## CHAPTER IV
MOTIVATION

4.1   INTRODUCTION

In this chapter a definition of motivation as well as the motivation process will be reviewed. The early theories and the contemporary theories of motivation are discussed. Motivation within the organizational context is discussed with emphasis on variables that influence motivation, guidelines for creating motivated employee behaviour, activation techniques for management, motivation and modelling, the responsibility of employee motivation, and an integrated model for work motivation is offered.

4.2   A DEFINITION OF MOTIVATION AND THE MOTIVATION PROCESS

Motivation is primarily concerned with why people behave in a certain way. According to Daft (1991:402) motivation can be described as "the arousal, direction, intensity and persistence of individual behavior or action". Luthans (1998:161) explains, "motivation is a process that starts with a physiological or psychological deficiency or need that activates a behaviour or drive that is aimed at a goal or incentive". Physiological or psychological imbalances or deficiencies lead to needs, and drives or motives are set up to alleviate these needs. Luthans (1998:162) explains, "drives or motives are deficiencies with direction, are action orientated and provide an energising thrust towards reaching an incentive". The outcome/goal/incentive will alleviate the need and reduce the drive, or lead to feedback and reassessment of needs. These concepts give rise to the motivational process model, which is illustrated in Figure 4.1.

FIGURE 4.1: <u>THE MOTIVATION PROCESS MODEL</u>.
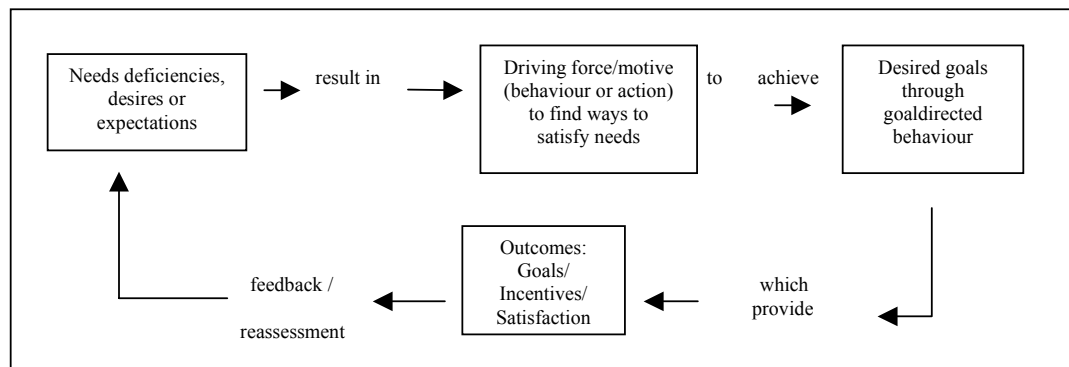
(Source: Adapted from Mullins, 1994:481; Ivancevich and Matteson, 1999:149)

As illustrated in Figure 4.1 people seek to reduce their need deficiencies that cause tension within people through goal-directed (outcome-directed) behaviour, that will provide feedback on the needs met and lead to the continuous reassessment of needs and expectations (Ivancevich and Matteson, 1999:148). Gerber et al.(1998:257) describes four common characteristics of motivation, viz. motivation is an individual phenomenon, motivation is described as intentional, motivation is multifaceted, and the purpose of motivational theories is to predict behaviour. Motivation is an individual phenomenon because people are different and unique in many aspects. This characteristic is supported by all the major theories of motivation. Motivation is intentional because behaviours that are influenced by motivation, such as effort expended, are seen as choices of action. Motivation is multifaceted with two important factors, viz. the motives that arouse or activate individuals to action, and the force (direction or choice of behaviour) of an individual (Gerber et al., 1998:257). Luthans (1998:187) explains that motives can be classified into primary, general, and secondary categories. Primary motives are unlearned and physiologically based, and include motives like thirst and hunger, avoidance of pain, sleep, sex, and maternal concern. General motives are unlearned as well but not physiologically based, and include activity, curiosity, affection, and manipulation. Secondary motives are learned, and include needs for security, affiliation, achievement, power, and status (Luthans, 1998:187).

4.3   **A BROAD CLASSIFICATION OF MOTIVATION IN THE WORK ENVIRONMENT**

Kastner (1988:20) argues that when new employees come to work, they bring with them sets of needs and expectations, which continue to change and evolve during their association with the organization. The degree to which these needs and expectations are satisfied, will not only influence the duration of the 'partnership', but also the employee's level of motivation and performance as well as the manner in which the organization achieves its goals (Kastner, 1988:20). Megginson, Mosley and Pietri (1992:420) view motivation as the process of inducing an individual or a group, each with distinctive needs and personalities to pursue not only the organization's objectives but also personal/group objectives. According to Ivancevich and Matteson (1999:146) job performance is a product of three factors, viz. the capacity to perform, opportunity to perform, and the willingness or motivation to perform.

Mullins (1996) in Gerber et al.(1998:258) provides a threefold classification for the motivation to work, viz. economic rewards, intrinsic satisfaction, and social relationships. Economic rewards include all remuneration and benefits, retirement rights, material goods and security. This is an instrumental orientation to work and concerned with "other things".

Intrinsic satisfaction is related to the nature of the work itself, interest in the job, and personal or professional growth and development. This is a personal orientation to work and concerned with "oneself ". Social relationships relate to friendships, group or teamwork, and the desire for affiliation, dependency, status, and socialization. This is a relational orientation to work and concerned with "other people" (see Figure 4.2).

FIGURE 4.2: <u>NEEDS AND EXPECTATIONS OF PEOPLE AT WORK</u>.
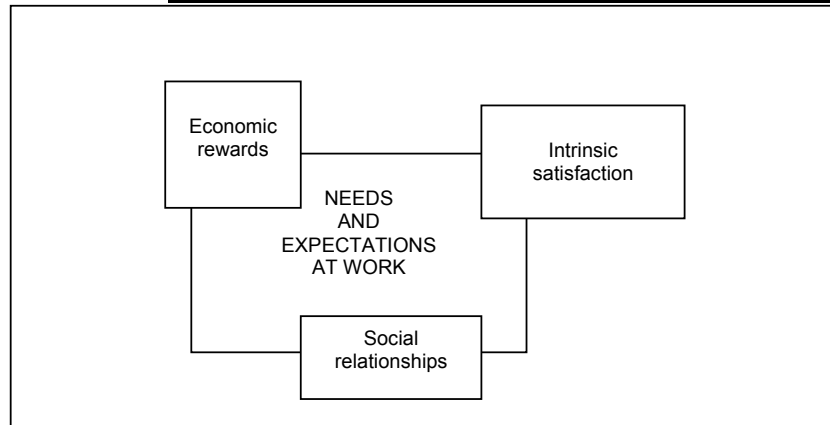
(Source: Gerber <u>et al</u>., 1998:258)

Gerber <u>et al</u>.(1998:259) argue that a person's motivation, job satisfaction, and work performance are determined by the comparative strength of these three sets of needs and expectations, and the extent to which they are fulfilled. The motivation to work is also influenced by the concept of the "psychological contract " in addition to the categories above. The psychological contract involves a series of expectations between the individual member and the organization that are not necessarily defined formally but they still affect the relationship between individual and the organization (Gerber <u>et al</u>., 1998:259).
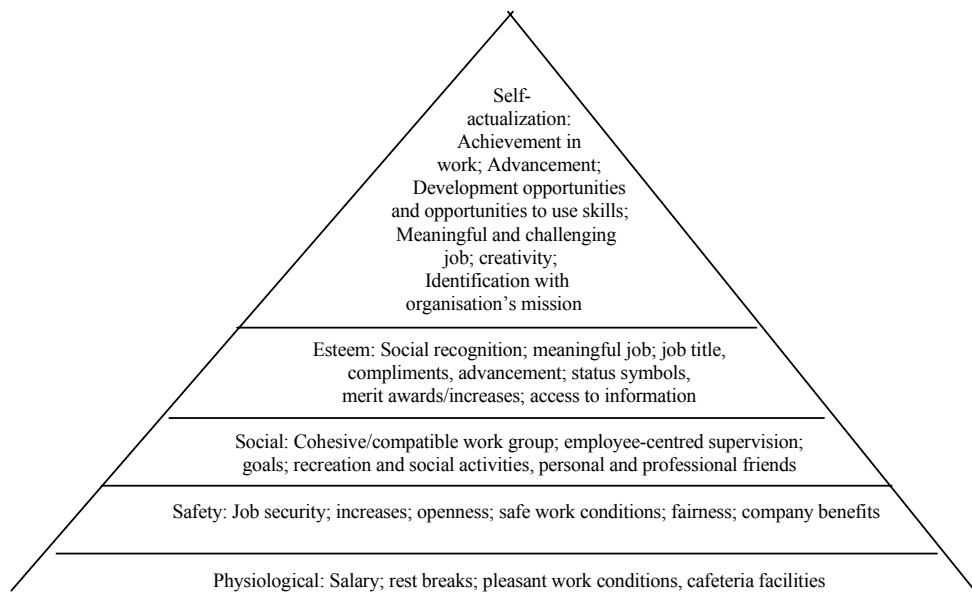
4.4   **THE EARLY THEORIES OF MOTIVATION**

The theories of Maslow, Herzberg and McGregor are content theories; theories that are concerned with the question of what causes behaviour, and emphasize the needs that motivate people (Daft 1991:404; Megginson <u>et al</u>., 1992:425). These theories represent a foundation from which contemporary theories have grown and will be discussed next.

4.4.1   **MASLOW'S NEEDS HIERARCHY**

Maslow's (1954) theory has a twofold basis, viz. people continuously want things and their needs are arranged in order of importance. People continuously have needs, and as soon as one need is satisfied, another takes its place. People's behaviour is determined by a need or a combination of needs, and therefore a satisfied need cannot act as a motivator of behaviour. Maslow divides human needs into five main categories according to their importance. The lowest level contains the most basic human needs, which must be satisfied before higher-order needs emerge and become motivators of behaviour (Gerber et al., 1998:260-261). The levels of needs in Maslow's hierarchy are physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, esteem needs, and self-actualization needs. Physiological needs as the first level of needs are essential for a human being's biological functioning and survival (for example the need for food, water, and shelter). Physiological needs are the most basic and prominent needs; if they are not satisfied, human behaviour will be mainly directed at satisfying them. Safety needs are the needs that emerge on the next level as soon as physiological needs are reasonably satisfied and their importance fades. People now use energy to satisfy the need for a safe and secure environment that is free from threats of physical or psychological harm. Social needs include the need for love, acceptance, interaction, socialization, and friendship. According to Gerber et al.(1998:262) esteem needs can be divided into two groups, viz. self-respect and self-esteem, and respect and approval from others. Esteem needs include the need to be successful, have prestige, self-confidence, independence, freedom, recognition, and appreciation (Greenberg and Baron, 2000:135). Self-actualization needs will be prominent when all the other needs of the hierarchy are satisfied. Maslow (1954:92) describes these needs as "the desire to become more and more what one is - to become everything one is capable of becoming". Greenberg and Baron (2000:135) describe self-actualization as "the need to discover who we are and to develop ourselves to our fullest potential".

