

Motivation and Job Satisfaction

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1. Introduction

Boredom, stress and job dissatisfaction are increasingly becoming so commonplace at work that some commentators believe that motivation of staff could be the key to ameliorating the problem.

Motivation could be described as a driving force that makes people willingly want to put in their best in what they do. The concept of motivation is that there is no need to force or threaten people to work harder, as any such force or threat is likely to be ineffective in the long run. Rather, it is better that people should be motivated as it is believed that the driving force which results from motivation will compel people to put in their best out of willingness and not out of force or threat.

Motivation is believed to lead to an increase in employees' work performance. That in turn leads to an increase in overall organisational productivity levels. Furthermore, motivation is said to improve employee job satisfaction.

Nevertheless, it should be borne in mind that motivation is not a 'magic show' that can perform miracles. Thus, we should not expect a secondary school leaver to be able to do the work of a qualified engineer simply because he is highly motivated. Rather for motivation to be effective not only should staff be motivated but management should make sure that the staff has the ability to do the job in the first place. It is when they have the ability and skills that motivation would work. Thus, if a staff member who fails to improve in work performance even though he is clearly motivated it could be a sign of lack of ability, which in turn could be a sign of training need. Motivation in this case would only improve if this particular member of staff is trained to acquire the vital skills and ability - such training could be both on-the-job and off-the-job.

It is very important that managers continue to have this in mind as they may feel frustrated and disappointed; in some cases, for instance, they may become angry with the staff, because they fail to appreciate the handicaps the member of staff is experiencing.

If motivating staff is such a beneficial thing, how do we go about motivating them? We will not answer this question by writing what motivates staff on the one hand and what does not motivate on the other hand. Rather, we will examine some of the works of experts of the study of motivation. By that we mean examining some of the theories of motivation to understand what they say motivates people.

2. Types of Motivation Theories

Motivation theories are broadly classified under three headings, namely, content theories, process theories and reinforcement theories.

(a) Content Theories

As the name implies the content theories of motivation focuses on "what" motivates a person. Some examples of the content theories are those contributed by people like Abraham Maslow, Douglas McGregor, Clayton Alderfer, Frederick Herzberg and David McClelland; all of which will be discussed in this paper.

(a) Process Theories

The process theories look at the entire process of motivation and focuses on "how" a person is motivated. They emphasise the goals by which the individual is motivated. Some of the best known process theories are those contributed by Victor Vroom, Leyman Porter and Ed Lawler, John Adams and Edwin Locke, all of which are discussed in this paper.

(b) Reinforcement Theories

The best known of the reinforcement theories of motivation is that contributed by Burrhus Frederic Skinner, called operant conditioning. The reinforcement theories, also called behaviour modification, emphasise the fact that a person's present behaviour is influenced by past actions.

Skinner's operant conditioning is discussed later in this paper.

3. Frederick Winslow Taylor – Scientific Management

F.W. Taylor, an American who is accredited with the principles of scientific management is one of the early contributors in the study of motivation and performance at work. Taylor worked and carried out a series of research experiment at Bethlehem Steel Company, which was at the peak of the industrial revolution in the United States.

Taylor believed that to improve work performance based on scientific management principles involves the following steps:

- i) *Develop a science for each operation to replace opinion and rule of thumb.*
- ii) *Determine accurately from the science the correct time and method for each job.*
- iii) *Set up a suitable organisation to take all responsibility from the workers except that of actual job performance.*
- iv) *Select and train the workers.*
- v) *Accept that management itself be governed by the science developed for each operation and surrender its arbitrary power over worker i.e. co-operate with them.*

[G.A. Cole – Management: Theory and Practice – Ashford Colour Press, (1996)]

The conclusion drawn by the Taylor and the scientific Management movement is that man was a 'working machine' who was working for monetary reward and that emotional needs do not come into the picture. Thus, people need to be constantly controlled and if possible coerced at work.

Basically, Taylor advocated money as the source of employee motivation. In other words, people would be motivated to do more work if they knew they would gain more money.

"In support of his principles, Taylor demonstrated the benefits of increased productivity and earnings which he had obtained at Bethlehem steel works. He described to his critics an experiment with two shovelers - 'first-class shovelers', in his words - whose efforts were timed and studied. Each man had his own personal shovel, which he used regardless of the type of ore or coal being shifted.

At first the average shovel load was about 38 pounds and with this load each man handled about 25 tons of material a day. The shovel was then made smaller for each man, and the daily tonnage went up to 30. Eventually it was found that with smaller shovels, averaging about 21 pounds per load, the daily output rose even higher.

As a result of this experiment, several different sizes of shovel were supplied to the work force to enable each man to lift 21 pounds per load whether he was working with heavy ores or light coals.

Labourers who showed themselves capable of achieving the standards set by the two 'first-class' shovelers were able to increase their wages by 60%. Those were not able to reach the standard were given special training in the 'science of shovelling'.

After a three-year period, Taylor and his colleagues reviewed the extent of their success at Bethlehem works.

