

## Key concepts and terms

- Content or needs theory
- Discretionary behaviour
- Equity theory
- ERG theory
- Expectancy theory
- Extrinsic motivation
- Goal theory
- Herzberg's two-factor theory
- Instrumentality
- Instrumentality theory
- Intrinsic motivation
- Maslow's hierarchy of needs
- McGregor's theory X and theory Y
- McClelland's need theory
- Motivation
- Process or cognitive theory
- Quality of working life
- Reinforcement theory
- Social learning theory
- Valency–instrumentality–expectancy theory

## Learning outcomes

On completing this chapter you should be able to define these key concepts. You should also know about:

- The process of motivation
- Motivation theories
- Motivation strategies
- Types of motivation
- Motivation and money

## Introduction

High performance is achieved by well-motivated people who are prepared to exercise discretionary effort. Even in fairly basic roles, Hunter *et al* (1990) found that the difference in value-added discretionary performance between ‘superior’ and ‘standard’ performers was 19 per cent. For highly complex jobs it was 48 per cent.

To motivate people it is necessary to appreciate how motivation works. This means understanding motivation theory and how the theory can be put into practice, as discussed in this chapter.

## Motivation defined

A motive is a reason for doing something. Motivation is concerned with the strength and direction of behaviour and the factors that influence people to behave in certain ways. The term ‘motivation’ can refer variously to the goals individuals have, the ways in which individuals chose their goals and the ways in which others try to change their behaviour.

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#### The three components of motivation, Arnold *et al* (1991)

1. Direction – what a person is trying to do.
2. Effort – how hard a person is trying.
3. Persistence – how long a person keeps on trying.

Motivating other people is about getting them to move in the direction you want them to go in order to achieve a result. Motivating yourself is about setting the direction independently and then taking a course of action that will ensure that you get there. Motivation can be described as goal-directed behaviour. People are motivated when they expect that a course of action is likely to lead to the attainment of a goal and a valued reward – one that satisfies their needs and wants.

Well-motivated people engage in discretionary behaviour – in the majority of roles there is scope for individuals to decide how much effort to exert. Such people may be self-motivated,

and as long as this means they are going in the right direction to attain what they are there to achieve, then this is the best form of motivation. Most of us, however, need to be motivated to a greater or lesser degree. There are two types of motivation, and a number of theories explaining how it works as discussed below.

## Types of motivation

The two types of motivation are intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation.

### Intrinsic motivation

Intrinsic motivation can arise from the self-generated factors that influence people's behaviour. It is not created by external incentives. It can take the form of motivation by the work itself when individuals feel that their work is important, interesting and challenging and provides them with a reasonable degree of autonomy (freedom to act), opportunities to achieve and advance, and scope to use and develop their skills and abilities. Deci and Ryan (1985) suggested that intrinsic motivation is based on the needs to be competent and self-determining (that is, to have a choice).

Intrinsic motivation can be enhanced by job or role design. According to an early writer on the significance of the motivational impact of job design (Katz, 1964): 'The job itself must provide sufficient variety, sufficient complexity, sufficient challenge and sufficient skill to engage the abilities of the worker.' In their job characteristics model, Hackman and Oldham (1974) emphasized the importance of the core job dimensions as motivators, namely skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback.

### Extrinsic motivation

Extrinsic motivation occurs when things are done to or for people to motivate them. These include rewards, such as incentives, increased pay, praise, or promotion; and punishments, such as disciplinary action, withholding pay, or criticism.

Extrinsic motivators can have an immediate and powerful effect, but will not necessarily last long. The intrinsic motivators, which are concerned with the 'quality of working life' (a phrase and movement that emerged from this concept), are likely to have a deeper and longer-term effect because they are inherent in individuals and their work and not imposed from outside in such forms as incentive pay.

## Motivation theories

There are a number of motivation theories which, in the main, are complementary to one another. The leading theories are listed and described below and summarized in Table 19.1. The most significant ones are those concerned with expectancy, goal setting and equity, which are classified as process or cognitive theories.

