#### **Motivation**

- Managing and motivating
- Psychological contracts
- · Behavior modification
- Content and process theories
- How assumptions affect practice.

#### **Overview**

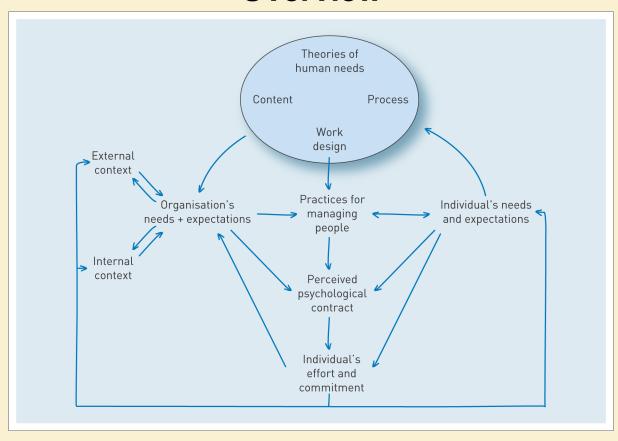


Figure 15.1 A model of motivation at work

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### Why study motivation?

- Adding value depends on motivating others
- Understanding range of theories enables critical reflection and informed choice of approach
- Enables you to question assumptions behind practice, whether they suit the situation and whether alternatives may work better
- Models also enable you to reflect on what motivates you and to consider the career implications

### Managing and motivating

- Adding value to resources depends on human activity – commitment to act in a certain way
- That depends on choice motivation arises within a person and cannot be imposed
- Management problem is to understand what conditions will energise, channel and sustain required behaviour

#### Some constants in motivation

- We all have needs for food, social contact or sense of achievement, which motivate behavior to satisfy that need
- Staff interpret management actions within a social context – Fig. 15.2.

#### Social context of motivation

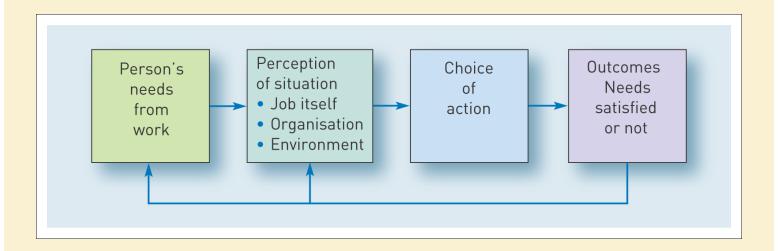


Figure 15.2 Human needs in context – the situational perspective

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# **Psychological contract**

- People have mutual unwritten expectations of each other – a psychological contract
- Employer expects.../Employee expects...
- Perceptions of fairness affect behavior

### **Psychological contract**

- Psychological contract is the set of understandings people have regarding the commitments made between themselves and their organization
- Breaches of the psychological contracts led employees to have lower trust in management, to experience less co-operative employment relations, and to have higher rates of absence.

#### **Behaviour modification**

- Focus on the consequences of actions: by showing link between them, aim to encourage desirable and discourage undesirable behavior (Skinner, 1971)
- Principles to follow:
  - Reward ONLY for desired actions
  - Reward quickly (signals link)
  - Rewards encourage repetition (reinforcement)
  - Reward more effective than punishment
  - Repeated reinforcement brings permanent change

#### **Content Theories**

Theories of motivation can be separeted into:

• Content theories. These try to understand what motivates the behavior of human being. These theories are also called needs theories because they identify psychological needs that create motivated behavior

#### **Process Theories**

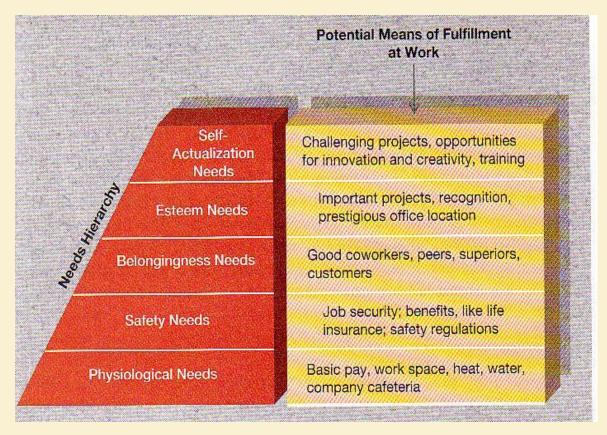
• Process theories. These try to understand how and why we are motivated for certain behavior. It means that these theories explain how we use information to decide what to do.