The results were impressive: the work of 400 - 600 men was being done by 140; handling costs per ton had been reduced by half, and as Taylor was quick to point out, that included costs of the extra clerical work involved in studying jobs; and the labourer received an average of 60% more than their colleagues in neighbouring firms.

All this was achieved without any kind of slave-driving which was no part of scientific management, at least so far as Taylor was concerned."

(G.A. Cole - 1996)

Frederick Taylor's research had a big impact in the motivation of staff when the principles of scientific management were published in 1911.

However, there were criticisms of Taylor's scientific management theory. Some of these criticisms are:

- a) That there was something much more than just monetary reward that was motivating people, which results in emotional and psychological satisfaction.
- b) That the research was carried out only on manual workers. The findings of which the critics believe would not be the same if it was carried out on white collar workers.
- c) Scientific management advocates specialisation and this could create boredom for those workers who have broad based knowledge and skills.

Despite these criticisms, scientific management theories of motivation have immensely influenced present day management.

The entire concept of the performance related pay system is derived from scientific management. A person whose pay is based on commission is a good example of an application of Taylorism. Another example is the overtime pay system where staff is compensated financially for working later than the normal hours. The majority of staff would prefer not to work late if there was no over-time pay.

4. Elton Mayo - Hawthorne Experiments

Elton Mayo was a management consultant who was born in Australia. He was a Professor of Industrial Research at Harvard University when he was hired by the Western Electric company to carry out research into the effects of working conditions on performance.

As a result, he carried out his famous research at the Hawthorne plants of the Western Electric Company near Chicago, Illinois, USA, which is now known as the Hawthorne experiments.

Elton Mayo was one of the critics of Scientific Management's emphasis on monetary reward and efficiency at work. The Hawthorne experiments led to the Human Relations approach to motivation.

"Mayo and his colleagues conducted their experiments in two phases. In the first phase (1924-7) they investigated the effects of changes in illumination on productivity and showed without doubt that there were certain factors, apart from physical ones, which affected the motivation and productivity of a group of workers. The illumination studies were really the harbinger of the main body of research, and the earlier findings in many ways coloured and anticipated later findings.

The second phase (1927-32) of the investigation consisted of four main experiments in the relay assembly and mica-splitting test-room and in the bank wiring observation room.

The study in the relay assembly test-room involved five girls for an experimental period of two years under almost constant monitoring by the researchers. Changes were made in their working conditions, in their hours of work, in the length and periodicity of rest pauses, in the tasks which as individuals they had to perform, in the styles of supervision, and in the incentive payment scheme which was changed according to their preferences.

Generally, it was found that productivity within the selected group was higher throughout than that of control groups. There was greater cohesion, and better communications and relations.

These results led to the formulation of the 'Hawthorne effect' theory, the implications of which are that any group or individual selected as an object of interest will acquire Kudos or ego - satisfaction which may well have a positive effect on performance.

The later bank wiring room observations were conducted with a team of fourteen men engaged in wiring and soldering banks of equipment. Unlike the telephone relay study when the researchers sat with the girls, observations were generally overt. Two cohesive sub-groups, were observed each with norms of production for a fair day's work.

Considerable social pressure in the form of various verbal conjures or ostracism was placed informally by the group on the members to conform to and accepted level of output.

Out of the confusion surrounding the Hawthorne studies a number of points emerge. They suggest that motivation and productivity are the result of complex behaviour patterns, and can be influenced by a range of variables. Time-and-motion studies and the physical conditions of work are clearly not the whole story. The studies, although controversial, introduced a shift of emphasis away from physical factors on to the higher plane of people's mental attitudes to work. They added a rider to the previous simplistic view of industrial behaviours - namely, that in order to produce need - satisfaction and to motivate, one must know to what incentives people will be responsive, and the working environment must be so structured as to provide opportunities for the satisfaction of these needs.

The following is a basic summary of Mayo's conclusion:

- a) *Work is a group activity.*
- b) *The need for recognition, sense of belonging is more important in determining a worker's morale and productivity than the physical conditions in which he works.*
- c) *The worker is a person whose attitudes and effectiveness are conditioned by social demands from both inside and outside the factory.*
- d) *Informal groups within the factory exercise strong social controls over the work habits and attitudes of an individual worker.*
- e) *Group collaboration does not occur by accident; it must be planned for and developed.*

If group collaboration is achieved, the work relations within a work plant may reach a cohesion which resists the disruptive effects of adaptive society."

[M.H. Bottomley - Personnel Management, Pitman Publishing (1990)]

It is worth noting that the Hawthorne experiments which started as research into working conditions and efficiency, accidentally ended up as a study into effects of social relationship at work. Elton Mayo's research led to the concept of the 'social man' at work.

One criticism of Mayo's research is that the people involved knew that research was carried out on them. The critics asserted that the best way to get a truer picture of the research is not to tell them that they have been experimented upon.

Nevertheless, the findings from the Hawthorne experiments are very useful for present day managers as it is because of these studies that we have things like "staff of the year award" where monthly, quarterly or yearly awards are made to outstanding staff.