**Table 19.1** Summary of motivation theories

Category	Type	Theorist(s)	Summary of theory	Implications
Instrumentality	Taylorism	Taylor (1911)	If we do one thing it leads to another. People will be motivated to work if rewards and punishments are directly related to their performance	Basis of crude attempts to motivate people by incentives. Often used as the implied rationale for performance-related pay although this is seldom an effective motivator
Reinforcement	The motivation process	Hull (1951)	As experience is gained in satisfying needs people perceive that certain actions help to achieve goals while others are unsuccessful. The successful actions are repeated when a similar need arises	Provides feedback which positively reinforces effective behaviour
Needs (content) theory	Hierarchy of needs	Maslow (1954)	A hierarchy of five needs exist: physiological, safety, social, esteem, self-fulfilment. Needs at a higher level only emerge when a lower need is satisfied	Focuses attention on the various needs that motivate people and the notion that a satisfied need is no longer a motivator. The concept of a hierarchy has no practical significance
	ERG theory	Alderfer (1972)	Three fundamental needs: existence, relatedness and growth	A simpler and more convincing approach to Maslow's on the motivation provided by needs

Table 19.1 *continued*

Category	Type	Theorist(s)	Summary of theory	Implications
Needs (content) theory <i>continued</i>	Managerial needs theory	McClelland (1973)	Managers have three fundamental needs: achievement, affiliation and power	Draws attention to the needs of managers and the important concept of 'achievement motivation'
Process/cognitive theory	Expectancy theory	Vroom (1964), Porter and Lawler (1968)	Effort (motivation) depends on the likelihood that rewards will follow effort and that the reward is worthwhile	The key theory informing approaches to rewards, ie that they must be a link between effort and reward (line of sight), the reward should be achievable and should be worthwhile
	Goal theory	Latham and Locke (1979)	Motivation will improve if people have demanding but agreed goals and receive feedback	Provides the rationale for performance management, goal setting and feedback
	Equity theory	Adams (1965)	People are better motivated if treated equitably	Need to have equitable reward and employment practices.
	Social learning theory	Bandura (1977)	Emphasizes the importance of internal psychological factors, especially expectancies about the value of goals and the individual's ability to reach them	Influences performance management and learning and development practices

Table 19.1 *continued*

Category	Type	Theorist(s)	Summary of theory	Implications
Two-factor model	Related to needs theory	Herzberg <i>et al</i> (1957)	Two groups of factors affect job satisfaction: (1) those intrinsic to the work itself; (2) those extrinsic to the job (extrinsic motivators or hygiene factors) such as pay and working conditions	Identifies a number of fundamental needs ie achievement, recognition, advancement, autonomy and the work itself. Influences approaches to job design (job enrichment). Underpins the proposition that reward systems should provide for both financial and non-financial rewards
Theory X and theory Y	General approaches to motivation	McGregor (1960)	Theory X is the traditional view that people must be coerced into performing; theory Y is the view that people will exercise self-direction and self-direction in the service of objectives to which they are committed	Emphasizes the importance of commitment, rewards and integrating individual and organizational needs

### Leading motivation theories

- Reinforcement theory.
- Instrumentality theory.
- Content or needs theory.
- Process or cognitive theory.

- Herzberg's two-factor (motivation-hygiene) theory.
- McGregor's theory X and theory Y.

## Instrumentality theory

'Instrumentality' is the belief that if we do one thing it will lead to another. In its crudest form, instrumentality theory states that people only work for money.

The theory emerged in the second half of the 19th century with its emphasis on the need to rationalize work and on economic outcomes. It assumes that people will be motivated to work if rewards and penalties are tied directly to their performance; thus the awards are contingent upon effective performance. Instrumentality theory has its roots in the scientific management methods of Taylor (1911), who wrote: 'It is impossible, through any long period of time, to get workmen to work much harder than the average men around them unless they are assured a large and permanent increase in their pay.'

This theory provides a rationale for incentive pay, albeit a dubious one. It is based on the principle of reinforcement. Motivation using this approach has been and still is widely adopted and can be successful in some circumstances. But it is based exclusively on a system of external controls and fails to recognize a number of other human needs. It also fails to appreciate the fact that the formal control system can be seriously affected by the informal relationship existing between workers.