Maslow was a clinical psychologist <u>whose</u> theory of motivation was a part of a larger theory of human behavior. He believed that everybody has a common set of five needs. These needs were ordered in a hierarchy of importance from the lowest-level needs through the highest-level needs.

- 1. Physiological needs. These are the most basic needs and include needs that have to be satisfied or fulfilled for the person to survive.
- 2. Safety and security needs. If the physiological needs are relatively satisfied, then safety and security needs shows up.

- 3. Social needs. These needs are related with the need of belongingness and love. People who are unable to satisfy this need feel loneliness and social rejection.
- 4. Ego and esteem. These needs include the desire <u>for</u> self-respect, self-esteem and <u>for</u> the esteem of others. These may be focused either internally and externally.

5. Self-actualization. This need is the highest and refers to the needs for self-realization, continuous self-development and the strength that allows a person to become more and more of what they are capable of becoming.



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Self-actualization is a process, and not an end state. People do not become self-actualized in the sense that they have finally reached an ultimate goal. Instead they are continually in a process of becoming more and more of what they are capable of becoming.

Maslow added more that need for self-actualization could not be satiated like other needs. Instead, the need for self-actualization increases in potency as people engage in self-actualization behaviors.

#### McClelland's contribution

- McClelland (1961) examined how people think and react in a wide range of situations.
- · He identifies 3 categories of human needs:
  - Need for affiliation (interpersonal relationships)
  - Need for power (to have control over one's environment)
  - Need for achievement (to set and meet standards of excellence)

#### McClelland's contribution

 McClelland (1961) believed that, rather than being arranged in a hierarchy, individuals possess each of these possibly conflicting needs, which motivate their behavior when activated.

### Herzberg's contribution

- Linked ideas on motivation to practical issues of work design
- Extrinsic factors (hygiene). Examples, supervision, salary, working conditions
- Intrinsic factors (motivation). Examples, achievement, recognition, work itself.

### Herzberg's contribution

- Extrinsic factors (hygiene) have less effect on motivation than intrinsic (motivators)
- Dealing with extrinsic factors may reduce dissatisfaction, but have no effect on satisfaction.

### Herzberg's contribution

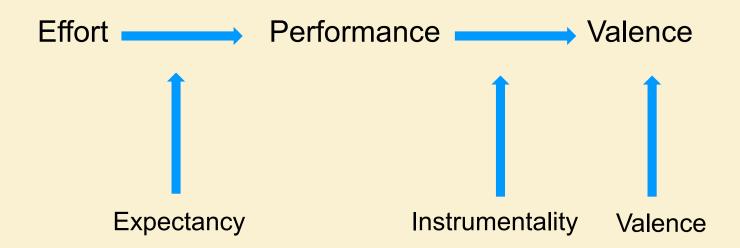
 Herzberg concluded that satisfaction can only come from within, through the satisfaction of doing a task which provides a sense of achievement, recognition or other motivation factors.

#### **Process Theories**

• Process theories. These try to understand how and why we are motivated for certain behavior. It means that these theories explain how we use information to decide what to do.

The first systematic and comprehensive formulation of expectancy theory was presented by Victor Vroom (1967). Many theorists have sought to extend and refine expectancy theory; consequently, many different models of expectancy theory have been presented in the literature. Although each model may be slightly different, the basic components are essentially similar in each model.

The basic idea of expectancy theory is that motivation is determined by the outcomes people expect to occur as a result of their actions. The basic elements of this theory are shown outlined in the following diagram.



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The amount of effort a person is willing to exert depends on:

- (1) What people see as a relationship between effort and performance (expectancy)
- (2) What people see as a relationship between performance and the outcomes (instrumentality)
- (3) Value of the outcomes (valence).

Expectancy is the probability that effort will lead to performance, as expressed in the questions: "If I really try hard, can I do this job?"
"If I exert enough effort, can I perform well?"