Other examples of an application of this theory on staff could be appreciation, recognition, giving them greater responsibility and promotion.

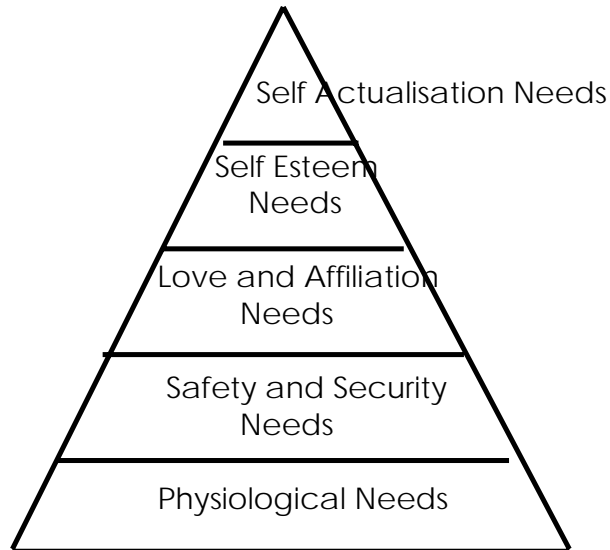
It is worth noting that there is almost always a pay rise when a member of staff is promoted or given greater responsibility, which may seem like motivation based on

Taylorism. It is argued however, that the pay rise as a result of the promotion is not what motivates as the pay rise is only an evidence of the recognition.

5. Abraham H. Maslow - Hierarchy of Needs

One major contribution in the study of motivation is the Hierarchy of Needs theory by Abraham Maslow whose work was published in 1943. Maslow believed that if a member of staff had problems on or outside the work place, he would bring these problems to work, which would have an adverse effect on his performance at work. So this meant that the best way to motivate the staff would be to identify their problems in order to help the staff handle their problems. This could be by advice, counselling, guidance or practical help.

Thus, Maslow goes on to explain his theory by looking at the nature of human needs as the starting point. He said that human needs were in hierarchical form, which looks like a pyramid with five layers or hierarchy as follows:



Physiological Needs are biological or survival needs which include: Housing, shelter, food, water, air to breathe, clothing, rest, sleep and sex.

Safety and Security Needs are about a human's desire to live in safe, secure, stable, not hostile and peaceful environment. These would include: physical safety, health and safety, job security, etc.

Love and Affiliation Needs which could be described as belongingness needs which is people's desire to be affiliated to some thing or person(s), the desire to have a sense of belonging to others. This would include: Friendship, affection, social activities, family union, receiving and giving love, feelings of belonging, human contact.

Ego and Self Esteem Needs are human needs which include: Desire to achieve, properly founded self-respect, confidence, reputation, independence and freedom, prestige, recognition, respect from others, attention, appreciation etc.

Self-Actualisation Needs which represent the highest level of self fulfilment. These describe the desire to develop and demonstrate one's creativity, abilities, capabilities and a desire to be a specialist in an area(s) of knowledge. Jobs where these needs are particularly important may include the following: carpentry, accountancy, medicine, housing, photography, banking and engineering.

Maslow went further and explained that people would seek to satisfy the Physiological (basic) needs first. That there is an automatic mechanism which exists so that once the physiological needs are satisfied, the Safety and Security needs automatically presents themselves to be satisfied and once the safety and security needs are satisfied, then the next layer of needs (love and affiliation) present themselves to be satisfied and so it goes up to Self-Actualisation Needs.

Thus, a man who is homeless and sleeps in the street would not be keen on attending a degree course (which is part of Self actualisation Needs) when he has no home to go to. Neither would a man who is extremely hungry be pre-occupied with security issues, as his priority is getting food to eat.

However, once the homeless man has food to eat, then his next worry is to satisfy Safety and Security needs.

Once a need has been satisfied, it is no longer a motivator, which means that there is a constant desire to satisfy the next layer of needs.

Maslow believed that by helping staff to satisfy their needs, they would be motivated on the job. If this is so, then managers should endeavour to know and understand their staff quite well to successfully apply the provisions of this theory.

This point was emphasised by the example of a social worker who said that the applications of this theory by his manager on him was very successful. The social worker went on to explain what had happened. He was from a very caring and loving family where everybody was happy, friendly and kind to one another.

However, some misunderstanding and family feud occurred that was tearing the family apart and which made him very unhappy at work. He wanted some time off at work to sort out the family problems but couldn't because he had exhausted his holidays.

However, his manager noticed some seemingly unusual behaviour, so called him and asked if something was wrong that he could help with. The social worker explained to his manager what had happened and that he was unable to take any time off work. On hearing that, the manager allowed him a week off, with pay, to sort out the problems.

The social worker said, "it was as if a very heavy load was taken off my back and I promised within me never to disappoint that manager again". Basically he was motivated.

It does not mean that managers should always allow staff off work with pay if a similar situation arises, but the key point is that this manager was able to identify that something was wrong and helped the member of staff to tackle the problem.