Projected into the work situation, Maslow's theory can be reflected in a triangle and highlighted with examples of so-called job factors, which can be used to satisfy particular needs - see Figure 4.3.

FIGURE 4.3: <u>MASLOW'S NEED HIERARCHY</u>.

Self-actualization: Achievement in work; Advancement; Development opportunities and opportunities to use skills; Meaningful and challenging job; creativity; Identification with organisation's mission

Esteem: Social recognition; meaningful job; job title, compliments, advancement; status symbols, merit awards/increases; access to information

Social: Cohesive/compatible work group; employee-centred supervision; goals; recreation and social activities, personal and professional friends

Safety: Job security; increases; openness; safe work conditions; fairness; company benefits

Physiological: Salary; rest breaks; pleasant work conditions, cafeteria facilities

(Source: Adapted from Kastner, 1988:23; Ivancevich and Matteson, 1999:151)

4.4.1.1 IMPLICATIONS OF MASLOW'S THEORY

Ivancevich and Matteson (1999:150-151) mention a few crucial points in Maslow's thinking, viz. how humans attempt to satisfy the more basic needs before directing behaviour toward satisfying higher-level needs, satisfied needs cease to motivate people, unsatisfied needs can cause frustration, conflict and stress, and because people have a need to grow and develop personally and professionally, they will strive constantly to move up the hierarchy in terms of need satisfaction.

Gerber et al.(1998:262) propose that this theory has many implications for individual performance. The most common strategy used by management to motivate people (among other things, by means of money, service benefits like life and health insurance, job security), is aimed at the continued satisfaction of needs on the physiological and safety level, which most employees in developed countries are easily able to meet themselves (living wage in SA). Gibson et al.(2000:131) argue that once a person decides that he/she earns enough for their contribution, money will lose its power to motivate that individual. As Maslow clearly points out, once satisfied, a need no longer acts as a motivator, so this strategy is not an incentive to perform. According to Gerber et al.(1998:262) the first two levels of needs have been satisfied for most employees. Organizations should give sufficient salaries to their

employees for them to afford adequate living conditions, provide job security and restrict layoffs or retrenchments, promote healthy lifestyles and incentives for a healthy workforce, promote physical fitness and exercise programmes, provide counselling services, and should encourage participation in social events. Developing a strategy that will translate social needs into an incentive for improved individual performance might be difficult. To redesign jobs and the work environment in a way that increases interaction between employees might have a negative effect on employees' work output (Gerber et al.,1998:262). Gibson et al.(2000:131) argue that the needs that probably provide the best opportunities for employee motivation are the fourth and fifth-level needs of Maslow's hierarchy, i.e. the esteem and self-actualization needs, which are often ignored in reward structures. Gerber et al.(1998:262-263) propose that organizations should have interesting, challenging and meaningful jobs and have informal and formal recognition in the form of praise, symbols, awards, and bonuses for motivation purposes. Motivation should be driven on an organizational level through policies, procedures, and systems but should include the individual focus of motivation because differences in values, cultures, work ethics, and work styles will lead to different needs. Individual differences in needs will require a unique approach to motivating employees.

4.4.2   **HERZBERG'S TWO-FACTOR MOTIVATION THEORY**

Herzberg (1954) found a set of factors or working conditions that tend to motivate people to improve their performance, resulting in job satisfaction through the fulfilment of the higher order needs of Maslow (Daft, 1991:407). These factors are closely related to the nature and job content of the work performed (intrinsic factors). Herzberg calls them growth factors or motivators. Ivancevich and Matteson (1998:153) and Gibson et al. (2000:135) report the following motivators of Herzberg, viz. feelings of achievement, recognition for achievements, increased responsibility, opportunities for advancement and development, and interesting, meaningful and challenging work. According to Herzberg, a job will tend to generate high intrinsic motivation if it includes these growth factors. If these factors are absent, however, the result is not necessarily dissatisfaction. Herzberg argues that dissatisfaction is caused by the absence of what he calls the hygiene or maintenance factors (extrinsic factors). These factors satisfy a person's lower-order needs and include organizational policy, procedure and administration, supervision, interpersonal relationship with colleagues, superiors and subordinates, remuneration and benefits, status, working conditions, and job security (Gerber et al., 1998:264). O' Malley (1999:16) identified the workplace demotivators that erode management's ability to effectively bring out the best in individual and team performances, viz. office politics, unclear expectations,

unnecessary rules and red tape, hypocrisy, unproductive meetings, lack of follow-up or frequent constructive feedback, lack of information, constant change, unhealthy internal competition, dishonesty, ineffective designed work processes, under-utilization, tolerating poor performance, being taken for granted, unfairness, using archaic processes or equipment, and being forced to do inferior or poor quality work. Herron (2000:16) identified unintentional demotivators that detract from primary management efforts, viz. a win/lose, power-driven problem-solving and communication style, a "Do it my way or else" leadership style, constant anti-employee, pro-organization interpretation of politics, procedures and employee benefits, and an organization's reluctance to discuss the obvious behavioural and personality issues that impede effective communication (game-playing, hidden agendas, avoidance of sensitive issues to "save face" or not to "rock the boat").

Herzberg's two-factor theory is depicted schematically in Figure 4.4.

FIGURE 4.4: <u>REPRESENTATION OF HERZBERG'S TWO-FACTOR THEORY</u>.
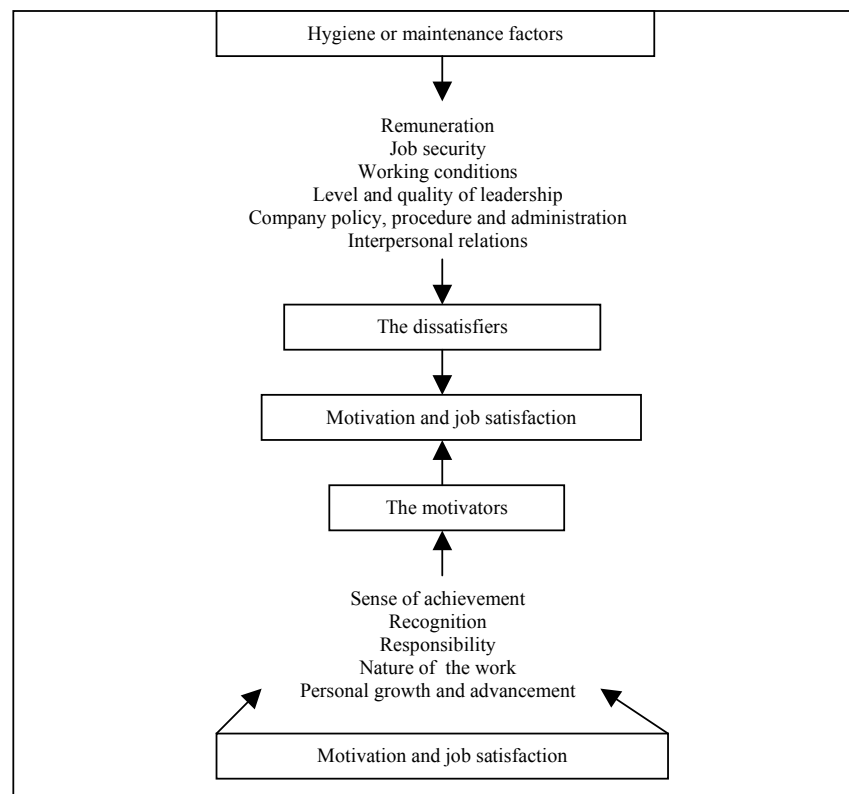
(Source: Adapted from Mullins, 1996:495)

4.4.2.1 **IMPLICATIONS OF HERZBERG'S THEORY**

From Figure 4.4 it is evident that Herzberg's model assumes that job satisfaction is not an unidimensional concept, but that two continua are needed to correctly interpret job satisfaction. If organizations only concentrate on hygiene factors, no motivation will occur. Motivators must be built into jobs (Ivancevich and Matteson, 1999:154). Management should remove the dissatisfiers – provide sufficient hygiene factors to fulfil basic needs – and use the motivators to meet individual higher order needs to propel employees to greater achievement and satisfaction (Daft, 1991:408). Megginson et al.(1992:436) explains that management should utilize practical things to create a motivating environment, viz. continuous skills development and management development, coaching and mentoring, delegation and empowerment, participative management practices, and recognition of achievements. The core of the motivators is the nature of the job or task. Gerber et al.(1998:264) argue that the motivators such as achievement, recognition, responsibility and growth will not be readily present unless the job itself is interesting, challenging and meaningful. Greenberg and Baron (2000:160) argue that today's work ethic motivates people to seek interesting and challenging jobs instead of just money. Herzberg sees the solution to the motivation problem in the design of the job itself, especially in job enrichment, to make the work more challenging, interesting and meaningful. His theory offers an explanation for the limited influence that more money, fringe benefits and better working conditions have on motivation (Gerber et al., 1998:264-267).

4.4.3 **MCGREGOR'S THEORY X AND THEORY Y**

Robbins (1998:170) explains that Douglas McGregor proposed two different views of humans: one essentially negative, labelled Theory X, and the other essentially positive, labelled Theory Y. After having observed the way in which managers dealt with employees, McGregor concluded that a manager's view of the nature of human beings is based on a certain grouping of assumptions and that he or she tends to mould his or her behaviour toward their subordinates according to these assumptions (Robbins, 1998:170). Theory X depicts the four assumptions held by managers, viz. employees inherently dislike work and, whenever possible, attempt to avoid it; because employees dislike work, they must be coerced, controlled, or threatened with punishment to achieve goals; employees avoid responsibilities and seek formal direction whenever possible, and most employees place security above all other factors associated with work and display little ambition.

McGregor's Theory Y listed the four positive assumptions, viz. employees can view work as being natural, as they regard rest or play; employees can manage themselves if they are committed to the goals and objectives; the average employee can take responsibility, and has the ability to make innovative decisions.

4.4.3.1 IMPLICATIONS OF MCGREGOR'S THEORY

Robbins (1998:171) argues that the motivational implication of McGregor's analysis is best expressed in the framework presented by Maslow. Theory X assumes that lower-order needs dominate individuals. Theory Y assumes that higher-order needs dominate individuals. McGregor himself held to the belief that Theory Y assumptions were more valid than Theory X. Therefore, he proposed such ideas as participative decision-making, responsible and challenging jobs, and good interpersonal and group relations as approaches that would maximize an employee's job motivation (Robbins, 1998:171).

Motivation is a complex process and depends on various factors including the diversity of people needs, expectations and aspirations. Assumptions about people, and uniform means to motivate individuals will lead to ineffective strategies to motivate them. Organizational policy, systems, procedures, and jobs should contribute to the realisation of a motivating environment. Management should have a holistic view of motivation, know their people as unique individuals, and take responsibility to establish and maintain a culture where people are motivated to work to their full potential.

4.5   CONTEMPORARY THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

The contemporary theories of motivation have one thing in common – each has a reasonable degree of valid supporting documentation (Robbins, 1998:174). The theories of McClelland, Vroom, Alderfer, the goal-setting theory, the reinforcement theory, and the equity theory are discussed next.