## Reinforcement theory

As experience is gained in taking action to satisfy needs; people perceive that certain actions help to achieve their goals while others are less successful. Some actions bring rewards; others result in failure or even punishment. Reinforcement theory as developed by Hull (1951) suggests that successes in achieving goals and rewards act as positive incentives and reinforce the successful behaviour, which is repeated the next time a similar need emerges. The more powerful, obvious and frequent the reinforcement, the more likely it is that the behaviour will be repeated until, eventually, it can become a more or less unconscious reaction to an event. Conversely, failures or punishments provide negative reinforcement, suggesting that it is necessary to seek alternative means of achieving goals. This process has been called 'the law of effect'.

The associated concept of operant conditioning (Skinner, 1974) explains that new behaviours or responses become established through particular stimuli, hence conditioning – getting people to repeat behaviour by positive reinforcement in the form of feedback and knowledge

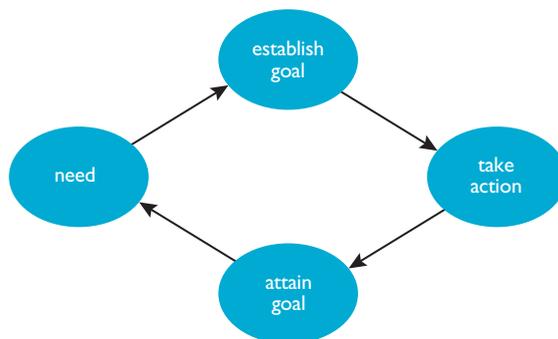
of results. The concept suggests that people behave in ways they expect will produce positive outcomes. It is linked to expectancy theory, as described later in this chapter and also contributes to learning theory (see Chapter 41).

The degree to which experience shapes future behaviour does, of course, depend, first, on the extent to which individuals correctly perceive the connection between the behaviour and its outcome and, second, on the extent to which they are able to recognize the resemblance between the previous situation and the one that now confronts them. Perceptive ability varies between people as does the ability to identify correlations between events. For these reasons, some people are better at learning from experience than others, just as some people are more easily motivated than others.

It has been suggested that behavioural theories based on the principle of reinforcement or the law of effect are limited because they imply, in Allport's (1954) phrase, a 'hedonism of the past'. They assume that the explanation of the present choices of individuals is to be found in an examination of the consequences of their past choices. Insufficient attention is paid in the theories to the influence of expectations, and no indication is given of any means of distinguishing in advance the class of outcomes that would strengthen responses and those that would weaken them.

### Content (needs) theory

The theory focuses on the content of motivation in the shape of needs. Its basis is the belief that an unsatisfied need creates tension and a state of disequilibrium. To restore the balance a goal is identified that will satisfy the need, and a behaviour pathway is selected that will lead to the achievement of the goal and the satisfaction of the need. All behaviour is therefore motivated by unsatisfied needs. This process is modelled in Figure 19.1 below:



**Figure 19.1** The process of motivation

There are three points that emerge from this model. First, people have a multiplicity of needs depending on themselves and the situation they are in. Second, they can select all sorts of goals

and actions to satisfy those needs. Third, while we can observe their behaviour we cannot be certain of the needs and goals that motivated it. It is unwise to assume that any one approach to motivation will appeal to all affected by it. Motivation policies and practices must recognize that people are different.

Needs theory has been developed by Maslow, Alderfer and McClelland, as described below.

### *Maslow's hierarchy of needs*

The most famous classification of needs is the one formulated by Maslow (1954). He suggested that there are five major need categories that apply to people in general, starting from the fundamental physiological needs and leading through a hierarchy of safety, social and esteem needs to the need for self-fulfilment, the highest need of all. When a lower need is satisfied the next highest becomes dominant and the individual's attention is turned to satisfying this higher need. The need for self-fulfilment, however, can never be satisfied. 'Man is a wanting animal'; only an unsatisfied need can motivate behaviour and the dominant need is the prime motivator of behaviour. Psychological development takes place as people move up the hierarchy of needs, but this is not necessarily a straightforward progression. The lower needs still exist, even if temporarily dormant as motivators, and individuals constantly return to previously satisfied needs.

Maslow's needs hierarchy has an intuitive appeal and has been very popular. But it has not been verified by empirical research such as that conducted by Wahba and Bridwell (1979), and it has been criticized for its apparent rigidity (different people may have different priorities and it is difficult to accept that needs progress steadily up the hierarchy) and for the misleading simplicity of Maslow's conceptual language. In fact, Maslow himself expressed doubts about the validity of a strictly ordered hierarchy.