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As the social worker later said "I just wanted some time off work; I was not expecting to be paid".

However, there are criticisms of Maslow Theory namely:

- a) That the theory - though good as all individuals would want to satisfy the bottom two needs first before others - is too straight jacketed. One area where there can be a reverse is people trying to satisfy Ego and Self-esteem needs before those of Love and Affiliation.
- b) That two needs could be demanded at the same time, which means it does not have to be one after the other.
- c) That sex as part of the physiological needs cannot be true as there are people who do not engage in sexual activities. These, the critics claim, could be some priests, nuns, monks or others who are celibate.

Nevertheless, Abraham Maslow's theory is very popular amongst managers.

Thus, one application of the theory is where a member of staff with severe financial problems may be advanced some money (IOU) probably through petty cash. This money may then be deducted from the staff's wages over an agreed period of time.

6. Clayton Alderfer - ERG Theory

Clayton Alderfer was a psychologist whose Motivational Theory was derived from that of Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory.

Alderfer believed that Maslow's five hierarchies (layers) of needs could be condensed into three layers called Existence, Relatedness and Growth needs (ERG). His work was published in 1972 as follows:

- a) Existence Needs comprise of Maslow's physiological and security needs plus fringe benefits like money.
- b) Relatedness Needs includes those of Maslow's Love and Affiliation needs plus part of the Ego and Self-Esteem needs that deals with interpersonal relationships at the work place.
- c) Growth Needs as the name suggests includes Maslow's Self-Actualisation Needs and the remnant of the Ego and Self Esteem needs. This area includes the need for personal development and creativity.

Alderfer accepted the basic concept of the Hierarchy of Needs Theory, where the bottom needs are satisfied first before the ones on top. However, he believed that instead of a hierarchy as Maslow described it, it was actually a continuum i.e. the process goes up and down the table.

Alderfer goes on to explain that there is a frustration-regression process which means that when if an attempt to satisfy a higher need is frustrated, the individual concern would regress downwards to needs that he had already satisfied.

Remember that in Maslow's theory it was said that a satisfied need is no longer a motivator.

However, even Alderfer acknowledged that lower needs that have already been satisfied would reduce in influence.

Secondly, Alderfer believes that one or more needs could be demanded at the same time, unlike Maslow's theory which says that they are met one after the other.

Thirdly, Alderfer explained that there are some needs which are purely situational which would become unimportant when there is a change in the work environment.

The conclusion to be drawn from Alderfer's modified theory is that managers should endeavour to focus their staff's attention to satisfying lower needs if the staff's attempts to satisfying higher needs are frustrated.

7. Douglas McGregor - Theory X and Theory Y

Douglas McGregor (1960) theories X and Y are two opposite theories that deal with the particular management style and attitude adopted by managers.

McGregor believed that the attitude and management style adopted would be influenced by the assumption that managers have about people in general.

Theory X is based on some managers assumptions that:

- a) Humans are stupid and continue to need direction.
- b) That they are lazy and dislike work so can never to be trusted.
- c) That to make them work, they need to be coerced and threatened with punishment.
- d) That they hate responsibility, prefer to be controlled and lack initiative.
- e) That they cannot get anything right unless constantly controlled and directed.
- f) They are only motivated at the physiological and security levels.

Managers holding such assumptions about people are more likely to be dictatorial and disrespectful of their staff.

Thus, any mistake made by staff would seem to the manager as self fulfilling prophecy, which may in turn influence the manager to take a harder line thus leading to further demotivation of the staff.

There is no doubt in this case that the manager's assumptions about humans is causing him to view and treat the staff in a negative light.

The implication to managers here is that they should be humble enough to retrace their steps periodically to see if they are in any way contributing to the motivational problems the staff may have. Managers who hold theory X assumptions could be referred to as "Theory" managers.

Theory Y on the other hand is the opposite assumptions that managers may hold about people. This is where managers hold the assumption that:

- a) Humans can be intelligent.
- b) That they are ready and willing to work hard.
- c) Once guided properly they are willing and keen to take up responsibility.
- d) That they can be creative and can use their initiative in doing things.
- e) As a manager, I do not have to be there all the time for them to do things correctly.
- f) They can be motivated at every level.

Managers holding such assumptions are more likely to treat the staff with respect since they are seen as an asset to the organisation. Even where staff goes wrong, such managers would help them back on track without coercion and threat.

Such managers would give them reassurance and confidence that they could do it with proper guidance. This is likely to motivate them. Managers who hold theory Y assumptions could be referred to as "Theory Y" managers.

The conclusion however, is that while theory Y assumptions are preferable, it would be unwise for managers to give total responsibility to staff without any form of control or supervision.

8. W. Ouchi - Theory Z

Theory Z is a Japanese approach to management which was introduced by an American - W. Ouchi in 1981.