4.5.1   MCCLELLAND'S THEORY OF ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

McClelland (1961) proposed a learned needs theory, believing that many needs are acquired from one's culture and from coping with one's environment (Ivancevich and Matteson, 1999:155). Learned needs theory proposes that an individual with a prominent need will be motivated to exhibit the appropriate behaviour to satisfy that need (Gibson et al., 2000:136). The presence and strength of these learned needs were tested by means of a projection test, known as the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT), which consists of a series of ambiguous

pictures. The person being assessed is asked to write a story on each of the pictures. From this, McClelland identified three primary needs that are important to different individuals, viz. the need for achievement, the need for power, and the need for affiliation. The need for achievement is the drive to accomplish something difficult, to excel, to achieve in relation to a set of standards and goals, to strive to succeed, and to surpass others (Daft, 1991:408). The need for power is associated with the need to make others behave in a way that they would not have behaved otherwise, to have responsibility/authority over others, and to control or influence them (Daft, 1991:408). The need for affiliation is the desire for friendly and close interpersonal relationships, and to avoid conflict (Robbins, 1998:175). For people with affiliation needs, quality social relationships take precedence over task accomplishment (Ivancevich and Matteson, 1999:155).

4.5.1.1 **IMPLICATIONS OF MCCLELLAND'S THEORY**

Ivancevich and Matteson (1999:155-156) explain that since needs are learned, behaviour that is rewarded tends to recur more frequently. People rewarded for achievement behaviour also learn to take moderate risks in order to achieve goals. Because needs are learned people with a high need for power or affiliation can be traced to a history of receiving rewards for sociable, dominant, or inspirational behaviour (Ivancevich and Matteson, 1999:156). As a result of this learning process, individuals develop unique configurations of needs that effect their behaviour and performance (Ivancevich and Matteson, 1999:155-156). According to Gibson et al.(2000:136) people with a high need for achievement want and accept a high degree of personal responsibility to solve problems; they set moderate and realistic achievement goals that are neither easy nor difficult; they take calculated risks, and they show a need for concrete, reliable and immediate feedback on their actions or performance. McClelland found that some people have a significantly higher need for achievement than others, and that they make a greater effort to overcome difficulties in order to achieve their goals (Gerber et al., 1998:268). According to Gibson et al.(2000:136) management should design jobs with clear outputs and standards, arrange job tasks so that employees could get regular feedback on their performance, identify and publicly recognise achievers and make role models of them, help employees to improve their self-image, and guide staff to be realistic about their goals, development opportunities, rewards, and promotion. McClelland believes that power can be negative when behaviour focuses on dominance and submission, or positive when it reflects persuasive and inspirational behaviour. Organizations should recognize and reward managers that exhibit persuasive and inspirational leadership. Organizations should establish a culture that values high achievement, while rewarding

inspirational leadership. Inspirational leaders (with good people skills) should motivate staff, and promote values like high achievement, respect, quality service or products, life-long learning and development, and teamwork.

4.5.2   VROOM'S EXPECTANCY THEORY OF MOTIVATION

Vroom (1964) defines motivation as a process of directed choices among alternative forms of voluntary activity or behaviour. In his view most behaviours are under the voluntary control of an individual and are consequently motivated (Ivancevich and Matteson, 1999:157). Armstrong (1999:213-214) explains that according to Vroom's expectancy theory, "motivation only happens when employees feel able to change their behavior, employees feel confident that a change in their behavior will produce a reward, and they value the reward sufficiently to justify the change in their behavior". According to Gerber et al.(1998:269) the expectancy theory of motivation is based on a few assumptions, viz. that individuals have expectations about outcomes as a result of what they do, that individuals have different preferences for different outcomes and thus are able to choose one course of action over another, individuals will be motivated to work well if they have the perception that their efforts will result in successful performance, and expect or believe that successful performance will result in desirable outcomes. Gerber et al.(1998:269) explain that these desirable outcomes may be divided into two groups, viz. "intrinsic outcomes or rewards, which are directly related to the task itself, i.e. how interesting and challenging it is, and extrinsic outcomes or rewards, which are related to the job context environment, i.e. salary and working conditions". According to Porter and Lawler (1968:34) intrinsic rewards correspond to Maslow's higher order needs and Herzberg's motivators. Extrinsic rewards correspond to Maslow's lower order needs and Herzberg's hygiene factors.

According to expectancy theory, motivation is produced by three types of believes: expectancy, instrumentality and valence. The theory also recognizes that motivation is only one of several factors responsible for job performance (Greenberg and Baron, 2000:150). The relationship between the basic variables in Vroom's motivation process is depicted in Figure 4.5 and discussed thereafter.

**FIGURE 4.5:** <u>**VROOM'S MOTIVATION PROCESS**</u>**.**
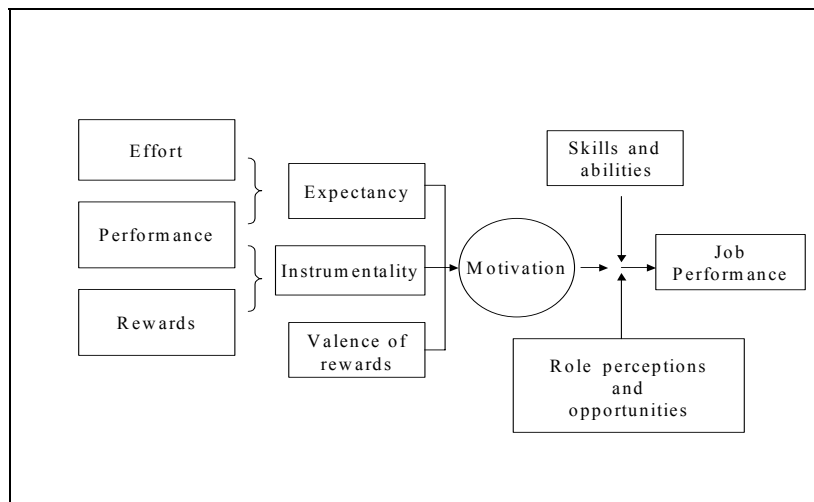
(Source: Greenberg and Baron, 2000:150)

Vroom's expectancy (probability) variable is the belief or conviction that one's effort or behaviour will influence the outcome. "If the expectancy is that performance will be impossible or improbable, little or no effort will be made. If the probability of achieving a specific performance goal is regarded as high, every effort will be made to achieve the goal" (Greenberg and Baron, 2000:150). Employees hold an effort-performance expectancy and a performance-outcome expectancy that is based on the individual's perception of the situation and not on objective reality (Ivancevich and Matteson, 1999:158). The choices regarding effort or behaviour will be determined by the greatest motivational force associated with it (Gibson <u>et al</u>., 2000:161). Instrumentality is an individual's belief that his or her own level of performance (first level outcome) will result in obtaining the reward (second-level outcome) (Gerber <u>et al</u>., 1998:269). If employees work hard and performance levels are high, their motivation may falter if that performance is not recognized or rewarded – if the performance is not perceived as instrumental to bring about rewards (Greenberg and Baron, 2000:149). Valence (applies to first and second level outcomes) refers to the value people place on the rewards they expect to receive or their preference for that particular outcome (Ivancevich and Matteson, 1999:158). When employees are convinced that their efforts will lead to good performance and rewards, their motivation might suffer if those rewards have a low valence to them (Greenberg and Baron, 2000:149).

Porter and Lawler (1968) argue that motivation does not equal satisfaction or performance. Porter and Lawler proposed an extension to Vroom's expectancy theory, viz. that continued

performance depends on the satisfaction on an individual level, satisfaction is determined by the extent of the individual's perception of the reward and the actual reward received. If the reward is equal to or exceeds the original perception of that reward, the individual will be motivated to repeat that performance, and if the reward is less than the original perception of the reward deserved, then the individual will not be motivated to repeat the performance (Smit and Cronje, 1992:321). Therefore Porter and Lawler see rewards and individual perception of fairness of these rewards as the link between performance and satisfaction (Smit and Cronje, 1992:321). Figure 4.6 depicts the Porter - Lawler motivation model.

FIGURE 4.6: <u>THE PORTER-LAWLER MOTIVATION MODEL</u>.
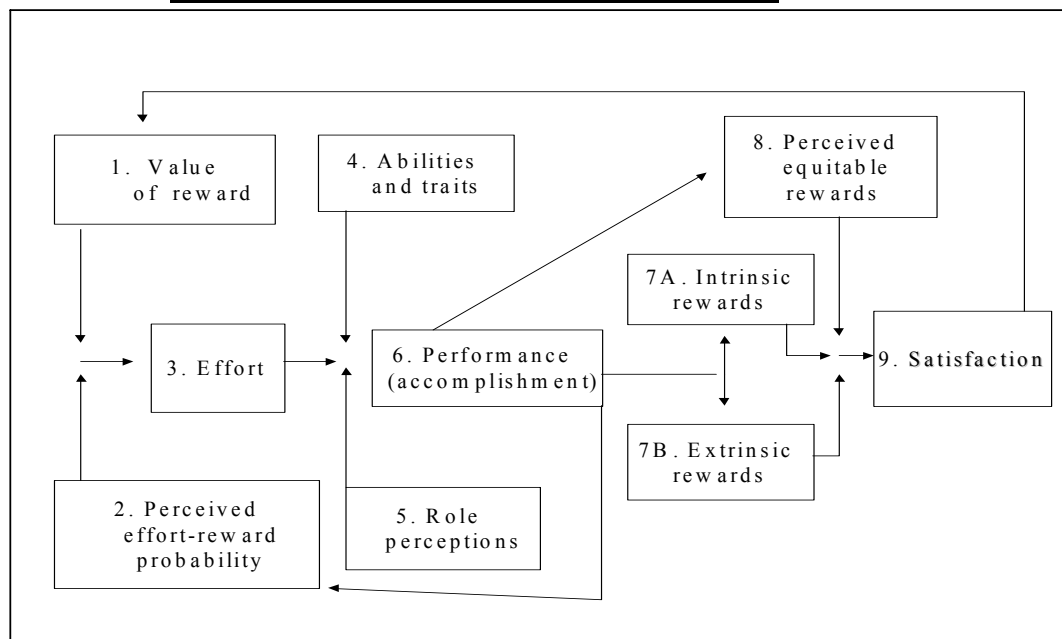
(Source: Luthans, 1998:179)

From Figure 4.6 it is evident that boxes 1-3 are basically the same as Vroom's model. Porter and Lawler point out that effort does not lead directly to performance, but it is also influenced by abilities and traits, and role perceptions. Performance or accomplishment is followed by rewards, and the way rewards are perceived will influence satisfaction (Luthans, 1998:178).

