
UNIT 6 EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION AND JOB ENRICHMENT

Structure

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6.0 OBJECTIVES

After going through this Unit, you should be able to:

- appreciate the concepts related to employee motivation and job satisfaction,
- understand the techniques that can be used for motivating employees, and
- comprehend alternative methods by which jobs can be made more interesting.

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Employee motivation and job enrichment are described as two management techniques used to improve human behaviour and attitude towards work, with a view to utilise available human resources more efficiently and thus make human management more effective. Just as the employee has certain wants that the organisation is expected to satisfy, the organisation too expects certain types of behaviour usually termed as “Direction” or “Motivation”. Obviously this managerial function is not so easy as it involves many problems. These problems and their possible solutions are the concerns in this Unit.

Job enrichment is also a motivational problem created by the alienation of employees from their work, or by lack of their interest in their work. Here the problem is how to make the work more interesting, purposeful and acceptable to employees so that they may perform it more enthusiastically and with a greater sense of responsibility. Like motivation this is also a problem of human behaviour and work attitude. In fact both employee motivation and job enrichment are the problems which every supervisor and manager has to face while managing and making their subordinates work.

6.2 WHAT IS MOTIVATION?

Literally motivation means incitement or inducement to act or move. In an industrial setting it means to make a subordinate act in a desired manner so as to achieve certain aims. Obviously “desired” implies as desired in the interests of the organisation or employer. It implies not only that the subordinate should act in a disciplined manner, but also that he or she should act in an efficient and productive manner. To motivate, therefore, is to induce, persuade, stimulate, even compel (as when fear becomes the motivator) an employee to act consciously or subconsciously

in a manner which may help in attaining an organisational objective. This may be a limited view. Motivation really comprises all the internal urges which are described as desires, wishes, drives, etc. which make a person strive for doing a thing. Motivation is what makes people do things. In the US it is commonly described as “making John run”. Webster defines the term “Motivate” as meaning to provide with a motivation to impel or incite one to action. It may be a need, idea, emotion or organic state that may prompt one to action or work. It is not a matter or manipulation but it is an act of making employees work better and effectively by understanding their desires/needs.

Motivation and Incentives

Motivation is usually not the same as incentive. Regarding incentives we generally expect greater output with the same inputs, while motivation usually involves some more inputs considered necessary for changing the work, attitude and behaviour of the employee. Motives or motivation is considered as the expression of a person’s inner needs, as they are personal but incentives are external in nature and are provided by someone to the person concerned. Again, financial incentives may not motivate all, particularly those employees whose physical needs are already satisfied. Persons with higher earnings may remain dissatisfied and frustrated because their employment and working conditions may not be conducive to make a person work wholeheartedly and give his or her best. To motivate means really to produce a goal-oriented behaviour, which may not be made possible by mere provision of incentives with the object of higher earnings and higher output.

Need and Importance

Need and importance of motivation are too obvious to have a detailed discussion. Survival and growth of an undertaking depends considerably on the performance of its employees and the performance of an employee depends on two factors, that is **(i) his or her ability to work and (ii) his or her will to work**. The first is determined by the quality of education, training and experience that he or she has acquired. Even if there is any deficiency in the same, it can be made good by arranging further training, retraining and developing facilities for the employee. The second factor i.e. willingness to work, is more difficult to manage as it involves bringing change in the behaviour and attitude of a person towards work, or motivating him or her to work in a desired manner and give an overall better performance. Motivated workforce is essential for efficient working and optimum motivation in personnel management can hardly be better seen than from the fact that after planning and organising, motivation is the third important function of a personnel manager. In order to make any managerial decision really meaningful, it is necessary to convert it into an effective action which the manager can accomplish by motivating his or her subordinates. Almost every human problem the manager faces throughout the organisation has motivational elements. The manager, therefore, should incorporate the principles and concept of motivation into his or her own philosophy of management. By understanding and applying them, he or she can influence others in attaining a better or positive motivation.