"Over the course of the past two decades considerable attention has been given to the success of Japanese manufacturing industries. One of the key factors in their success, according to Ouchi, has been their approach to their management of resources, especially people. Among the key features of Japanese industrial organisations, notes Ouchi are the following personnel-related factors:

- a) *There is a high degree of mutual trust and loyalty between management and employers.*

- b) *Career paths are non-specialised with life-long job rotation as a central feature of career development.*
- c) *Decision-making is shared at all levels.*
- d) *Performance appraisal is long-term (i.e. the first appraisal takes place 10 years after joining the company).*
- e) *There is a sense of collective responsibility. For the success of the organisation, co-operative effort rather than individual achievement is encouraged.*

Although Ouchi recognises that many of the features of Japanese management cannot be translated into Western Industrial Society, he believes that certain features can be applied in a Western context. The move from the present hierarchical type of organisation to a Theory Z type organisation which, says Ouchi: has the objective of developing the ability of the organisation to co-ordinate people, not technology, to achieve productivity.

In his view this requires a new philosophy of managing people based on a combination of the following features of Japanese management."

- 1) *Lifelong employment prospects.*
- 2) *Shared forms of decision making.*
- 3) *Relationships between boss and subordinate based on mutual respect.*

This step requires the following strategy:

- a) *The adoption of a 'top-down' approach, based on a definition of the 'new' philosophy agreed and supported by the organisation's top management.*
- b) *The 'new' philosophy should embrace the ideas of security of employment, shared decision making, career development, team spirit and acknowledgement of individual contribution within the team.*
- c) *The implementation of the new approach should be carried through on the basis of consultation and communication with the workforce and with full training support to develop relevant skills for managers, supervisors and their teams.*

Despite the participative management style implied by the above theory, it is important to note that the Japanese have taken up many of the ideas of F.W. Taylor..."

(G.A. Cole - 1996)

9. Frederick Herzberg - Hygiene Theory

Herzberg's two-factor hygiene theory was based on interview research that he carried out on about two hundred accountants and engineers in 1959.

The objective of the interview was for the accountants and engineers to recall what they thought created satisfaction and what created dissatisfaction at work. The ones that created satisfaction, he called motivators while the ones that created dissatisfaction he called hygiene or maintenance factors.

The resulting Motivators are as follows:-

- a) Achievement
- b) Recognition
- c) Work
- d) Responsibility
- e) Promotion and Advancement
- f) Prospect for growth

On the other hand, the hygiene factors that were identified were:

- a) Company Policy and Administration
- b) Supervision
- c) Relationship with Supervision
- d) Work Conditions
- e) Salaries
- f) Relationship with Peers
- g) Personal Life
- h) Relationship with Staff
- i) Status
- j) Job Security

Others that may be included as hygiene factors are:

- a) Proper Lighting and Ventilation at Work
- b) Health and Safety Facilities
- c) Noise Levels etc.

Herzberg believed that the motivators can create job satisfaction but the hygiene factors cannot. Rather, the hygiene factors if taken care of can only play a preventative role i.e. preventing existing satisfaction from declining though they themselves cannot improve satisfaction.

Thus, managers should not be complacent in thinking that once the hygiene factors are tackled the staff would have been motivated. Instead, what it simply means is that the condition is now right for the motivators to be applied to achieve a positive result.

Which brings us to the next point which is that for the motivators to yield positive results, the hygiene factors should be taken care of first. This clearly shows that consideration of both factors is important.

Thus, no amount of effort in applying the motivators would work if staff has not been paid salary - which is hygiene factor.

Another way of looking at it is that it could be likened to the different but equally important roles that a car and petrol plays. For instance, the petrol cannot take you home, only the car can, but without the petrol, the car cannot take you home.

Herzberg called his research "hygiene" theory as the concept is derived from the principles of hygiene, which is that hygiene only plays a preventative role and is not a cure.

Take for example the common practise that we wash our hands before eating, which is part of common hygiene. This certainly is not intended to improve our health as there is no correlation between washing hands and improvement in health.

Instead, it is intended to prevent our health from deteriorating. This certainly will be equivalent to the hygiene or maintenance factors of Herzberg's theory.

On the other hand, if we want to improve our health; amongst other things it would include proper and regular exercise, eating balanced diet, having enough rest and sleep. These would be equivalent to the motivators as they are a plus to our health.

However, if we fail to wash our hands before eating and as a result we contracted diarrhoea, then no amount of exercise would work at this point. Instead, we would have to arrest the diarrhoea first before we preoccupy ourselves with exercise.

Though there are some criticisms of the theory, it is in general very highly regarded by managers.

10. David Clarence McClelland - Achievement Theory

D.C. McClelland's research into factors that affect work motivation led to the Achievement Theory of Motivation in the 1988.

McClelland believed that there are four major motives that arouse motivation.

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These are:-

- a) Achievement Motive (n Ach)
- b) Power Motive (n Pow)
- c) Affiliation Motive (n Aff)
- d) Avoidance Motive (n Avo)

Managers as far as McClelland is concerned would go for achievement motive rather than that of affiliation and that people with high achievement motive have the following characteristics:-

- a) They are innovative.
- b) They prefer moderate task difficulty.
- c) They prefer personal responsibility for performance of their work
- d) They prefer unambiguous feedback on their performance.
- e) To them, money is not normally a motivator as it serves only as an evidence of their performance. On the other hand he believes that money is a direct motivator for people with low achievement motive.