4.5.2.1 **IMPLICATIONS OF VROOM'S THEORY AND THE PORTER-LAWLER MODEL**

Greenberg and Baron (2000:149) argue that higher levels of motivation result when expectancy, instrumentality, and valence are all high, compared to a situation when they are all low, and if any one of the components is zero, then the overall level of motivation will also

be zero. Expectations play a vital role in work motivation because rewards will be more effective when employees know what they can get if they work hard and well enough. According to Gerber et al.(1998:270-271) an individual's expectancy of reaching a first-level outcome is influenced by a number of variables, including the job itself, previous experience, the individual's self-esteem and self-image, and knowledge of the performance standards. Management should clarify employee expectancy in this regard. Daft (1991:414) argues that management should place the best-suited individual, with the potential, skills and abilities to meet the job demands, motivate that individual by clarifying individual needs, explain the outcomes available from the organization, and ensure that every individual has the ability and support to attain the outcomes (skills training, development, time, and equipment). Ivancevich and Matteson (1999:173) argue that expectancy theory implies, that the need for more exacting and thorough diagnosis by management to determine the relevant forces or influences on the individual of which combine to motivate different kinds of behaviour. Following the diagnosis, the model implies a need to act – to develop a system of recognition and rewards, promotion, job assignments, group structures, supervision – to bring about effective motivation by providing different outcomes for different individuals (Ivancevich and Matteson, 1999:173). According to Armstrong (1990:210) management can influence instrumentality in a way that the relationship between effort/performance (first-level outcome) and reward/recognition (second-level outcome) is clearly defined in policies and reward systems. Performance standards and the consequences of non performance should be known to everyone, realistic and achievable goals should be set, and the path to gain promotion or take on greater responsibility should be clear (Armstrong, 1990:210; Megginson et al., 1992:438). Management can influence expectancy and instrumentality variables. The last variable in Vroom's theory, valence, cannot be manipulated as easily, as it depends on individual differences and preferences. In other words, the value attached to second level (such as compensation) differs from one individual to the next. Management must therefore ensure role clarity for all staff by clarifying work behaviour in the performance outputs, standards or behaviour, analyze the relationship between performance and satisfaction, analyze individual preferences or values of rewards, promotion, recognition or other motivational programs, link the performance requirements to the rewards and make an effort to satisfy individual preferences with flexible alternatives (Gerber et al., 1998:270-271; Luthans, 1998:180).

Tabel 4.1 gives a summary of a few expectancy theory applications for enhancing work motivation.

TABLE 4.1: <u>MANAGERIAL APPLICATIONS OF EXPECTANCY THEORY</u>.

Expectancy Concept	Employee Question	Managerial Action
Expectancy	"Can I attain the desired level of performance?	Select high-quality employees. Provide adequate training. Provide necessary resource support. Identify desired performance.
Instrumentality	"What outcomes will I attain as a result of my performance?"	Clarify the reward system. Clarify performance-reward possibilities. Ensure rewards are contingent upon performance.
Valence	"What value do I place on available performance outcomes?"	Identify individual needs and preferences for outcomes. Match available rewards with these. Construct additional rewards as possible and feasible.

(Source: Ivancevich and Matteson, 1999:160)

According to Robbins (1998:188-189) the expectancy theory recognizes that there is no universal principle for explaining everyone's motivations. If organizations actually rewarded individuals for performance rather than according to such criteria as seniority or grade, effort, competencies, and job difficulty, then the theory's validity might be considerably greater. "This criticism can be used in support of the theory, for it explains why a significant segment of the workforce exerts low levels of effort in carrying out job responsibilities" (Robbins, 1998:188-189).

4.5.3   ALDERFER'S MODIFIED NEED HIERARCHY MODEL

Alderfer (1972) condenses Maslow's five levels of needs into three levels, based on the core needs of existence, relatedness and growth (ERG theory). The ERG theory is a continuum of needs, unlike Maslow's hierarchy of needs or Herzberg's two factors (Luthans, 1998:175). "Existence needs are concerned with sustaining human existence and survival, and cover physiological and safety needs of a material nature. Relatedness needs are concerned with relationships to the social environment, and cover love or belonging, affiliation and meaningful interpersonal relationships of a safety or esteem nature. Growth needs are concerned with the development of potential, and cover self-esteem and self-actualization" (Gerber <u>et al</u>., 1998:268). In contrast with Maslow's theory, the ERG theory demonstrates that satisfied lower-order needs lead to the desire to satisfy higher-order needs, and more than one need may be operative at the same time (Gibson <u>et al</u>., 2000:132). Alderfer's ERG theory

proposes a frustration-regression principle, which implies where a higher-level need is frustrated, the desire to satisfy a lower-level need increases. The ERG model is less rigid than Maslow's need hierarchy, suggesting that individuals can move up or down the hierarchy, depending on their ability to satisfy needs (Daft, 1991:406).
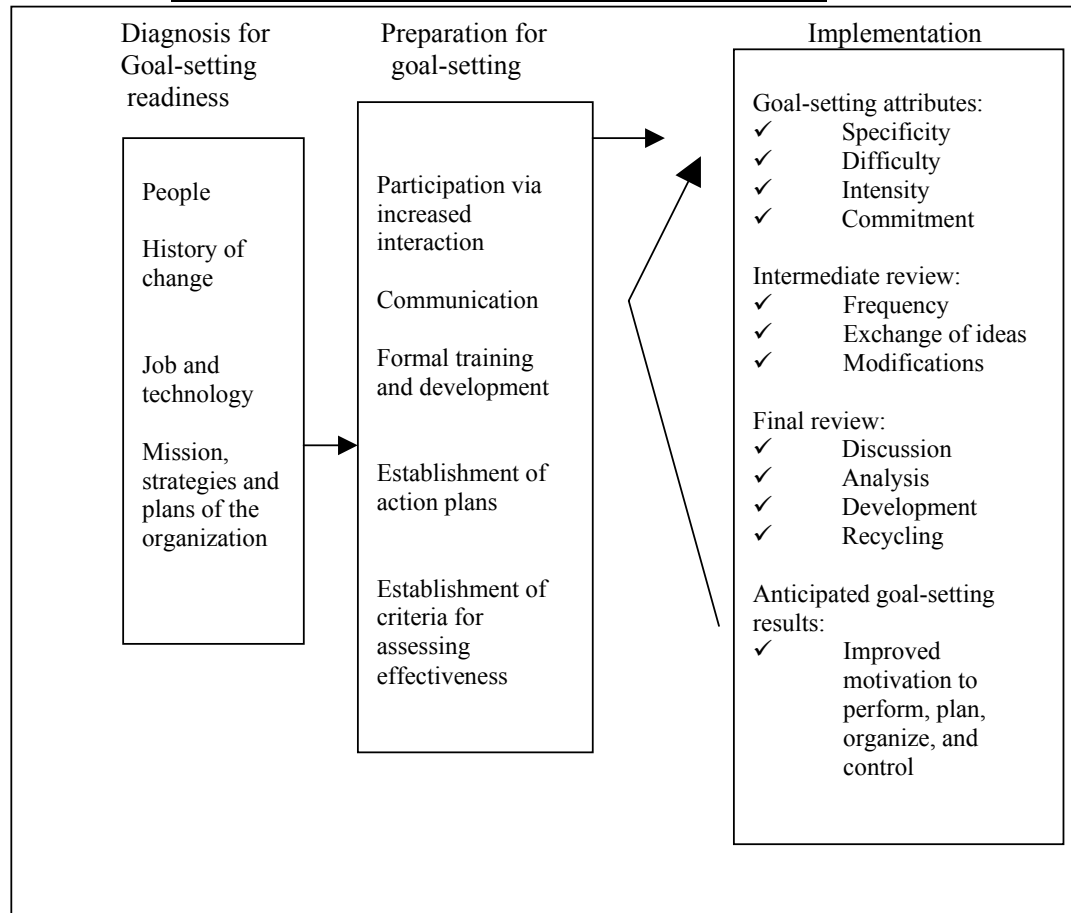
4.5.3.1 **IMPLICATIONS OF ALDERFER'S THEORY**

Robbins (1998:175) argues that ERG theory is more consistent with our knowledge of individual differences among people. Variables such as culture, background, values, educational status, and occupational status can alter the importance or driving force that a group of needs holds for a particular individual. ERG theory represents a more valid version of Maslow's need hierarchy. Management can influence individual motivation by knowing their individual staff needs and frustrations, and should redirect effort toward relatedness or existence needs when frustration occurs at the growth needs (Gibson et al., 2000:133).

4.5.4   **THE GOAL-SETTING THEORY**

A goal is a specific target that an individual tries to meet; the target (object) of an action (Gibson et al., 2000:167). The goal-setting theory is based mainly on the work of Locke (1968). Locke agrees with the perceived value of outcomes as indicated by Vroom's expectancy theory. This perceived value of outcomes lead to emotions and desires, and people set goals that direct their behaviour in order to satisfy these emotions and desires (Gerber et al., 1998:274-275). According to Greenberg and Baron (2000:139) people's goals serve as a motivator because it causes people to compare their present capacity to perform with what is required to succeed at achieving their goal.

Figure 4.7 gives an illustration of goal-setting as applied in organizations.

FIGURE 4.7: <u>GOAL-SETTING AS APPLIED IN ORGANIZATIONS</u>.

Diagnosis for Goal-setting readiness	Preparation for goal-setting	Implementation
People History of change Job and technology Mission, strategies and plans of the organization	Participation via increased interaction Communication Formal training and development Establishment of action plans Establishment of criteria for assessing effectiveness	Goal-setting attributes: ✓　Specificity ✓　Difficulty ✓　Intensity ✓　Commitment Intermediate review: ✓　Frequency ✓　Exchange of ideas ✓　Modifications Final review: ✓　Discussion ✓　Analysis ✓　Development ✓　Recycling Anticipated goal-setting results: ✓　Improved motivation to perform, plan, organize, and control

(Source: Gibson <u>et al</u>., 2000:169)

Figure 4.7 depicts that a goal-setting programme in an organization should follow the following steps: (1) Diagnosing if the organization, the people, and technology used are ready for goal-setting, (2) preparing staff to set goals through communication, increased participation, and coaching, (3) emphasizing the attributes of goals to everyone, (4) conducting intermediate reviews to amend established goals, (5) conducting a final review to check set goals, amendments, and accomplished goals, and (6)feedback of the results from goal-setting in terms of improved motivation and skills (Gibson <u>et al</u>., 2000:169). According to Armstrong (1999:213) goal theory will increase motivation if specific goal-setting techniques are used, viz. specific performance goals should systematically be identified and set in order to direct behaviour and maintain motivation; goals should be set mutually, challenging but realistic and fair, reachable and reasonable, and constructive and timely feedback should be given.

4.5.4.1 **PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS OF GOAL-SETTING FOR MANAGEMENT**

Locke (1968) subsequently pointed out that "goal-setting is more appropriately viewed as a motivational technique rather than as a formal theory of motivation". Gerber et al.(1998:275) argue that the combination of goal difficulty and the extent of the person's commitment to achieving the goal regulate the level of effort expended. People with specific quantitative goals, such as specific performance outputs, tasks, standards, and deadlines for completion of tasks, will perform better than people with no set goal or only a vague goal such as "do the best you can". People who have difficult goals will perform better than people with easier goals (Gerber et al., 1998:275).