### *ERG theory (Alderfer)*

Alderfer (1972) devised a theory of human needs that postulated three primary categories:

1. Existence needs such as hunger and thirst – pay, fringe benefits and working conditions are other types of existence needs.
2. Relatedness needs, which acknowledge that people are not self-contained units but must engage in transactions with their human environment – acceptance, understanding, confirmation and influence are elements of the relatedness process.
3. Growth needs, which involve people in finding the opportunities 'to be what they are most fully and to become what they can'.

### *McClelland's achievement–affiliation–power needs*

An alternative way of classifying needs was developed by McClelland (1961), who based it mainly on studies of managers. He identified three needs as being most important:

1. The need for achievement, defined as the need for competitive success measured against a personal standard of excellence.
2. The need for affiliation, defined as the need for warm, friendly, compassionate relationships with others.
3. The need for power, defined as the need to control or influence others.

Different individuals have different levels of these needs. Some have a greater need for achievement, others a stronger need for affiliation, and still others a stronger need for power. While one need may be dominant, however, this does not mean that the others are non-existent.

The three needs may be given different priorities at different levels of management. Achievement needs are particularly important for success in many junior and middle management jobs where it is possible to feel direct responsibility for task accomplishment. But in senior management positions a concern for institutionalized as opposed to personal power becomes more important. A strong need for affiliation is not so significant at any level.

### **Process theory**

In process theory, the emphasis is on the psychological processes or forces that affect motivation, as well as on basic needs. It is also known as 'cognitive theory' because it is concerned with people's perceptions of their working environment and the ways in which they interpret and understand it. According to Guest (1992), process theory provides a much more relevant approach to motivation that replaces the theories of Maslow and Herzberg which, he claims, have been shown by extensive research to be wrong.

Process or cognitive theory can certainly be more useful to managers than needs theory because it provides more realistic guidance on motivation techniques. The main processes are expectations, goal achievement and feelings about equity.

### *Expectancy theory*

Expectancy theory states that motivation will be high when people know what they have to do to get a reward, expect that they will be able to get the reward and expect that the reward will be worthwhile.

The concept of expectancy was originally contained in the valency–instrumentality–expectancy (VIE) theory formulated by Vroom (1964). Valency stands for value, instrumentality is

the belief that if we do one thing it will lead to another, and expectancy is the probability that action or effort will lead to an outcome.

The strength of expectations may be based on past experiences (reinforcement), but individuals are frequently presented with new situations – a change in job, payment system, or working conditions imposed by management – where past experience is an inadequate guide to the implications of the change. In these circumstances, motivation may be reduced.

Motivation is only likely when a clearly perceived and usable relationship exists between performance and outcome, and the outcome is seen as a means of satisfying needs. This explains why extrinsic financial motivation – for example, an incentive or bonus scheme – works only if the link (line of sight) between effort and reward is clear and the value of the reward is worth the effort. It also explains why intrinsic motivation arising from the work itself can be more powerful than extrinsic motivation; intrinsic motivation outcomes are more under the control of individuals, who can place greater reliance on their past experiences to indicate the extent to which positive and advantageous results are likely to be obtained by their behaviour.

This theory was developed by Porter and Lawler (1968) into a model that follows Vroom’s ideas by suggesting that there are two factors determining the effort people put into their jobs: first the value of the rewards to individuals in so far as they satisfy their needs for security, social esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization, and second the probability that rewards depend on effort, as perceived by individuals – in other words, their expectations about the relationships between effort and reward. Thus, the greater the value of a set of awards and the higher the probability that receiving each of these rewards depends upon effort, the greater the effort that will be expended in a given situation.

But, as Porter and Lawler emphasize, mere effort is not enough. It has to be effective effort if it is to produce the desired performance. The two variables additional to effort that affect task achievement are 1) ability – individual characteristics such as intelligence, knowledge, skills, and 2) role perceptions – what individuals want to do or think they are required to do. These are good from the viewpoint of the organization if they correspond with what it thinks the individual ought to be doing. They are poor if the views of the individual and the organization do not coincide. A model of their theory is shown in Figure 19.2.