“McClelland suggests four steps in attempting to develop achievement drive as follows:

- a) Striving to attain feedback on performance. Reinforcement of success serves to strengthen the drive to attain higher performance.*
- b) Developing models of achievement by seeking to emulate people who have performed well.*
- c) Attempting to modify their self-image and to see themselves as needing challenges and success.*
- d) Controlling day-dreaming and thinking about themselves more positive terms”.*

[L.J. Mullins - Management and Organisational Behaviour, Pitman Publishing (1993)]

Furthermore, McClelland advocated that effective manager should also have a drive for power.

11. Victor H. Vroom - Expectancy Theory

Victor Vroom's expectancy theory (1964), a very well respected theory, is based on the assumption that an individual's behaviour or level of motivation is determined not

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necessarily by reality but is determined by the perception that individual holds on the future i.e. the expectation at the end of the road.

The theory is basically describing an individual's perception of the relationship between efforts required, expected level of performance and the expected level of rewards.

Vroom claims that there are three things that exist in the proper explanation of the theory. These he called Expectancy, Instrumentality and Valence.

- a) Expectancy describes the level of an individual's perception that a particular effort would result in a particular desired outcome.
- b) Instrumentality is the level of the individual's perception that effective performance would lead to the desired rewards.
- c) Valence is the extent of the perception that the desired rewards are available in the first place.

Expectancy explains that faced with alternatives, that have uncertain outcomes, a person's choice of a particular alternative will not only be influenced by his likeness for it but also the probability that it will lead to a desired outcome.

Thus, faced with the alternatives of, say, a movie career and a University degree course, a person's choice for a University degree course will not only be influenced by the fact that he really liked having a degree but also the fact that he would have the job that he desires if he completes the course.

Instrumentality on the other hand explains that a person's level of motivation would be greatly influenced by his level of conviction that effective work performance will result in desired reward.

Thus, a person's desire of becoming a manager is more likely to lead to an increase in work performance if the means of becoming a manager is judged by the staff's performance level. However, if the choice of who becomes a manager is not judged by performance, then this person will have no need to improve performance.

Valence deals with the person's perception of the possibility of the organisation having the post of a manager in the first place.

Thus, this person is unlikely to be motivated if there can never be a vacancy for the post of a manager.

Vroom's expectancy theory could also be used to counter claims that certain races or ethnic groups are less intelligent than others as their level of performance at school or work could be immensely influenced by their expectation that it would lead to a desired result, namely employment

Thus, a manager's role in these circumstances would be an effective management of expectations of staff.

The Expectancy theory of Victor Vroom was later modified by Porter and Lawler but the fundamental principles remains the same.

12. John Stacey Adams - Equity Theory

Vroom, Lawler and Porter's Expectancy theory opened the way for other theories of motivation based on expectation.

One of such theories is the Equity Theory by John Adams, published in 1963.

Adams explained that a person's level of motivation will be influenced by the perception on how fairly he has been treated or will be treated compared to his peers at work. He would be demotivated if he feels that he is having a bad deal compared to others.

Adams believed that such persons are likely to behave in any six ways as indicated below:-

- a) Change their inputs at work.
- b) Distort their perceptions of themselves i.e. thinking they work harder than usual.
- c) Distort their perceptions of others i.e. thinking others do not work as hard as they used to think.
- d) Change their outcomes at work.
- e) Wanting to leave the job.
- f) Changing the object of comparison i.e. by saying something like "I am certainly better than Peter even though I may not be as good as John".

Pay differentials and promotions are good examples of where staff may feel a there is inequity.

13. Edwin A. Locke - Goal Theory

Another theory similar to that of Vroom is the goal theory (1984) by Locke which says that a person's intentions or goals in life would determine his level of motivation.

Remember that, though similar, this is different from Vroom's expectancy theory. While Vroom talks about a person's expectations, Locke's theory is concerned with a person's goals which is much more positive than expectations.

Thus, based on this theory, a person who has clear goals in mind is much more likely to be motivated to accomplishing these goals.

L.J. Mullins in Management and Organisational Behaviour (1993), identifies some practical implications for managers in applying the goals theory:-

- a) Specific performance goals should systematically be identified and set in order to direct behaviour and maintain motivation.

- b) Goals should be set at a challenging but realistic level. Difficult goals lead to higher performance. However, if goals are set at too high a level, or are regarded as impossible to achieve, performance will suffer, especially over a long period.
- c) Complete, accurate and timely feedback and knowledge of results is usually associated with high performance. Feedback provides a means of checking progress on goal attainment and forms the basis for a revision of goals.
- d) Goals can be determined either by a supervisor or by individuals themselves. Goals set by other people are more likely to be accepted when there is participation. Employee participation in the setting of goals may lead to higher performance.