According to Ivancevich and Matteson (1999:164) goal-setting provides a powerful technique for motivating employees, by catering for individual differences, and should have positive performance consequences when correctly used, and actively supported by management. Much of the theory of goal-setting can be related to the system of Management By Objectives (MBO). MBO is often viewed as an application of goal-setting, although MBO was devised before the development of goal-setting theory (Gerber et al., 1998:275).

4.5.5   **THE REINFORCEMENT THEORY**

Robbins (1998:182) mentions that a counterpoint to goal-setting theory is reinforcement theory. Goal-setting theory is a cognitive approach, proposing that an individual's purposes direct his or her action, while reinforcement theory is a behaviouristic approach that proposes that reinforcement conditions behaviour. Reinforcement theory disregards the issues of needs and thinking processes of the content and process theories, and focuses on the relationship between behaviour and its consequences (Daft, 1991:415). Reinforcement theory proposes that behaviour that has pleasant consequences will probably be repeated, whereas behaviour with unpleasant consequences will probably not be repeated (Smit and Cronje, 1992:323). Reinforcement theory can be used to modify on-the-job behaviour of employees through effective use of immediate rewards or punishments (Daft, 1991:415). According to Daft (1991:415) "reinforcement is anything that causes a given behavior to be repeated or inhibited". Luthans (1998:228) explains that positive and negative reinforcement (avoidance learning) increases the likelihood that the behaviour would be repeated, but "positive reinforcement strengthens and increases behavior through the presentation of a desirable consequence, and negative reinforcement strengthens and increases behavior by the termination or withdrawal of an undesirable consequence". Punishment is anything that weakens/discourage behaviour and consists of the imposition of an undesirable consequence

(Luthans, 1998:228). Various strategies can be applied for the different types of reinforcement, but also the scheduling of the "when and how frequently" reinforcement should take place (Smit and Cronje, 1992:324). Reinforcement can be done through scheduling fixed intervals, variable intervals, fixed ratios and variable ratios. Fixed interval scheduling rewards employees at specific time intervals and includes salary and annual bonuses. Variable interval scheduling occurs at random times where employees can be praised and rewarded for displaying the preferred behaviour. Fixed ratio scheduling occurs after a fixed number of performances, for example for every ten compliments a staff member receives from clients, they receive five shares in the company. Variable ratio scheduling influences the maintenance of desired behaviour the most by varying the number of performances required for each reinforcement, for example a team has an equal amount of rewards to give to their colleagues whenever they display good team player behaviour.

4.5.5.1 **PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE REINFORCEMENT THEORY**

Reinforcement is undoubtedly an important influence on behaviour, but it ignores individual needs, feelings, attitudes, expectations, goals, inequity and other cognitive variables that are known to impact on behaviour (Robbins, 1998:182). Reinforcement can be used in conjunction with other motivation techniques but the rule should be to reinforce appropriate behaviour (instead of punishment) to change behaviour (Luthans, 1998:228). The principles of reinforcement and punishment are already part of many HR systems and procedures, including remuneration, performance management, and disciplinary procedures. Reinforcement theory can be very useful in establishing a culture-driven organization, where the applicable value-behaviour should be reinforced.

4.5.6 **THE EQUITY THEORY OF ADAMS**

According to Luthans (1998:180) the equity theory of Adams (1975) argues that a major factor influencing job performance and satisfaction is the degree of equity or inequity that employees perceive in the working environment. Daft (1991:410) describes equity theory as the focus on individual's perceptions on how fairly they are treated relative to others. Gerber et al.(1998:272) explain this employee perception as a comparison of what one employee receives on the basis of his or her effort with what other employees receive on the basis of their efforts-comparison of ratios of outcomes to inputs. For example, if an employee feels that he or she is being paid less than one or more colleagues for the same quality and quantity of work, such an employee will be dissatisfied and will attempt to reduce the inequity (Gerber et al., 1998:272). Outcomes are the rewards that employees receive from their jobs, including

remuneration, status, promotion, and intrinsic interest in the job. Inputs are the contributions to the job, such as experience, qualifications, the amount of time worked, age, sex, social status, and organizational position (Luthans, 1998:180). Figure 4.8 depicts the equity theory of motivation.

FIGURE 4.8: <u>THE EQUITY THEORY OF MOTIVATION</u>.
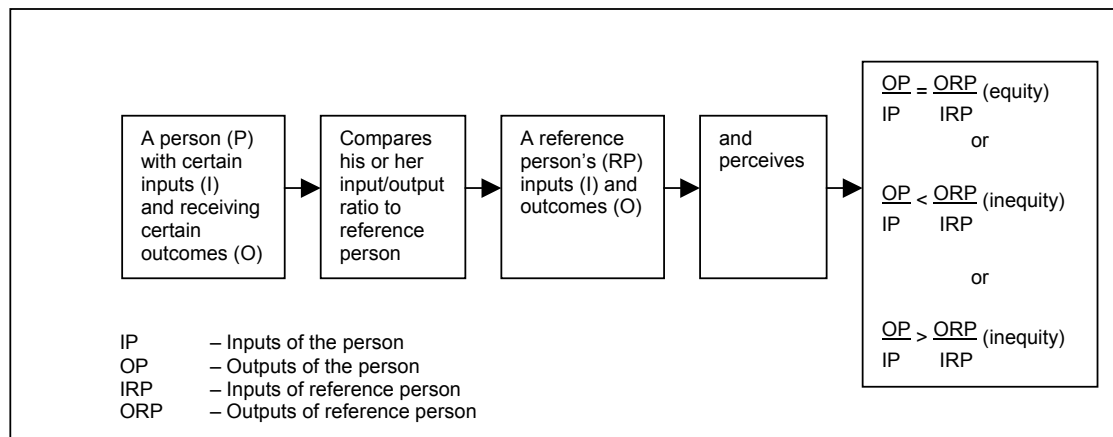
(Source: Ivancevich and Matteson, 1999:161)

Robbins (1998:183) argues that the referent that an employee selects adds to the complexity of equity theory. There are four referent comparisons that an employee can use, viz. self-inside, self-outside, other-inside, and other-outside (Robbins, 1998:183). Self-inside comparison is based on an employee's experiences in a different position inside the current organization, self-outside comparison is based on an employee's experiences in a situation or position outside the current organization, other-inside comparison is based on another individual or group of individuals inside the employee's organization, and other-outside comparison is based on another individual or group of individuals outside the employee's organization (Robbins, 1998:183).

According to Ivancevich and Matteson (1999:160-161) equity theory suggests a number of alternative ways that can be used to restore a feeling or sense of equity, viz. changing inputs, changing outputs, changing attitudes, changing the reference person, changing the inputs or outputs of the reference person, and leaving the field. Changing inputs might result in an increase or decrease of effort or time spent on the job. Changing outputs might result in remuneration changes, better working conditions, or a bigger office. Changing attitudes implies changing the perception of inequity or to distort their own perceptions regarding the inequity. Changing the reference person implies making comparisons with the input/output

ratios of another person that can restore equity. Changing the inputs or outputs of the reference person implies attempting to alter the inputs or outputs as a way to restore equity. Leaving the field implies to simply quit the job (Ivancevich and Matteson, 1999:160-161; Daft, 1991:410).

4.5.6.1 **PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE EQUITY THEORY**

Employees do indeed evaluate the perceived equity of any organizational rewards received, to rewards received by others. Promotions or rewards will have no motivational value if it is perceived as being inequitable relative to other employees (Daft, 1991:410). Robbins (1998:186) argues that people have a great deal more tolerance of overpayment inequities than of underpayment inequities, or are better able to rationalise them. Not all people are equity sensitive and actually prefer that their outcome-input ratio be less than that of the referent comparison. Predictions from equity theory are not likely to be very accurate with these people (Robbins, 1998:186). Robbins (1998:186-187) explains that both distributive justice (perceived fairness of the amount and allocation of rewards among individuals), and procedural justice (the perceived fairness of the process used to determine the distribution of rewards) influence employee perceptions of fairness. Distributive justice has a greater influence on employee satisfaction than procedural justice, but procedural justice tends to affect an employee's organizational commitment, trust in his or her superiors, and intention to quit. Greenberg and Baron (2000:146) explain that procedural justice has a structural side (procedural justice based on how decisions are structured) and a social side (procedural justice based on how people are treated in the course of making decisions). Transparency is important regarding allocation decisions, and the consistency of the unbiased procedures. By increasing the perception of procedural fairness, employees are likely to view their managers and the organization as positive even if they're dissatisfied with pay, promotions, and other personal outcomes (Robbins, 1998:186-187). Greenberg and Baron (2000:147) suggest the motivational tips regarding organizational justice, viz. avoid under- and overpayment, delegate decisions that affect employees, promote unbiased decision-making, provide opportunities for poor decisions to be corrected, give feedback about outcomes in a thorough, socially sensitive manner, and apply rules and policies consistently.

4.6   **INTEGRATING THE THEORIES OF MOTIVATION**

Robbins (1998:189-190) and Ivancevich and Matteson (1999:146) agree that employee performance is a function of the interaction of ability (capacity to perform), opportunity to perform, and motivation. An individual's intellectual capital and skills (subsumed under the

label ability), motivation, and opportunity to perform must be considered to accurately explain and predict employee performance – performance = f (A x M x O). The opportunity to perform is influenced by supportiveness of the working environment, the work culture, the resources, favourable working conditions, supportive co-workers and management, supportive work rules and procedures, sufficient information and adequate time to perform the job (Robbins, 1998:189-190). The motivation theories presented in this chapter are complementary, but the challenge is to link these theories in order to understand their interrelationships in terms of the work environment.

4.7   **MOTIVATION THEORY IMPLICATIONS ON ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR**

Robbins (1998:193-194) argues that the predictive power of motivation theories on organizational behaviour vary and they do not address the four dependent variables, namely productivity, absenteeism, turnover, and satisfaction, on an equal basis. The need theories try to explain and predict job satisfaction, and McClelland's need for achievement could be linked to the productivity variable (Robbins, 1998:194). Expectancy theory focuses on performance variables with a relatively powerful explanation of employee productivity, absenteeism, and turnover but with greater success for more complex jobs being performed (where decision discretion is greater) (Robbins, 1998:194). Goal-setting theory can be linked to productivity. Reinforcement theory can predict factors like quality and quantity of work, persistence of effort, absenteeism, tardiness, and accident rates, but it does not offer much insight into employee satisfaction or the decision to quit from a job. Equity theory impacts on all four dependent variables, but it is strongest when predicting absence and turnover behaviours.

4.8   **BEYOND MOTIVATIONAL THEORY IN THE ORGANIZATIONAL CONTEXT**

Tschol (1996:158) says that organizations should consider the financial value of motivated employees. Management still fails to understand the importance of work motivation and the creation of a motivating work environment (Robbins, 1998:167). An educated, trained and motivated workforce is essential for organizational success (Monks, 1998:122-123). Ramsay (1995:52) agrees that a motivated workforce is crucial to an organization's performance and success. Employees who enjoy their work are likely to be more productive, better performers and will enjoy good health. They are also less likely to complain about small things, or to attribute problems to other people. Demotivated workers are more likely to be negative; they lack interest, and generate very few ideas (Ramsay, 1995:52). Because motivation impacts on performance, it is crucial to understand what

motivates employees, and thus it is a key diagnostic skill for a manager to possess. The actions a manager takes to motivate subordinates depend on that manager's assumptions about what motivates people. Basson (1988:2) is also of the opinion that motivation is a determining factor in optimal performance. Management must therefore be informed on the variables that influence motivation and skills training should emphasize the importance of job motivation for optimal performance.