6.3 SOME COMMON ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT MOTIVATION

Both, the academics and the manager have been trying to understand the motivational factors since long. The theories that have been put forward regarding motivation are still tentative and cannot give any definite conclusion. Some common assumptions about motivation are:

- i) It is commonly stated that, it is the subordinates or rank and file among the workers or non-supervisory staff in an organisation who need to be motivated and not the supervisory and managerial staff. The fact is that the latter need to be motivated first and it is then that they will be able to motivate their subordinates and other workers at the shopfloor level. How can a demotivated manager or supervisor motivate persons working under him or her?

- ii) Motivation and higher productivity go together. This may be true by and large, but individual motivation at the workplace or group motivation, as in the case of trade unions, may not have such a correlation with productivity.
- iii) All motivational techniques are designed and applied by the personnel managers and other line executives, who directly control and take work from those under them. In fact, the latter are more concerned as it is their primary function to see the persons under them work most efficiently. As they are in closer touch with their workers they can understand their problems better and also know their needs. If necessary they can take the advice of the personnel man or industrial psychologist or any consultant.
- iv) Standard theories of motivation developed by psychologists may also apply to industrial situations. Most of these concepts and theories have been developed by the study of human material other than industrial personnel, and so their application to the latter may not be fruitful or provide dependable results.

6.4 TYPES OF MOTIVATION

In the industrial set-up motivation may be intrinsic as well as extrinsic. **Intrinsic motivation** is related to the job one is doing. When a skilled operative performs a job well, he or she derives a sense of satisfaction. This is intrinsic motivation which satisfies the creative instinct in a person and gives an inner satisfaction due to some sort of achievement.

Extrinsic motivation is external to the job or task. For example, financial incentives for doing a job well or giving higher production may motivate the workers. Other external motivators are praise from the superior for good work, recognition of good performance by the company in the form of public citation and award, admiration of fellow workers, and improved working conditions, more power and authority and other facilities.

Determinants of Motivation

The traditional approach that man could be made to work by monetary rewards has been gradually giving place to a more complete pluralistic explanation which recognises that man works to fulfil a variety of needs. It is recognised that motivation is the result of the following three groups of factors:

- i) **Individuals:** To know what can motivate employees we must know their aims, objectives and values. Human needs are both numerous and complex, and often it is difficult to identify and categorise them. Motivation is not an easily observed phenomenon. We have first to observe individual action and behaviour at work and interpret the same in terms of some underlying motivation. Our interpretation may not necessarily reveal the individual's true motivation, as some of the human needs may be difficult to describe and identify.
- ii) **Organisational Components:** Organisation structure, technological system, physical facilities etc. which constitute internal environment of an organisation affect employee motivation. Some machines are more interesting to work with than others; or certain kinds of work may be boring to many persons.
- iii) **External or Exogenous Variables:** A worker's life outside the organisation i.e. employee's social life is also an important factor affecting the employee's motivation or willingness to work in the organisation. Life at work and life outside the work are bound together. Troubles and joys of off-job life cannot be totally put aside when reporting for work, nor can the organisation matters be completely dropped when returning home after work. A strong motivational role is also played by culture, customs and norms, images and attributes conferred by society on particular jobs. An individual for example may find that his or her work commands a substantial degree of respect and social acceptance quite apart from

holding a position in a particular organisation, and so he or she may be more willing or motivated to perform such a work.

Characteristics of Motivation

Motivation is viewed as a complex process with many factors which vary from time to time and person to person. Some important characteristics of motivation which may be noticed from the above discussion of its determinants are:

- i) **Individuals differ in their motivation:** As the desires and goals of individuals differ, so do their motivations. One may do a job because it is remunerative, the second may do it because it gives a sense of achievement, and a third may do it because it enables him to serve a cause which is dear to him.
- ii) **Motivation is highly situational:** A person may work very well in one organisation and poorly in another in the same position or type of the job. The performance may vary with working conditions, work environment and type of supervision.
- iii) **Motivation change:** Motivation of each individual changes from time to time even if he or she may continue to behave in the same way. For example, a temporary worker may produce more in the beginning to become permanent. After he or she has been made permanent, he or she may continue to produce more to gain promotion and so on.
- iv) **Motivation is expressed differently:** Needs and the way in which they are translated into action may vary considerably between one individual and another. Different persons may also react differently to successful or unsuccessful fulfilment of their needs. One may feel frustrated if the need has not been met, but the other may be motivated by failure and redouble the effort to get the need met. Again one individual with strong security need may avoid accepting responsibility for fear of failure and dismissal and the other with a similar need may seek out responsibility for fear of being fired for low performance.
- v) **Sometimes the individual himself is not aware of his or her motivation:** This can be better explained by an example drawn from the famous Hawthorne experiment. One girl worker complained to her counsellor about her foreman. Later on, it was found that the reason why she disliked her foreman was that she had a step-father whom she feared and whose physical appearance was very much like her foreman. The result was that she had unconsciously transferred to her foreman the unfavourable characteristics of her step-father. The above shows that the motivation can be both conscious and subconscious.
- vi) **Motivation is complex:** It is difficult to explain and predict the behaviour of the employee. Use of one motivational device may not always produce the desired result as sometimes it brings an opposing motive into play. For example, in a factory when a blue-green device was introduced to reduce eye strain, the output of men workers increased while that of female workers decreased. It was found that the latter disliked this change as the new type of light falling on them made them look simply ghastly in appearance. So we can say different individuals will react differently to the same motivational factor. Yet there are certain indications through which you may decide who can be considered a motivated worker, like:
 - a) One who wants to come to work and works willingly.
 - b) When at work one gives ones best.
 - c) One has a definite sense of belonging and pride in the organisation and in the improvement of management effectiveness.

Similarly some common indications of demotivation are:

- a) Increasing absenteeism among employees and excessive labour turn-over.
- b) Low output and productivity.
- c) An increasing rate of accidents and wastage of raw material.

- d) Rank indiscipline.
- e) Frustration and unrest in the workforce.
- f) Defiant and violent behaviour of employees at or outside the workplace, and frequent confrontation or argument with supervisors and managers.
- g) Non-cooperation, strikes, gheraos, abusive and violent demonstration.

Frustration, which is the most common manifestation of demotivation may be caused by erosion of real wages due to rising prices and unsatisfactory personnel administration. But whenever it develops, an employee will either seek a better job elsewhere if he or she can or will develop a sense of apathy towards the organisation and work so that he or she would do as little as possible. Other demotivation consequences of frustration may be as illustrated in **Figure I**.