This relationship is viewed as a probability, and this theory states that people estimate the perceived probability to achieve a particular level of performance with a certain level of effort.

The main idea is:

If I put out certain level of effort, can I achieve a particular level of performance.

Workers who are highly skilled and have direct control over their work normally report a high expectancy, because they know they can perform well if they try.

Instrumentality is the relationship between performance and outcomes. Example: "If I perform well, will I be rewarded?" "What are the consequences for performing well?"

Most situations lead a variety of consequences, and some outcomes are more likely to occur than others. Because several outcomes are possible, people calculate several instrumentalities to decide what to do.

Instrumentalities are typically viewed as a correlation coefficient showing the relationship between two variables.

An instrumentality of + 1.0 means a direct relationship between performance and outcomes, such as piece-rate incentives.

People who are paid a fixed salary regardless of their performance, however, would report an instrumentality close to zero, indicating no relationship between pay and performance.

Valence is the value of the outcomes and the extent to which they attractive or unattractive to the individual. Some rewards are almost universally valued, such as praise, recognition, and compliments by others. While other outcomes may only be good to certain employees, such as promotions and opportunities to work overtime.

Research studies measuring expectancy theory typically use an arbitrary scale, such as one that ranges from + 10 to -10, to measure the valence of various outcomes.

Effort or force is the combination of expectancy, instrumentality, and valence. People who expect to receive highly valued outcomes if they perform well, and who expect to perform well if they exert sufficient effort, should be highly motivated employees.

Although expectancy theory appears rather complex, the central ideas underlying it can be simply stated in a way that is easily understood: People are motivated to exert effort if by doing so they can perform well and attain desired outcomes.

According to this theory, people evaluate their inputs to the job relative to the outputs they receive. It means that they make an evaluation. This evaluation is based on a relative comparison rather than a comparison against a fixed standard.

Employees compare what they receive for their inputs relative to what they believe others received for theirs:

"Did I get as much from my inputs as my coworkers -received for theirs?"

According to equity theory attitudes toward pay are influenced by:

- How much pay people receive
- What they had to do to earn it
- Whether they feel their ratio of pay to work was fair compared to the pay-to-work ratios others.

Those who think their ratios are unfair experience dissatisfaction that motivates them to change the situation in the direction of greater equity.

Inputs are all the relevant factors people bring to the exchange. Give an example of that:

- Effort
- Performance
- Education
- Skills
- Time
- Opportunity costs

It is important to note that the value attached to an input is based on the person's *perception* of its value, rather than its objective worth.

The basic comparisons of equity theory can be illustrated by the following formula comparing the input-outcome ratios of a person relative to the input-outcome ratios of others.

A state of equity exists when the two ratios are essentially equal.

But this state of equity can be destroyed by changing any of the four values.

A state of inequity exists whenever the two ratios are unequal, and it can be caused by either ratio being greater than the other. In other words, inequity can exist because people are either overpaid or underpaid.

Not surprisingly, the available research suggests that people are more easily upset by underpayment than by over-payment. Nevertheless, according to equity theory, both conditions of inequity motivate individuals to establish a more equitable exchange.

When a perceived state of equity exists, people tend to feel satisfied and report that the conditions are fair. When a perceived condition of overreward exists, however, people tend to feel guilty and dissatisfied and they are motivated to correct the imbalance.

## Process theories – goalsetting theory

Locke (1968) – goals affect motivation

- Challenging but achievable goals motivate
- Specific goals motivate more than vague ones
- Participation in setting goals is motivating
- Knowing results of past performance is necessary to motivation

- Applied ideas of motivational theorists like Maslow and Herzberg (...) to the design of the jobs people do.
- Hackman and Oldham model shown in Fig. 15.7.