According to Carrell, Elbert, Hatfield, Grobler, Marx and Van der Schyf (1998:178) the key to a person's motivation lies within his or her values. If employees share the same values as the employer, they are much more likely to be committed to achieving the same goals. Therefore, if management wants to improve the performance of an organization, attention must be given to the level of motivation of its members. Management must encourage staff to direct their efforts (their driving force) towards the successful attainment of the goals and objectives of the organization. This can only be done by means of continuous communication with staff, in order to assess those employee needs and expectations. For organizational performance and success, organizations need to build, implement and manage shared values within the organizational culture and strategy, and should recruit, select, develop, motivate, recognise, and reward individuals who share and live the same values. Armstrong (1999:215) argues that to create a climate where high motivation will flourish is a matter of managing the culture; where values concerning performance and competence are reinforced; where people are motivated to develop their potential, and people are managed, motivated and rewarded for their performance and value-behaviour.

According to Robbins (1982:291), theories on motivation, each with its strengths and weaknesses, form the basis for the design and structure of the working environment and serve as guidelines for management practices. No single theory can be applied in an organization under all circumstances. However, this does not diminish the importance of the theories as they serve as a basis for general practices to influence behaviour in the organization. General practices include the reinforcement of values like performance, competence, and quality results, alignment of individual needs, expectations and goals with organizational needs, expectations and goals, and job design. After the theoretic principles and general practices have been implemented to influence employee behaviour, a specific strategy is developed which has the best application value and possibilities of use within the unique organization or work environment. This specific strategy serves as the main instrument to influence employee behaviour or to keep the human resources component motivated. Specific strategies include

values like learning, innovation, and team efforts, specific systems for recognition, rewards and remuneration, and the applicable leadership style.

According to Lawler (1973:201) motivation is influenced by the individual, as a living being, as well as by the organization's policy and procedures. Steers and Porter (1991:20) compiled a list of variables that influence motivation, viz. work environment features, job characteristics and individual characteristics as discussed in paragraph 4.8.1.

4.8.1   VARIABLES THAT INFLUENCE MOTIVATION

Variables that can influence motivation can be classified according to the main groups of Steers and Porter (1991:20), viz. work environment features, job characteristics and individual characteristics that are discussed next.

4.8.1.1 WORK ENVIRONMENT FEATURES

Work environment features entail two variables, viz. the immediate work environment with colleagues and superiors, and the organizational climate that includes the management philosophy, working groups, leadership style, and interpersonal relations.

4.8.1.2 JOB CHARACTERISTICS

Job characteristics refer to the task variety (job enrichment), role clarity, objectives, performance standards, criteria, and performance feedback, autonomy (decision-making, responsibility as well as creativity) and intrinsic compensation.

4.8.1.3 INDIVIDUAL CHARACTERISTICS

Individual characters include three factors, viz. attitudes towards the self, the work and the work situation, factors such as capabilities, knowledge, and skills, and specific individual needs such as self-fulfilment, recognition, social needs, security, power and achievement.

4.8.2   THE WORK ENVIRONMENT

The work environment can be divided into three sections, viz. the psychological work environment, social work environment, and physical work environment, all of which have an influence on employee motivation (Fourie, 1989:79).

4.8.2.1 **THE PSYCHOLOGICAL WORK ENVIRONMENT**

The psychological work environment refers to the worker's personal job satisfaction (Sutermeister, 1976:30). The employee-job fit influences job satisfaction and therefore the selection and placement procedures must be applied correctly. This way the employee's values, knowledge, ability, skills, interests, dominant needs, goals, and expectations should be considered before placement takes place in order to get the ideal match between the job and the incumbent. Employees should all know how their specific input contributes to achievement of the organization's goals, the performance outputs and standards should be clear, and appropriate goals and development plans should be set in collaboration with them.

4.8.2.2 **THE SOCIAL WORK ENVIRONMENT**

The worker's interpersonal interaction with colleagues, superiors, subordinates and groups within the work environment forms the social environment. Organizational values play a vital part in the social work environment, and should cater for diversity within the work environment. Besides the fact that employees have a need for social interaction, effective communication channels as well as conflict resolution tactics are needed. Effective HR policy, organizational procedures, and leadership competencies and styles (open-door policy) would positively impact on the social work environment.

4.8.2.3 **THE PHYSICAL WORK ENVIRONMENT**

Sutermeister (1976:55) identified the following elements of the physical work environment, viz. noise levels, lighting, music, rest periods, ventilation, temperature and humidity. The hygiene factors of Herzberg are applicable here. Work done under very difficult or uncomfortable conditions could result in job dissatisfaction and demotivated staff.

4.8.3 **GUIDELINES FOR CREATING MOTIVATED EMPLOYEE BEHAVIOUR**

Milton (1981:80-81) and Tschol (1996:159-191) give a number of guidelines whereby management can create motivated employee behaviour, viz. management commitment and role modelling, know the basic human needs and motivation processes, place the motivation process in the context of the organization, consider that individuals differ from each other, know employees as unique individuals, be aware of things that threaten need satisfaction and promote changes conducive to the satisfaction of employee needs. Management should lead by example – be positive, motivated and energetic (Flanigan and Finger, 2000:192-193). Their commitment and role modelling is important because they are seen as "visionaries, strategists, informers, teachers and inspirers" (Tschol, 1996:160). Every employee should see

the link between their own performance and organizational objectives, goals, strategies, critical success factors and values and be inspired continuously to work to achieve this (Tschol, 1996:160). Because human needs arouse human behaviour, it is essential for managers to gain insight into general and work-related needs, and the basic motivation theories (Milton, 1981:80). Armstrong (1990:209-211) argues that the needs and "wants" for individuals should be established because it will impact on the specific approach to motivate that individual. Placing the motivation process in the context of the organization implies that motivation is more than human needs and individual characteristics. Job characteristics, the psychological, social, and physical work environment, as well as the organizational culture all affect it. Motivation is the result of numerous direct and indirect variables (Milton, 1981:80-81). Individuals differ from each other on a diversity of components, but especially regarding their needs structures. What motivates one employee would not necessarily motivate the next employee. Managers should know their employees as unique individuals, with individualised values, needs, goals, expectations, aspirations and frustrations (Milton, 1981:80-81). Flanigan and Finger (2000:192) argue that management should improve their own interpersonal skills, by showing interest in their staff, listening and making time for them, establishing the variables that impact on their motivation, recognising their contributions, and promoting a trusting relationship. Management should be aware of things that threaten needs satisfaction. Changes in policies, procedures, job structures, decision-making, job content, and workflow may threaten people whose needs could be satisfied for the present, but this does not mean that management should not promote changes conducive to the satisfaction of employee needs (Milton, 1981:80-81) on an individual, group or organizational level. These strategies include job enrichment, appropriate training and continuous development of staff, and effective use of praise, recognition and rewards (Tschol, 1996:159-191). Rewards should be linked with individual value systems, and should unite rather than divide team efforts (Flanigan and Finger, 2000:193). Group dynamics and team spirit can affect motivation, for good or ill, and therefore steps should be taken to empower groups in key decisions, which affect their work (Armstrong, 1990:210; Tschol, 1996:164).

4.8.4   **ACTIVATION TECHNIQUES FOR MANAGEMENT**

According to McLoud (1989:49) "it is important to bear in mind that one person cannot motivate another but can only activate him/her". One can, in fact, try to get another person into a condition of "motivatedness" since motivation comes from within the individual and it is not something one can do to another (Flanagan and Finger, 2000:193). Activation can therefore be defined as certain activities, which are carried out to enhance and reinforce the

motivating forces within employees (McLoud, 1989:49). According to Nelson (1998:28) many organizations are bureaucratic and policy-bound, creating an environment that erodes the confidence, self-esteem and energy of their employees. The organization should strive to be flexible, innovative, empowering, and strive to provide employees with the appropriate resources, tools and options that create a supportive and motivating work environment.

Timmermans (1988:22-27) distinguishes between four activation techniques, viz. increased participation and responsibility, goal management, and job enrichment (job design) that will be discussed next.

4.8.4.1 **INCREASED PARTICIPATION**

Buhler (2000:17) argues that participative management can be implemented creatively to meet the changing needs of today's work force. According to McLoud (1989:49-56) employees are more motivated to achieve organizational goals if they are offered the opportunity to participate in decisions that affect them. In the process their interest in their work will increase and productivity will improve (McLoud, 1989:49-56). Ndala (1996:27) argues that people get excited about work and change when they see a part for themselves in it. Good leaders offer opportunities for participation. Timmermans (1988:23) distinguishes different degrees of participation. The worker's opinions, suggestions and ideas can be used to adopt decisions or the manager can offer the worker different possibilities and give him an opportunity to comment. The degree of participation will depend on the nature of the organization, the team/work group, the nature of the decision, individual employee differences (ability, needs, preferences, expectations), the relevant situation as well as the time available. Timmermans (1988:23) believes that the greater the autonomy, the greater the feeling of actual participation. McLoud (1989:55) explains that the manager's task is fourfold, viz. to offer employees the opportunity to participate in decisions affecting them; to remain responsible and reserve the right to make a final decision; to keep employees' ideas and expectations in mind and not to quell them unnecessarily and to give an explanation or reasons if their ideas cannot be implemented. Various techniques can be used to improve participation in a specific organizational setting. Luthans (1998:503-504) shares some of the techniques used to improve participation across organizational settings and cultures, viz. quality circles, self-managed work teams, broader job specifications, project teams, job rotation, job enrichment, and empowerment initiatives.

An important technique for applying the participation principle is through delegation. Armstrong (1990:116) argues that delegation develops the capacity of employees to make decisions, empowers them to get things done, and to take responsibility. McLoud (1989:56) explains that delegation must be based on self-actualization, motivation and results. McLoud (1989:56) and Armstrong (1990:117-119) share a few delegation guidelines for a satisfying and motivating experience, viz. know what to delegate, ensure that the relevant task is delegated to the right person and clearly explained, the person who is delegated to must be given sufficient guidance, authority and constructive feedback, without overburdening the employee, and appropriate recognition/rewards for work well done which serves as a motivating factor.

4.8.4.2 **RESPONSIBILITY**

Armstrong (1999:218) argues that responsibility is what empowerment is about and it is in line with the concept of intrinsic motivation based on the content of the job. McLoud (1989:56) argues that "responsibility" does not mean that workers should be given more work. Increased participation and responsibility go hand in hand, and imply that more responsibility is assigned to an employee. Accepting responsibility also has a bearing on self-actualization as responsibility enables the worker to display his/her ability optimally (McLoud, 1989:56).