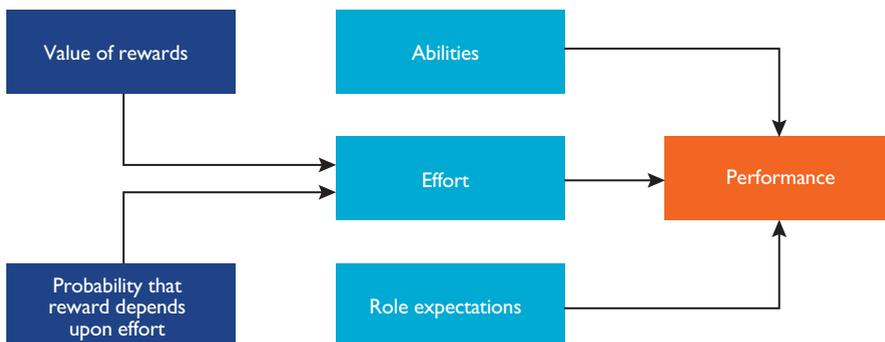


Figure 19.2 Motivation model (Porter and Lawler)

### *Goal theory*

Goal theory as developed by Latham and Locke (1979) states that motivation and performance are higher when individuals are set specific goals, when goals are difficult but accepted, and when there is feedback on performance. Participation in goal setting is important as a means of getting agreement to the setting of higher goals. Difficult goals must be agreed and their achievement reinforced by guidance and advice. Finally, feedback is vital in maintaining motivation, particularly towards the achievement of even higher goals.

Goal theory is in line with the 1960s concept of management by objectives (a process of managing, motivating and appraising people by setting objectives or goals and measuring performance against those objectives). But management by objectives or MBO fell into disrepute because it was tackled bureaucratically without gaining the real support of those involved and, importantly, without ensuring that managers were aware of the significance of the processes of agreement, reinforcement and feedback, and were skilled in practising them. Goal theory, however, plays a key part in performance management, as described in Chapter 38.

### *Social learning theory*

Social learning theory as developed by Bandura (1977) combines aspects of both behavioural and expectancy theory. It recognizes the significance of the basic behavioural concept of reinforcement as a determinant of future behaviour but also emphasizes the importance of internal psychological factors, especially expectancies about the value of goals and the individual's ability to reach them. The term 'reciprocal determinism' is used to denote the concept that while the situation will affect individual behaviour, individuals will simultaneously influence the situation.

Robertson and Cooper (1983) have pointed out that 'there are many similarities between social learning theory and expectancy theory in their joint emphasis on expectancies, individual goals and values and the influence of both person and situational factors'.

### *Equity theory*

Equity theory (Adams, 1965) is concerned with the perceptions people have about how they are being treated as compared with others. To be dealt with equitably is to be treated fairly in comparison with another group of people (a reference group) or a relevant other person. Equity involves feelings and perceptions and it is always a comparative process. It is not synonymous with equality, which means treating everyone the same, since this would be inequitable if they deserve to be treated differently.

Equity theory states, in effect, that people will be better motivated if they are treated equitably and demotivated if they are treated inequitably. It explains only one aspect of the processes of motivation and job satisfaction, although it may be significant in terms of morale.

There are two forms of equity: distributive equity, which is concerned with the fairness with which people feel they are rewarded in accordance with their contribution and in comparison with others; and procedural equity, which is concerned with the perceptions employees have about the fairness with which company procedures in such areas as performance appraisal, promotion and discipline are being operated.

## Herzberg's two-factor model

The two-factor model of satisfiers and dissatisfiers was developed by Herzberg *et al* (1957) following an investigation into the sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction of accountants and engineers. It was assumed that people have the capacity to report accurately the conditions that made them satisfied and dissatisfied with their jobs. Accordingly, the subjects were asked to tell their interviewers about the times during which they felt exceptionally good and exceptionally bad about their jobs and how long their feelings persisted. It was found that the accounts of 'good' periods most frequently concerned the content of the job, particularly achievement, recognition, advancement, responsibility, and the work itself. On the other hand, accounts of 'bad' periods most frequently concerned the context of the job. Company policy and administration, supervision, salary and working conditions more frequently appeared in these accounts than in those told about 'good' periods. The main implications of this research, according to Herzberg *et al*, were explained as follows.

