes from the way they will behave if they perceive external attributes. It is this concept of differential ascriptions that has very important implications for work motivation.

3.1.4. Comparison of monetary and non-monetary incentives

The purpose of monetary incentives is to reward associates for excellent job performance through money. Monetary incentives include profit sharing, project bonuses, stock options and warrants, scheduled bonuses (e.g., Christmas and performance-linked), and additional paid vacation time.

Traditionally, these have helped maintain a positive motivational environment for associates. Monetary incentives can be diverse while having a similar effect on associates. One example of monetary incentives is mutual funds provided through company pension plans or insurance programs. Because it has been suggested that associates, depending on their age have different needs pertaining to incentives, traditional incentive packages are being replaced

with alternatives to attract younger associates. On the other hand, the purpose of non-monetary benefits is to reward excellent job performance through opportunities. Non-monetary incentives include flexible work hours, training, pleasant work environment, and good hostel facility etc.

3.1.5. Problems with monetary incentives

“Managements have always looked at man as an animal to be manipulated with a carrot and stick. They found that when a man is lured/hurt, he will move to get the prize/avoid the pain-and they say, ‘we’re motivating the employees.’ Hell you are not motivating them, you are moving them.”

-Frederick Herzberg, Professor Emeritus

Monetary incentives usually encourage compliance and achievement of difficult targets instead of encouraging creativity, innovation and foresight which are more important in the long run. Thus employees are not able to express their true talent and in the long run lose their creativity. Employers also may use monetary incentives as an extrinsic rather than an intrinsic motivator. In other words, associates are driven to do things just for the monetary reward versus doing something because it is the right thing to do.

This can disrupt or terminate good relationships between employees because they are transformed from co-workers to competitors, which can quickly disrupt the workplace environment. Another problem with a monetary incentive is that it is given to circumvent a bigger problem for a short run. Sales employees are given higher monetary incentives to compensate for poor management and poor products, employees are paid more for working in a poor work environment.

Monetary incentives can even drive the employees to falsely reporting their achievements. Huge monetary incentives given to middle managers are seen as a hook to retain them which may make them work counterproductively. Though the monetary incentives have a better effect than the non-monetary incentives in the short run, they fail miserably in the long run and in extreme situations results in the downfall of the company (when employees start anticipating monetary incentives even for routine jobs and in the absence of which they start working inefficiently or go on a strike as in the case of some government employees).

Also most of the non-monetary incentives are intrinsic in nature. Intrinsic motivation is more effective as the impetus to work is from within. Employees are working because they feel satisfied or fulfilled by the activity they undertake. Under these circumstances the management can be regarded as more of a support than control.