4.8.4.3 **GOAL MANAGEMENT**

Timmermans (1988:26) is of the opinion that goal management entails the integration of the worker's goals with those of the organization based on a psychological contract. Management should determine employees' goals, help individual employees to adapt and integrate realistic and attainable goals to the goals of the work group/organization, and more specifically, focus on performance-based goals, with specific outputs, standards and measures. Performance management and goal management go hand in hand, and should be accompanied by a development plan, which is tracked and reviewed on a regular basis.

4.8.4.4 **JOB DESIGN**

Luthans (1998:198) explains that various approaches to job design are available, viz. job engineering, job enrichment, focusing on job characteristics, a focus on the social work environment, and quality of work life initiatives. Job engineering relates to scientific management and the industrial engineering approach of optimising the worker/job interface, focusing on product, process, tools, work layout, procedures, standards, and measures

(Luthans, 1998:197). Werther (1975:438-439) believes that job enrichment (based on Herzberg's theory) points to vertical expansion of work in that a greater variety of tasks with a greater degree of complexity, discretion and responsibility are assigned to the employee. It serves as an important activation technique because it improves possibilities of promotion and remuneration increases, and fulfils growth and autonomy needs (Gibson et al., 2000:362). Armstrong (1990:211) suggests a number of job enrichment techniques, viz. increasing the responsibility and accountability of employees; increasing employee scope to vary the methods, sequence, and pace of their work; giving a person or group a complete natural unit of work, thus reducing specialisation, constructive feedback and information to monitor their own performance; encouraging innovation and participation of employees in planning and assigning projects to individuals or groups which increases responsibility and expertise. Job enrichment may have limitations if employee diversity is not considered (Gibson et al., 2000:367). The job characteristics approach to job design were developed by Hackman and Oldman (1980:159-170) to meet some of the limitations of Herzberg's approach to job enrichment. Luthans (1998:198) explains that this approach recognized that certain job characteristics (skill variety, task identity, task significance, work autonomy, and feedback), contribute to critical individual psychological states (experiencing meaningfulness of the work, experiencing responsibility for outcomes, and information of the results of the work done), which is moderated by the employee growth-need strength. Gibson et al.(2000:367) argue that if management can increase positive perceptions of the job characteristics of those employees with a relatively high growth-need strength, the potential for high quality work performance, job satisfaction, and internal work motivation will improve, and lower levels of turnover and absenteeism will be experienced. The basic premise of the social information processing approach of Salancik and Pfeffer (1978:226) is that "individuals, as adaptive organisms, adapt attitudes, behaviors, and beliefs to their social context and to the reality of their own past and present behavior and situation". According to the authors the information that the social context provide is more dominant than the cognitive evaluation of the real task environment, or the jobholder's past actions (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1978:226-227). An integrated approach to job design should include objective job characteristics as well as social context information to be more effective (Luthans, 1998:205). Quality of work life is a broad-based approach focusing on changing work climate, so that the human-technological-organizational interface leads to a better quality of work life (Luthans, 1998:205). In practice this leads to a redesign of the technological work processes and the formation of autonomous, self-regulating work groups/teams to improve the harmony among personal, social, and technological functioning (Luthans, 1998:205).

4.8.5   **MOTIVATION AND MODELLING**

Modelling is a process of "do what I do". A manager's management skills, leadership qualities, enthusiasm, attitude, motivation, work ethics, ability to work to full capacity, and ability to handle change, impacts on the motivation and behaviour of subordinates (McLoud, 1989:56-57). The modelling function of management is closely related to the motivation of a worker and it is therefore extremely important that the manager's inherent equipment (behaviour and attitude) is such that the worker can identify with it (McLoud, 1989:57). Motivation forms an integral part of the management function. The task of the manager is to determine the needs of the employee, determine individual abilities and traits, to guide and align individual needs and expectations with the organization's needs and goals, to provide opportunities for need fulfilment, and to apply the applicable motivational tools to enable the worker to experience job satisfaction, to grow professionally, and achieve performance outputs. McLoud (1989:57) suggests some important guidelines to activate an employee, viz. make them feel important, recognition for work well done, not to undermine their abilities, to make the employee feel part of the team, to be sincere with praise and rewards, to take their needs into account at all times, to set goals jointly and provide support, and to offer work security.

4.8.6   **THE RESPONSIBILITY OF EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION**

Samuelson and Slabbert (1992:29-38) are of the opinion that motivation has an enriching effect on productivity and job satisfaction. In the new South Africa these factors will become increasingly important and organizations must therefore take responsibility to create and maintain a motivated worker corps. Figure 4.9 shows the hierarchical responsibility for employee motivation in an organization. These responsibilities are discussed hereafter.

**FIGURE 4.9: <u>THE HIERARCHICAL RESPONSIBILITY FOR EMPLOYEE
MOTIVATION</u>.**
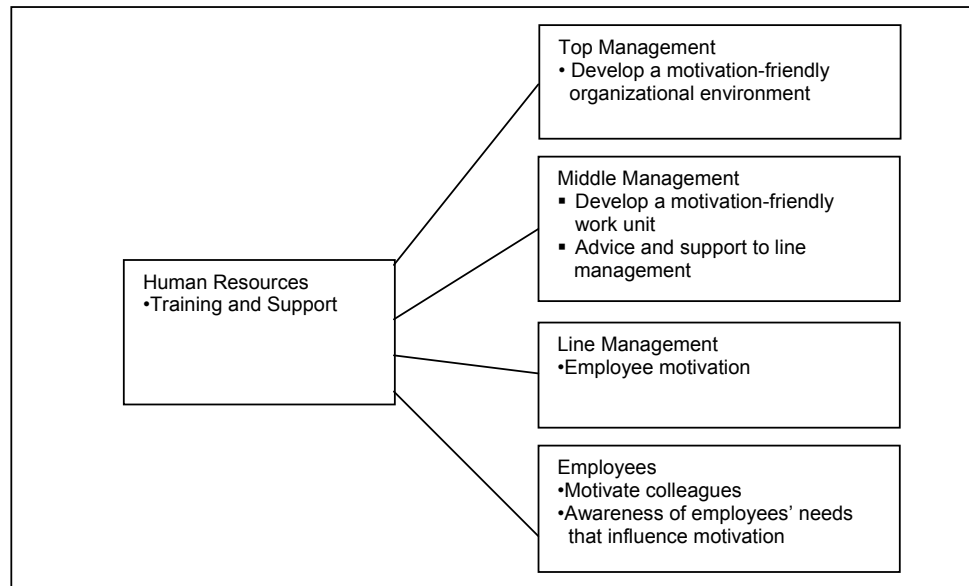
(Source: Samuelson and Slabbert, 1992:31)

4.8.6.1 **RESPONSIBILITY OF TOP MANAGEMENT**

Buhler (2000:17) argues that the overall philosophy of management is critical in creating
star staff that is motivated and committed to the organization. Management must be
credible role models, they should also believe and communicate that people are a key asset
of the organization. Ivancevich and Matteson (1999:167) argue that management should be
actively involved in the motivation process, and if motivation is to be energised, sustained,
and directed, management must understand the impact of motivation on work behaviour, and
should be skilled to manage it effectively. Top management must consider the influence of
strategy, policies and procedures decisions on employee motivation and actively work with
the HR department to establish a motivated worker component (Samuelson and Slabbert,
1992:30-31). Samuelson and Slabbert (1992:30) argue that a management philosophy must be
developed which emphasizes employee motivation, where managers on all levels of the
organizations have the power and responsibility to use their own discretion in motivating
employees. Motivation should be focused on the mission, strategy, critical success factors,
values, and performance criteria, and the motivational tools should be individualised. The
mission and objectives must be clear to all employees so that each employee can make a
meaningful contribution towards achieving the organization's goals. According to Samuelson
and Slabbert (1992:33) top management is responsible for ensuring that all discriminating

practices cease as they have a negative effect on employees and potential employees. Top management should also see to it that the employer-employee relationships, in the organization are managed positively so that a climate where management can motivate subordinates is in place, where each employee's full potential can be developed (Samuelson and Slabbert, 1992:33).

4.8.6.2 **RESPONSIBILITY OF THE HUMAN RESOURCES FUNCTION**

Samuelson and Slabbert (1992:34) argue that the most important contribution of HR in terms of employee motivation is management development. Even when top management has created a favourable climate for employee motivation, the motivation levels could decline if all managers cannot manage people effectively. Management development from the first level of supervision is required focusing on management of diversity, performance management, motivation skills, communication skills, conflict handling skills, and employee relations skills. HR as a business partner should be able to coach and mentor people management principles with the aim of transferring skills to line management. When supervisors and management are aware of and understand the differences in a diverse worker corps, the needs and values of each subordinate can be identified and used as a basis for motivation strategy (Samuelson and Slabbert, 1992:34). It is also HR's responsibility to maintain the minimum hygiene factors of Herzberg, viz. organizational policy and procedures, competitive remuneration, working conditions, the work environment, and job security. HR has a responsibility to ensure that HR processes are applied consistently within the organization as they can have an influence on employee motivation. These include performance management, grievance procedures, career development, recognition and reward systems as well as job design.

4.8.6.3 **MIDDLE MANAGEMENT'S RESPONSIBILITY**

Samuelson and Slabbert (1992:35) highlight the responsibility of middle management to achieve the objectives of top management, so that employee motivation remains an important management function in striving for the organization's objectives. Top management can create a climate conducive to employee motivation but middle management must ensure that such a climate also exists in each unit or section. Specific strategies and goals must be set for the unit or section in conjunction with the workers and be communicated to all (Samuelson and Slabbert, 1992:35). Teamwork between HR, middle, and line management is important to focus on employee motivation, coaching on motivational practices, and to keep the motivation initiatives active.

4.8.6.4 **RESPONSIBILITY OF LINE MANAGEMENT**

Samuelson and Slabbert (1992:35) are of the opinion that line management's responsibility in terms of motivation is to identify motivation needs, to report the specific identified needs to the human resources section and to play an active role in satisfying such needs. Line management must realize the importance of the employee motivation for good performance and job satisfaction, understand employee diversity and individual differences specific to motivation, as well as the need for appropriate motivation (Samuelson and Slabbert, 1992:35). Elangovan and Xie (1999:359) argue that the moderating effects of subordinate individual differences, such as locus of control and self-esteem, are critical factors in assessing the behaviour of employees, particularly in the context of perceived management power. Employees with low self-esteem tend to be more motivated and manifest lower stress when dealt with by influential managers. On the other hand, individuals with low self-esteem are likely to display over-dependence on external information and support. Motivation of employees should form an integral part of performance management, where line management, middle management and HR must work together to address employee needs before employee motivation and performance are adversely affected. Samuelson and Slabbert (1992:36) argue that job satisfaction, recognition and self-fulfilment, which influence employee motivation, are the direct responsibility of line management and supervisors. Line management should know their employees as unique individuals. HR can provide guidelines and support in this regard but line management must play an active role in job design, job satisfaction, recognition and rewards. This will ensure that workers are motivated directly, while other factors with a positive influence on motivation, e.g. teamwork, communication, and mutual trust, are also applied (Samuelson and Slabbert, 1992:36).