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#### Implications of their research as explained by Herzberg *et al* (1957)

The wants of employees divide into two groups. One group revolves around the need to develop in one's occupation as a source of personal growth. The second group operates as an essential base to the first and is associated with fair treatment in compensation, supervision, working conditions and administrative practices. The fulfilment of the needs of the second group does not motivate the individual to high levels of job satisfaction and to extra performance on the job. All we can expect from satisfying this second group of needs is the prevention of dissatisfaction and poor job performance.

The second group forms the hygiene factors in the medical use of the term, meaning preventive and environmental. Herzberg pointed out that while financial incentives may motivate in the short term, the effect quickly wears off.

Herzberg's two-factor theory has been strongly attacked by, for example, Opsahl and Dunnette (1966). The research method has been criticized because no attempt was made to measure the

relationship between satisfaction and performance. It has been suggested that the two-factor nature of the theory is an inevitable result of the questioning method used by the interviewers. It has also been suggested that wide and unwarranted inferences have been drawn from small and specialized samples and that there is no evidence to suggest that the satisfiers do improve productivity.

In spite of these criticisms the Herzberg two-factor theory continues to thrive; partly because it is easy to understand and seems to be based on 'real life' rather than academic abstractions, and partly because it convincingly emphasizes the positive value of the intrinsic motivating factors. It is also in accord with a fundamental belief in the dignity of labour and the Protestant ethic – that work is good in itself. As a result, Herzberg had immense influence on the job enrichment movement, which sought to design jobs in a way that would maximize the opportunities to obtain intrinsic satisfaction from work and thus improve the quality of working life.

## McGregor's Theory X and Y

Douglas McGregor (1960) produced his analysis of the different views about people and how they should be motivated. Theory X is the traditional view that the average human dislikes work and wishes to avoid responsibility and that, therefore, 'most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, threatened with punishment to get them to put forward adequate effort towards organizational objectives'. In contrast, theory Y emphasizes that people will exercise self-direction in the service of objectives to which they are committed and that commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement.

## Motivation and money

Money, in the form of pay or some other sort of remuneration, is the most obvious extrinsic reward. Money seems to provide the carrot most people want.

Doubts were cast on the effectiveness of money by Herzberg *et al* (1957) because, they claimed, while the lack of it can cause dissatisfaction, its provision does not result in lasting satisfaction. There is something in this, especially for people on fixed salaries or rates of pay who do not benefit directly from an incentive scheme. They may feel good when they get an increase; apart from the extra money, it is a highly tangible form of recognition and an effective means of helping people to feel that they are valued. But this feeling of euphoria can rapidly die away. Other dissatisfactions from Herzberg's list of hygiene factors, such as working conditions or the quality of management, can loom larger in some people's minds when they fail to get the satisfaction they need from the work itself. However, it must be re-emphasized that different people have different needs and wants. Some will be much more motivated by money than others. What cannot be assumed is that money motivates everyone in the same way and to the

same extent. Thus it is naïve to think that the introduction of a performance-related pay scheme will miraculously transform everyone overnight into well-motivated, high-performing individuals.

Nevertheless, money is a powerful force because it is linked directly or indirectly to the satisfaction of many needs. Money may in itself have no intrinsic meaning, but it acquires significant motivating power because it comes to symbolize so many intangible goals. It acts as a symbol in different ways for different people, and for the same person at different times.

But do financial incentives motivate people? The answer is yes, for those people who are strongly motivated by money and whose expectations that they will receive a financial reward are high. But less confident employees may not respond to incentives that they do not expect to achieve. It can also be argued that extrinsic rewards may erode intrinsic interest – people who work just for money could find their tasks less pleasurable and may not, therefore, do them so well. What we do know is that a multiplicity of factors is involved in performance improvements and many of those factors are interdependent.

Money can therefore provide positive motivation in the right circumstances not only because people need and want money but also because it serves as a highly tangible means of recognition. But badly designed and managed pay systems can demotivate. Another researcher in this area was Jaques (1961), who emphasized the need for such systems to be perceived as being fair and equitable. In other words, the reward should be clearly related to effort or level of responsibility and people should not receive less money than they deserve compared with their fellow workers. Jaques called this the ‘felt-fair’ principle.