14. Burrhus Frederick Skinner – Operant Conditioning

B. F. Skinner's operant conditioning theory (1938) of motivation is that the consequences of our past actions influence our future actions in a cyclical learning process. Thus, people's present behaviour is as a result of the experience people have gained from the consequences of their past actions. From past experience, people know that certain actions can lead to pleasant consequences and others to unpleasant consequences. As a result, many people are most likely to avoid behaviour that results to unpleasant consequences.

Skinner carried out his experiments on rats, and was a huge breakthrough in the study of animal behaviour.

Part of the experiment is explained below.

*"In **Operant Conditioning**, behaviour is also affected by its consequences, but the process is not trial-and-error learning. It can be best explained with an example. A hungry rat is placed in a semi-soundproof box. For several days bits of food are occasionally delivered into a tray by an automatic dispenser. The rat soon goes to the tray immediately upon hearing the sound of the dispenser. A small horizontal section of a lever protruding from the wall has been resting in its lowest position, but it is now raised slightly so that when the rat touches it, it moves downward. In doing so it closes an electric circuit and operated the food dispenser. Immediately after eating the delivered food the rat begins to press the lever fairly rapidly. The behaviour has been strengthened or reinforced by a single consequence. The rat was not "trying" to do anything when it first touched the lever and it did not learn from "errors."*

To a hungry rat, food is a natural reinforcer, but the reinforcer in this example is the sound of the food dispenser, which was conditioned as a reinforcer when it was repeatedly followed by the delivery of food before the lever was pressed. In fact, the sound of that one operation of the dispenser would have had an observable effect even though no food was delivered on that occasion, but when food no longer follows pressing the lever, the rat eventually stops pressing. The behaviour is said to have been extinguished.

An operant can come under the control of a stimulus. If pressing the lever is reinforced when a light is on but not when it is off, responses continue to be made in the light but seldom, if at all, in the dark. The rat has formed discrimination between light and dark. When one turns on the light, a response occurs, but that is not a reflex response.

The lever can be pressed with different amounts of force, and if only strong responses are reinforced, the rat presses more and more forcefully. If only weak responses are reinforced, it eventually responds only very weakly. The process is called differentiation.

A response must first occur for other reasons before it is reinforced and becomes an operant. It may seem as if a very complex response would never occur to be reinforced, but complex responses can be shaped by reinforcing their component parts separately and putting them together in the final form of the operant.

Operant reinforcement not only shapes the topography of behaviour, it maintains it in strength long after an operant has been formed. Schedules of reinforcement are important in maintaining behaviour. If a response has been reinforced for some time only once every five minutes, for example, the rat soon stops responding immediately after reinforcement but responds more and more rapidly as the time for the next reinforcement approaches. (That is called fixed-interval schedule of reinforcement.) If a response has been reinforced in the average every five minutes but unpredictably, the rat responds at a steady rate. (That is a variable-interval schedule of reinforcement.) If the average interval is short, the rate is high; if it is long, the rate is low.

If a response is reinforced when a given number of responses has been emitted, the rat responds more and more rapidly as the required number is approached. (That is a fixed-ratio schedule of reinforcement.) The number can be increased by easy stages up to a very high value; the rat will continue to respond even though a response is only very rarely reinforced. "Piece-rate pay" in industry is an example of a fixed-ratio schedule, and employers are sometimes tempted to "stretch" it by increasing the amount of work required for each unit of payment. When reinforcement occurs after an average number of responses but unpredictably, the schedule is called variable-ratio. It is familiar in gambling devices and systems which arrange occasional but unpredictable payoffs. The required number of responses can easily be stretched, and in a gambling enterprise such as a casino the average ratio must be such that the gambler loses in the long run if the casino is to make a profit.

Reinforcers may be positive or negative. A positive reinforcer reinforces when it is presented; a negative reinforcer reinforces when it is withdrawn. Negative reinforcement is not punishment. Reinforcers always strengthen behaviour; that is what "reinforced" means. Punishment is used to suppress behaviour. It consists of removing a positive reinforcer or presenting a negative one. It often seems to operate by conditioning negative reinforcers. The punished person henceforth acts in ways which reduce the threat of punishment and which are incompatible with, and hence take the place of, the behaviour punished.

This human species is distinguished by the fact that its vocal responses can be easily conditioned as operants. There are many kinds of verbal operants

because the behaviour must be reinforced only through the mediation of other people, and they do many different things. The reinforcing practices of a given culture compose what is called a language. The practices are responsible for most of the extraordinary achievements of the human species. Other species acquire behaviour from each other through imitation and modelling (they show each other what to do), but they cannot tell each other what to do. We acquire most of our behaviour with that kind of help. We take advice, heed warnings, observe rules, and obey laws, and our behaviour then comes under the control of consequences which would otherwise not be effective. Most of our behaviour is too complex to have occurred for the first time without such verbal help. By taking advice and following rules we acquire a much more extensive repertoire than would be possible through a solitary contact with the environment.

Responding because behaviour has had reinforcing consequences is very different from responding by taking advice, following rules, or obeying laws. We do not take advice because of the particular consequence that will follow; we take it only when taking other advice from similar sources has already had reinforcing consequences. In general, we are much more strongly inclined to do things if they have had immediate reinforcing consequences than if we have been merely advised to do them.