4.8.6.5 **EMPLOYEE RESPONSIBILITY**

Motivation is not solely the responsibility of management. If motivation is part of the organizational/team culture it should be communicated to all employees. Employees share the responsibility to maintain a culture where individual differences are valued, and individual needs, goals, and aspirations are communicated and aligned with the organizational/team needs, goals and expectations. The social or affiliation needs of Maslow are motivating factors for which employees are responsible. The need to belong can be satisfied by employees through interpersonal relationships, teamwork, support, recognition and respect for one another. These focus areas should be built into the values of the team/organization. A demotivated worker influences other workers in the work environment; therefore supervisors and managers must immediately motivate demotivated workers. Samuelson and Slabbert

(1992:37) argue that workers can also make a contribution towards their own motivation by discussing employee needs and other demotivating factors with their superiors. Employee representatives have a responsibility to discuss reasonable employee needs with top management during negotiations. Although unemployment (and job security) is a major problem in South Africa, it is essential that employee representatives (trade unions) follow a responsible strategy which will give rise to a motivated and productive worker component, which will contribute towards economic stability and economic growth (Samuelson and Slabbert, 1992:37). Parachin (1999:3-5) explains, "it is self-motivation, which transforms impossible dreams into realities. It is self-motivation, which empowers people to act, to overcome obstacles, and to face challenges creatively". Parachin (1999:3-5) shares his secrets for generating and maintaining self-motivation, viz. "every obstacle contains an opportunity, people should believe in themselves and follow their dreams, they should visualise themselves as successful, people should be patient and able to persevere, and be able to forgive themselves".

4.9   **AN INTEGRATED MODEL FOR WORK MOTIVATION**

From the discussion in this chapter it is evident that motivation has many facets, and motivation theorists have attempted to pinpoint the important factors that need to be managed in order to achieve high motivation. The challenge still is to incorporate all the relevant information into a workable motivation model for management to use in their quest to motivate their staff. The model of Robbins (1998:191) was used as a starting point. Figure 4.10 depicts the integrated model for work motivation.

Figure 4.10 indicates that work motivation strategy formulation starts at the organizational level, focusing on the influences of the corporate mission, objectives and strategy of the organization, in order to design the most effective motivation strategy.

Flanagan and Finger (2000:304) define organizational culture as the symbolic elements (tangible and intangible) in organizational life - the customs, stories, symbols, practices, traditions, assumptions and values that are shared by members of the organization. "The culture specifies how members of the cultural environment think, work, behave, communicate, interact, and make decisions" (Flanagan and Finger, 2000:304). The impact and effectiveness of the motivation strategy within business units/teams will be influenced by the organizational culture and subcultures.

Management should be role models and create a motivation-friendly work environment, and promote the idea that everyone takes responsibility to maintain this culture of work motivation. The specific motivation strategy for the business unit/team should be aligned with the organization's strategy, objectives and critical success factors, the values of the organization, as well as the subculture of the team/business unit.

An integrated model for work motivation is presented in Figure 4.10.

FIGURE 4.10: <u>INTEGRATED MODEL – WORK MOTIVATION</u>.
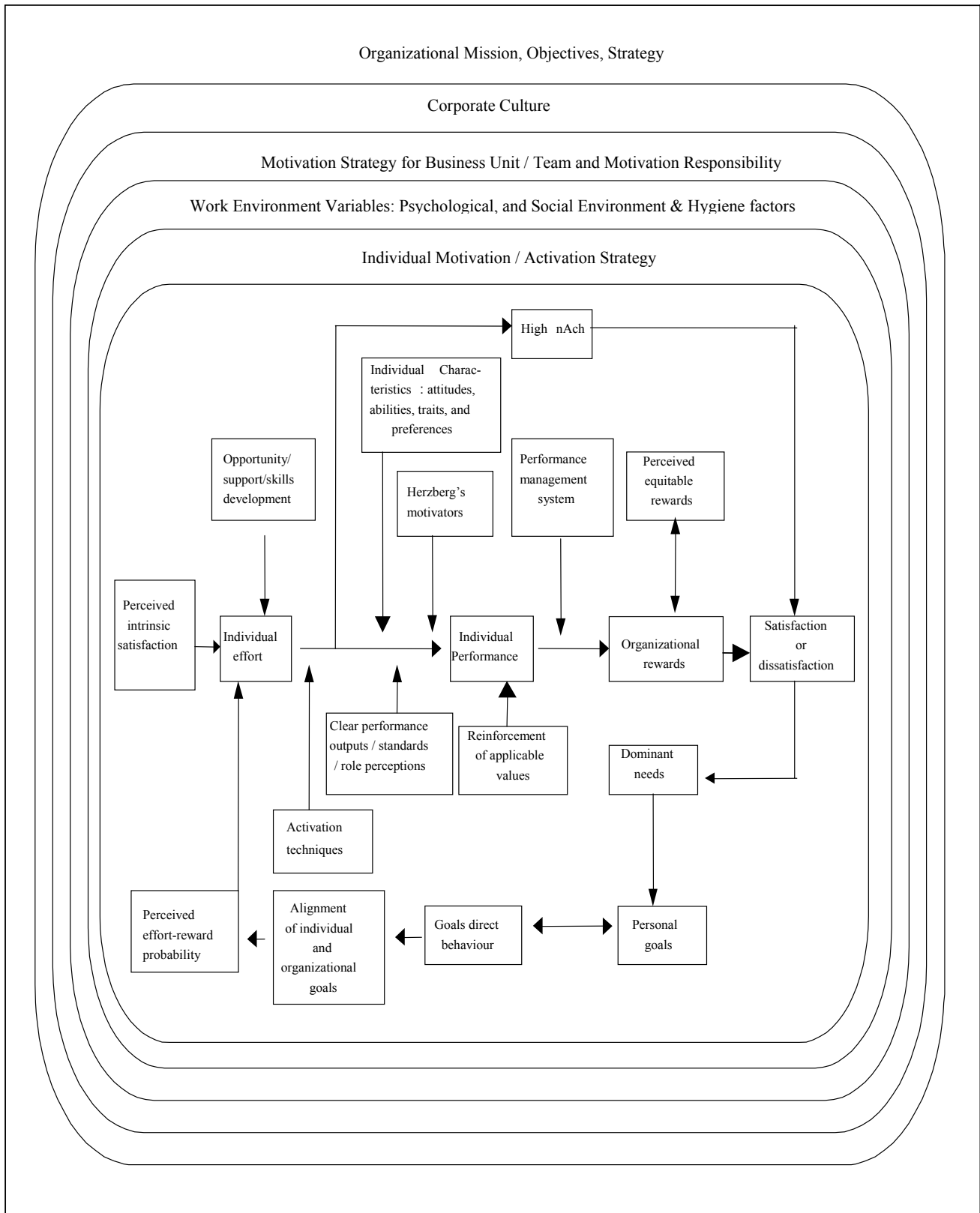
The specific strategy should focus on the applicable values (e.g. quality work and service, respect for others, interpersonal relations, participation and teamwork, creativity and innovation, personal development and integrity), performance outputs and standards, performance criteria, performance management system, and the applicable rewards for living the values and performing as required. The structure and composition of the teams should be considered as well, focusing on the management style, decision-making, dealing with conflict, and skills development to be effective in a diversified work environment. Effective recruitment and selection strategies should be used to employ management and staff that have the applicable values, responsibilities and abilities to be role models for a motivated workforce. The importance of motivation as part of the culture should also be addressed during induction. Management should be trained on the principles of motivation, and be skilled in using the appropriate techniques (activators/motivators) on the team and individual levels, to establish and maintain a motivated workforce.

The work environment variables will influence how the specific motivation strategy for that business unit/team are implemented and maintained. The guidelines of the strategy should be managed on a continuous basis through effective practices in the physical, social, and psychological work environments. The hygiene factors of Herzberg should at least be maintained as this could cause dissatisfaction. The working conditions, management-subordinate interactions, interpersonal relations, policy and procedures, and remuneration should be managed so that dissatisfaction or poor performance are avoided. Maintaining a motivating work environment is the shared responsibility of the individuals, teams, and management. Management should ensure that the selection, placement, and induction procedures of the strategy are adhered to as this will influence employee-job-fit, expectations, goal alignment, clarity around values and performance issues, and job satisfaction. Team values should also emphasize that everyone take responsibility to address issues that could negatively influence work motivation (e.g. communication, leadership styles, and conflict resolution).

Management/supervisors should be skilled in individualizing the motivation strategy for every employee. People come to work with their own dominant needs and goals that should be aligned with that of the organization/business unit/team. Following the correct selection, placement and induction procedures, the individual with the applicable values and capacity to

perform will be employed. During induction individuals will be informed of all the variables and values that contribute to reaching the goal of a motivating work environment and work force. To further clarify their expectations, the performance outputs, standards, role definition, the fair performance management system, development opportunities, and rewards should be explained. Clarifying these expectations, and the relationship between effort-performance-rewards, would positively influence the perceived effort-reward probability and intrinsic motivation. Adequate opportunities to perform, individual support, and development are needed to positively influence individual effort. Management should communicate with their employees on a continuous basis to clarify personal needs, and issues that could influence motivation/performance negatively. Individuals in today's diverse workforce have diverse traits, abilities, preferences, needs and expectations, and managers should know their staff as unique individuals, in order to motivate them. Herzberg's motivators and other activation techniques should be used in order to motivate individuals. According to Robbins (1998:191-192) the reinforcement theory enters the model by recognising that the organization's rewards should reinforce individual's performance and reinforcement of the applicable values. Rewards play a vital role in equity theory, and individuals will compare the rewards (outcomes) they receive from the inputs they make with the outcome-input ratio of relevant others, and these inequities may influence the effort expended (Robbins, 1998:191). Robbins (1998:191) argues that people with a high need for achievement are not necessarily motivated by the organization's assessment of his or her performance or organizational rewards, hence, the jump from individual effort to personal goals for those with a high nAch. "High achievers are internally driven as long as the jobs they are doing provide them with personal responsibility, feedback, and moderate risks. They are not concerned with the effort-performance, performance-rewards, or rewards-goal linkages"(Robbins, 1998:191). The link in the satisfaction-goals relationship is the dominant needs of every individual and includes the guidelines of all the content theories.

4.10   CONCLUSION

In this chapter motivation was defined and the process of motivation explained. A broad classification for motivation in the work environment was offered. The early theories of motivation and the contemporary theories of motivation were discussed.

Theories on motivation can be used to design and structure the work environment and also serve as guidelines for management. A specific motivation strategy within the unique organization is required to influence employee behaviour or to keep the worker corps

motivated. Individuals are unique with different need structures and the fact that motivation theories are culture-bound should not be forgotten. The individual as well as the organization influence motivation. The specific variables which influence motivation are work environment features, job characteristics and individual qualities. The activating techniques, viz. increased participation and responsibility, goal management and job design, can be used by supervisors and management to facilitate motivated worker behaviour.

The modelling function of management has a bearing on the motivation of a worker and it is therefore extremely important that the manager's behaviour, attitude and own motivation is such that the worker can identify with it. Top management, middle management, line management, HR, and workers share the responsibility for employee motivation.

An integrated model for work motivation was explained.