## Motivation strategies

Motivation strategies aim to create a working environment and to develop policies and practices that will provide for higher levels of performance from employees. The factors affecting them and the HR contribution are summarized in Table 19.2.

**Table 19.2** Factors affecting motivation strategies and the HR contribution

Factors affecting motivation strategies	The HR contribution
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● The complexity of the process of motivation means that simplistic approaches based on instrumentality theory are unlikely to be successful.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Avoid the trap of developing or supporting strategies that offer prescriptions for motivation based on a simplistic view of the process or fail to recognize individual differences</li> </ul>

Table 19.2 *continued*

Factors affecting motivation strategies	The HR contribution
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● People are more likely to be motivated if they work in an environment in which they are valued for what they are and what they do. This means paying attention to the basic need for recognition</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Encourage the development of performance management processes which provide opportunities to agree expectations and give positive feedback on accomplishments</li> <li>● Develop reward systems which provide opportunities for both financial and non-financial rewards to recognize achievements. Bear in mind, however, that financial rewards systems are not necessarily appropriate and the lessons of expectancy, goal and equity theory need to be taken into account in designing and operating them</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● The need for work which provides people with the means to achieve their goals, a reasonable degree of autonomy, and scope for the use of skills and competences should be recognized</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Advise on processes for the design of jobs which take account of the factors affecting the motivation to work, providing for job enrichment in the shape of variety, decision-making responsibility and as much control as possible in carrying out the work</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● The need for the opportunity to grow by developing abilities and careers</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Provide facilities and opportunities for learning through such means as personal development planning processes as well as more formal training</li> <li>● Develop career planning processes</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● The cultural environment of the organization in the shape of its values and norms will influence the impact of any attempts to motivate people by direct or indirect means</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Advise on the development of a culture which supports processes of valuing and rewarding employees</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Motivation will be enhanced by leadership which sets the direction, encourages and stimulates achievement and provides support to employees in their efforts to reach goals and improve their performance generally</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Devise competence frameworks which focus on leadership qualities and the behaviours expected of managers and team leaders</li> <li>● Ensure that leadership potential is identified through performance management and assessment centers</li> <li>● Provide guidance and training to develop leadership qualities</li> </ul>

## Motivation – key learning points

### The process of motivation

Motivation is goal-directed behaviour. People are motivated when they expect that a course of action is likely to lead to the attainment of a goal and a valued reward – one that satisfies their needs and wants.

### Types of motivation

The two basic types are intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

### Motivation theories

There are a number of motivation theories which, in the main, are complementary to one another. The most significant theories are those concerned with expectancy, goal setting and equity, which are classified as process or cognitive theories.

### Motivation and money

Money is a powerful motivating force because it is linked directly or indirectly to the satisfaction of many needs. Money may in itself have no intrinsic meaning, but it acquires significant motivating power because it comes to symbolize so many intangible goals.

### Motivation strategies

Motivation strategies aim to create a working environment and to develop policies and practices that will provide for higher levels of performance from employees. They include the development of total reward systems and performance management processes, the design of intrinsically motivating jobs and leadership development programmes.

## Questions

1. What is the difference between content and process theory?
2. In his seminal 1968 *Harvard Business Review* article 'One more time, how do you motivate employees', Frederick Herzberg wrote that: 'The opposite of job satisfaction is not job dissatisfaction but, rather, no job satisfaction; and similarly, the opposite of job dissatisfaction is not job satisfaction, but no job dissatisfaction.' What do you think Herzberg meant by that statement and what is its significance?
3. In his 1993 *Harvard Business Review* article, Alfie Kohn wrote: 'Do rewards work? The answer depends on what we mean by "work". Research suggests that, by and large, rewards succeed at securing one thing only: temporary compliance. When it comes to producing lasting change in attitudes and behaviour, however, rewards, like punishment, are strikingly ineffective.' What does this tell us about the power of money to motivate? Does it mean that money never motivates effectively, or what?

## Questions (continued)

4. Jeffrey Pfeffer (1998b) wrote in his article on ‘Six dangerous myths about pay’ in the *Harvard Business Review*: ‘People do work for money – but they work even more for meaning in their lives. In fact, they work to have fun. Companies that ignore this fact are essentially bribing their employees and will pay the price in a lack of loyalty and commitment.’ What are the implications of this contention on policies affecting motivation in an organization?

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