The innate behaviour studied by ethologists is shaped and maintained by its contribution to the survival of the individual and species. Operant behaviour is shaped and maintained by its consequences for the individual. Both processes have controversial features. Neither one seems to have any place for a prior plan or purposes. In both, selection replaces creation.

Personal freedom also seems threatened. It is only the feeling of freedom, however, which is affected. Those who respond because their behaviour has had positively reinforcing consequences usually feel free. They seem to be doing what they want to do. Those who respond because the reinforcement has been negative and who are therefore avoiding or escaping from punishment are doing what they have to do and do not feel free. These distinctions do not involve the fact of freedom.

The experimental analysis of operant behaviour has led to a technology often called behaviour modification. It usually consists of changing the consequences of behaviour, removing consequences which have caused trouble, or arranging new consequences for behaviour which has lacked strength. Historically, people have been controlled primarily through negative reinforcement that is, they have been punished when they have not done what is reinforcing to those who could punish them. Positive reinforcement has been less often used, partly because its effect is slightly deferred, but it can be as effective as negative reinforcement and has many fewer unwanted by-products. For example, students who are punished when they do not study may study, but they may also stay away from school (truancy), vandalise school property, attack teachers, or stubbornly do nothing. Redesigning school systems so that what students do is more often positively reinforced can make a great difference."

[B.F. Skinner Foundation (2004)]

15. Job Satisfaction

So far we have said that motivation can lead to not only increased performance but also job satisfaction.

However, there are several other factors that influence job satisfaction.

(a) Factors Influencing Job Satisfaction

According to L.J. Mullins (1993), some of the major factors which have an influence on job satisfaction include:

- Frustration and alienation
- The nature of technology
- The meaningfulness of work
- The nature of supervision
- Work and psychological well-being
- Role incongruence and role conflict

(b) Job Design

Job design is one of the tools for job satisfaction. The individual's job in the organisation should be designed in a way that it causes neither an overload or under load. An overloaded job could cause stress, while an under loaded one could cause boredom.

There are 3 main tools under job design, namely:

i) Job Rotation

Job rotation as a means of job design is to rotate the task of the employee so that he can be moved from one task to another and to others. Such rotation of job creates a variety for the employee so that he does not become bored with a monotonous job. Rotation also enables employees to multiply skills as they learn so many different aspects of the job.

ii) Job Enlargement

Another aspect of job design is job enlargement. This involves increasing the scope and tasks of the job for the employee, by a combination of related activities.

Job enlargement will be particularly useful in cases where there is a job underload.

Job enlargement is also referred to as horizontal job design, as the job tasks become larger horizontally.

iii) Job Enrichment

Closely related to job enlargement is job enrichment, which is another tool of job design.

Job enrichment, which is referred to as vertical job enlargement, seeks to give greater autonomy and authority to the staff, so that staff have more responsibility and are more involved in the decision making process.

According to Mullins, some of the methods of achieving job enrichment include the following:

- Permitting workers to build a complete product, or a complete component of a large product, undertake a full task cycle, or provide a complete service;
- Giving workers the opportunity to have direct contact with the users of the product or service provided;
- Allowing workers greater freedom over the scheduling and pacing of their own work; and
- Providing workers with direct feedback on their performance, and increased responsibility for checking and control of their own work.

Conclusion

To summarise, it can be seen that all of these theories have some degree of truth in them and that they have all contributed enormously to the study of motivation and job satisfaction.

Thus, in the management/employee relationship, managers should be able to apply the motivation theory that is appropriate at the time considering the circumstances. This is important, as what motivates one member of staff at a particular time may not be an effective motivator for another.

Self-Assessment Questions

1. *How would you define "motivation"?*
2. *List the main theories which have arisen as a result of the study of motivation and job satisfaction.*
3. *Based on your own experience, choose 3 of the above theories and explain how you have seen them in used or applied in your place of work.*
4. *Which of the theories do you believe is the most important? Give reasons for your choice.*
5. *Based on the theories you have studied, how would you approach the following situations in order to resolve them?*
 - a) *You manage a team of 10 people on a production line who are complaining that there isn't enough work to keep them busy.*
 - b) *You supervise two office workers one of whom is very experienced and one of whom has only been working with you for a week. You think the more experienced member of staff is a bit jealous of the new and enthusiastic starter, who seems to do twice as much work even though very inexperienced. What can you do?*

- c) *One of your employees seems more quiet than normal and you notice their quality of work has been suffering. How can you tackle this?*
- d) *You work in a rent collection department where the rate of collections has been getting worse and worse. Your staff has all been there for several years and knows their jobs very well. They don't like criticism from you because you are the youngest and least experienced at rent collection. How can you improve their collection rate?*
6. *How do you think a broad knowledge of the different theories discussed might help you in your job as a manager? Give examples.*
7. *How useful, in your opinion, is job design?*
8. *How useful is B.F. Skinner's contribution to motivation?*