#### Job characteristics model

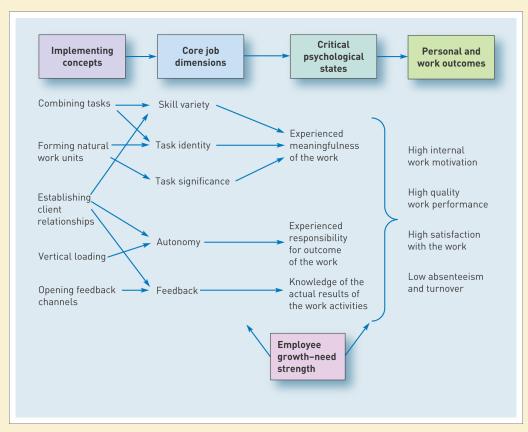


Figure 15.7 The job characteristics model

Source: Adapted from Hackman and Oldham (1975)

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# Job characteristics (or work design) model

- The model uses five implementing concepts:
  - Combine tasks. Rather than divide the work into small pieces, staff can combine them so they use more skills and complete more of the whole tasks
  - Form natural workgroups. Groups could be created and carry out a complete operation.
  - Establish customer relations. This would bring home to employees the expectations of the people to whom their work goes.

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- Vertical loading. This involves workers taking on some responsibilities of supervisors to solve problems and develop workable solutions.
- Open feedback channels. This would ensure that people receive feedback on their performance from internal and external costumers.

#### Job characteristics model

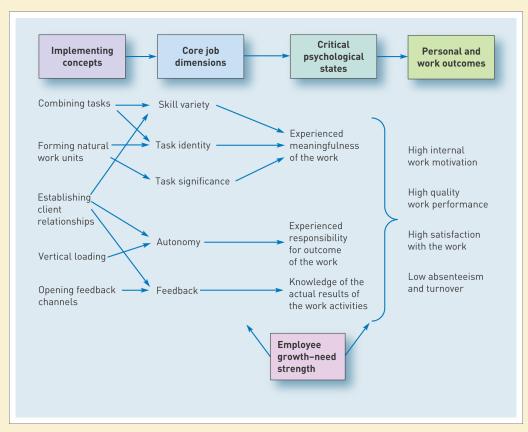


Figure 15.7 The job characteristics model

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- 5 job characteristics that contribute to experienced meaningfulness of work:
  - Skill variety. The extent to which a job makes use of a range of skills and experience
  - Task identity. Whether a job involves a complete operation, with a beginning and end.

- Task significance. How much the job matters to others in the organization or to the wider society.
- Autonomy. How much freedom and independence a person has in deciding how to go about doing the work.
- Feedback. The extent to which a person receives feedback on relevant dimensions of performance.

#### Job characteristics model

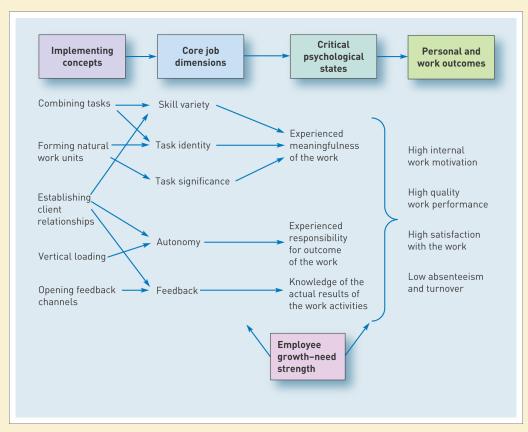


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- The model identifies 3 psychological states that must be present to achieve high motivation (if any are low, motivation will be low):
  - Experienced meaningfulness. The degree to which employees perceive their work as valuable and worthwhile

- Experienced responsibility. How responsible people feel for the quantity and quality of the work performed.
- Knowledge of results. The amount of feedback employees receive about how well they are doing.

#### Job characteristics model

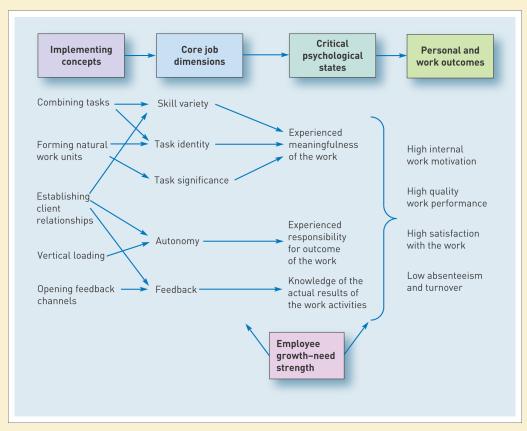


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