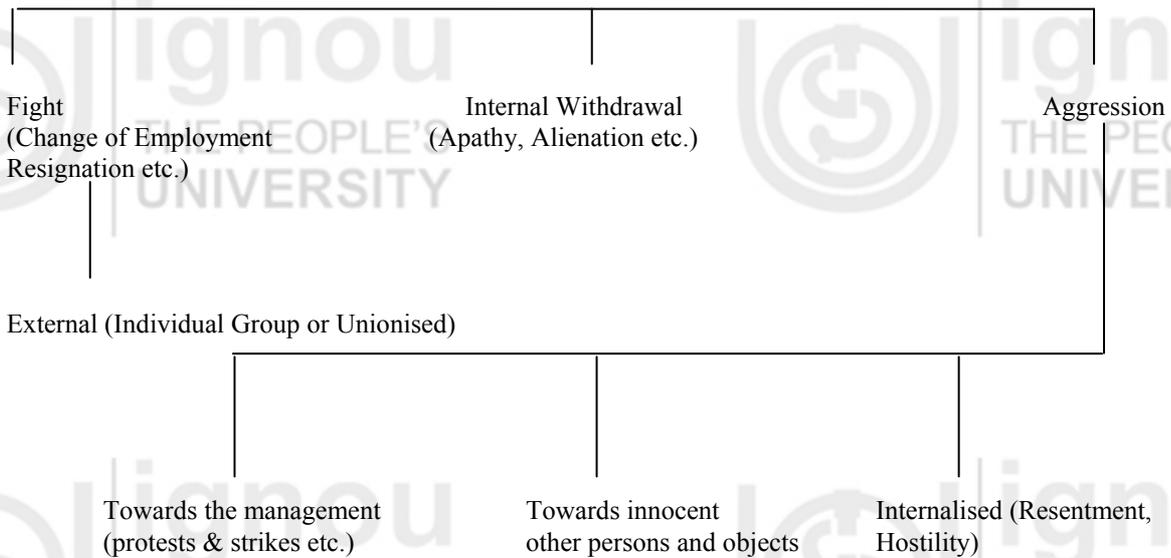


Figure I: Frustration at the Work Place

6.5 THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

Although no area of personnel management has been more debated than motivation, the latter has been and still is an important area, where considerable research is being conducted by psychologists, behavioural scientists and management writers. Based on this research many theories of motivation have been formulated. Some of the important theories which try to provide explanations of the behaviour outcome are as below:

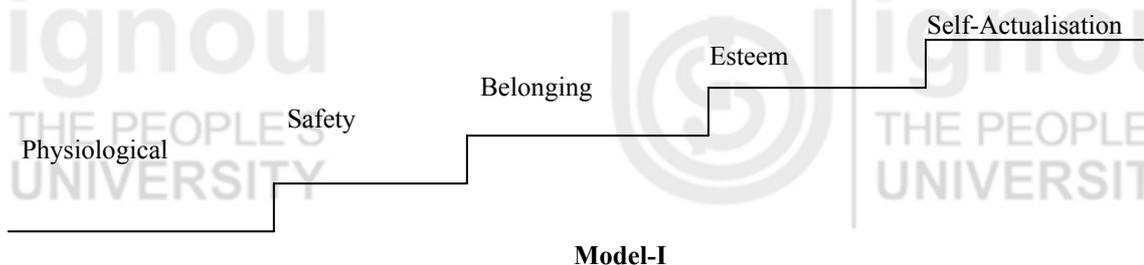
- i) **B.F. Skinner's Theory of Operant Conditioning or Behaviour Modification Theory:** According to this theory people behave the way they do because in past circumstances they learned that certain behaviour was associated with pleasant outcomes, while certain other behaviour was associated with unpleasant outcomes. In other words behaviour of a person **depends upon its consequences**. In simple language this is a theory of learning, i.e. how to make an animal or human being learn what is positive or desirable behaviour. This feeling can be induced by introducing some favour at the end of some positive behaviour, thus strengthening the urge to repeat the behaviour. **Skinner** did not make any research in the field of industries, but he conducted his researches to study learning process among rats, and also experimented with school children and found that stimulus for desirable behaviour could be strengthened by rewarding it at the earliest. In the industrial situation, the relevance of this theory may be found in the installation of some type of incentives. More immediate is the reward, and the stimulation or the motivation it creates. Withdrawal of reward in case of

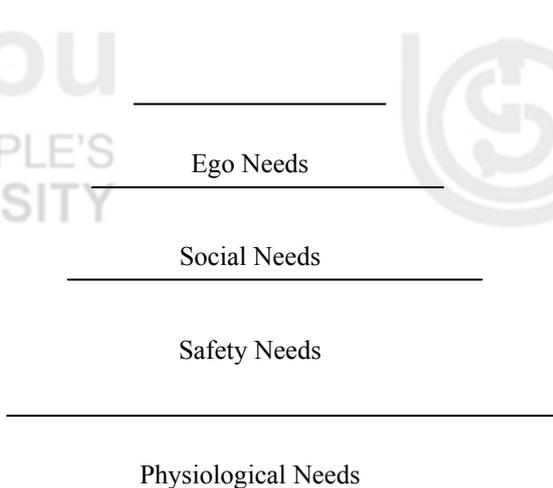
substandard work may also produce the desired result. However, researches show that it is generally more effective to reward desired behaviour than to punish undesired behaviour.

- ii) **McClelland's Need for Achievement Theory:** This theory has particular reference to industrial enterprises, as the achievement motive naturally has much to do with the success and failure of an enterprise. In the US maximum research has been conducted on the achievement motive. According to McClelland the three human needs are **need for affiliation, need for power and need for achievement**. His theory postulates that some people are much more achievement minded than others and they attain job satisfaction, and derive a special kind of joy in attaining an objective successfully or accomplish a challenging job or completing a job of great responsibility rather than receiving a monetary or other reward. According to him need for achievement or self-actualisation is the strongest and lasting motivating factor, particularly in case of persons whose power needs are satisfied. McClelland stated that the motivational pattern and factors are influenced by the family, friends, culture, social attitudes and other similar factors. And achievement motivated people are usually not as much money hungry as they are for achievement and accomplishment. This type of motivation may be seen more among people with higher technical skill and professional knowledge, than in labour intensive traditional organisations.
- iii) **Abraham H. Maslow's Need Hierarchy or Deficient Theory of Motivation:** You have read in Unit 5 about Maslow's theory. Here we discuss something more on it. The intellectual basis for most of the motivation thinking has been provided by the behavioural scientists, like A.H. Maslow and Frederick Herzberg. Although Maslow himself did not apply his theory to industrial situation, it has a wide impact far beyond academic circles. Douglass MacGregor has used Maslow's theory to interpret specific problems in personnel administration and industrial relations.

The crux of Maslow's theory is that human needs are arranged in a hierarchy composed of five categories. The lowest level needs are physiological and the highest level are the self-actualisation needs. Maslow starts with the formulation that man is a wanting animal with a hierarchy of needs, of which some are lower in scale and some are in a higher scale or system of values. As the lower needs are satisfied, higher needs emerge. Higher needs cannot be satisfied unless lower needs are fulfilled. A satisfied need is no longer a motivator. The hierarchy of needs at work in the individual, is today a routine tool of the personnel trade, and when these needs are active they act as powerful conditioners of behaviour – as motivators.

Hierarchy of Needs: The main needs of a person are five i.e. physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, ego needs and self-realisation or self-actualisation needs, as shown in order of their importance and working in the following two Models.





Model II

The above five basic needs are regarded as striving needs which make a person do things. The first model indicates the ranking of the different needs. The second is more helpful in indicating how the satisfaction of the higher needs is based on the satisfaction of the lower needs. It also shows how the number of persons who have experienced the fulfilment of higher needs gradually tapers off.

Physiological or Body Needs: The individual moves up the ladder responding first to the physiological needs for nourishment, clothing and shelter. These physical needs must be equated with pay rate, pay practices and to an extent with the physical conditions of the job.

Safety/Security: The next in order of needs is safety/security need, the need to be free from danger, either from other people or from environment. The individual wants to be assured, once his or her bodily needs are satisfied, that they are secure and will continue to be satisfied for the foreseeable future. The safety needs may take the form of job security, security against disease, misfortune, old age, etc. as also against industrial injury. Such needs are generally met by safety laws, measures of social security, protective labour laws and collective agreements.

Social Needs: Going up the scale of needs, the individual feels the desire to work in a cohesive group and develop a sense of belonging and identification with a group. He or she feels the need to love and be loved and the need to belong and be identified with a group both within the organisation and in the society. In a large organisation it is not easy to build up social relations. However close relations can be built up with at least some fellow workers. Every employee wants to feel that he or she is wanted or accepted by the society where he or she belong or want to belong.

Ego or Esteem Needs: These needs are reflected in our desire for status and recognition, respect and prestige in the workgroup or workplace, such as is conferred by the recognition of one's merit by promotion, by participation in management and by the fulfilment of a worker's urge for self-expression. Some of the needs relate to one's self-esteem, e.g. need for achievement, self-confidence, knowledge, competence, etc. On the job, this means praise for a job well done. But more important, it means a feeling by the employee that at all times he or she has the respect of his or her supervisor as a person and as a contributor to the organisation's goal.

Self-realisation or Self-actualisation Needs: This upper level need is one which when satisfied makes the employee give up dependence on others on the environment. The person becomes growth-oriented, self-directed, detached and creative. This need reflects a state

defined in terms of the extent to which an individual attains his or her personal goal. This is the need, which totally lies within oneself and there is no demand from any external situation or person. To quote Maslow, “**A musician must make music, an artist must paint, a poet must write, if he is to be ultimately happy. What a man can be he must be. This need we may call self-actualisation**”. The person has “the desire to be more and more what one is, to become everything what one is capable of becoming”. In practical terms, in an organisation one seldom achieves self-realisation. However, the creativity of a person in producing new and practical ideas, in bringing about productivity, innovation and reducing costs might satisfy some of these needs.

By and large Maslow’s analysis is significant, and he may also be correct in saying that saturated basic needs act as disincentives, but his reasoning is not free from flaws. For the majority of industrial workers or executives even basic needs are never satisfied fully. These needs are recurrent and some of them are fairly constant. They may vary, say from a small flat to a bigger flat, or from a small car to a bigger car, but all the same they are there. Moreover, as observed earlier, the industrial scene is hardly conducive to satisfying higher needs, particularly the one of self-actualisation. A highly dedicated and committed executive may have a highly developed sense of responsibility, but may not have the need for self-actualisation.

- iv) **Herzberg’s Two Factor or Hygiene or Maintenance Theory of Motivation:** According to Herzberg, one has two different categories of needs which are essentially independent of each other and affect ones behaviour in different ways. When people are dissatisfied about their jobs, they are concerned about the environment i.e. the job conditions in which they are working. On the other hand, when people feel good about their job, this has to do with the work itself. Herzberg calls the first category of needs **hygiene/maintenance** factors because they describe one’s environment and serve the primary purpose of maintaining a reasonable level of job satisfaction. He calls the second category of needs as **motivators** since they seem to be effective in motivating people to superior performance. Hygiene factors include company policies, administration, supervision, working conditions, interpersonal relations, wages and allowances, status and security. Motivators or job content factors include achievement, recognition, increased responsibility, challenging work, growth and development. According to Herzberg both the sets of factors work in one direction only. Absence of hygiene factors may dissatisfy the workers but will not demotivate them. Similarly, in the presence of motivators, workers may be motivated, but their absence does not make them dissatisfied.

Herzberg’s theory and observations are based on the information collected by him and his colleagues by interviewing 200 engineers and accountants in the late fifties at Pittsburg in order to assess what motivated them in their work. Obviously this was a group of employees whose lower needs, i.e. physiological, safety and even social needs by and large were satisfied and so they could be motivated by the remaining two higher needs, i.e. esteem and self-actualisation. **Herzberg’s** theory may, therefore, be relevant for better paid executives. Moreover, it has to be understood that some maintenance factors for one person can be motivational factors for another and vice versa. Hardly any organisation can offer unbounded opportunities for personal growth to its executives. So a middle way has to be found.

- v) **Alderfer’s ERG Theory of Motivation:** Taking Maslow’s theory as the starting point, **Clayton Alderfer** has built up a theory which he claims has realistic application to a work organisation. According to him, **Maslow’s** five levels of needs can be amalgamated into three, i.e. “**existence relatedness and growth**” resulting in his approach being termed **ERG** Theory. His **Existence Needs** include all forms of physiological and safety needs or **Maslow’s** first two level needs. **Related Needs** include relationship with other people (Social Needs of **Maslow’s** third level) and that part of **Maslow’s** fourth level (Esteem Needs) which

are derived from other people. **Growth Needs**, like **Maslow's** notion of self-actualisation, are concerned with the desire to be creative and to achieve full potential in the existing environment.

Alderfer's theory conceives of ERG needs along a continuum thus avoiding the implication that the higher up an individual is in the hierarchy the better it is. According to him different types of needs can operate simultaneously, and if a particular path towards the satisfaction is blocked, the individual will both persist along that path and at the same time regress towards more easily satisfied needs. In this way, he distinguishes between chronic needs which persist over a period and the episode needs which are situational and can change according to the environment.

- vi) **J.S. Adam's Equity Theory:** The essence of this theory is that employees make comparison of their efforts and rewards with those of others in similar work situations. In other words, the employees try to assess their own worth in comparison to their colleagues. Inequity exists when these ratios are not equivalent. The existence of perceived inequity creates tension, and greater the inequity greater the tension is. Such a tension may motivate the worker to increase or decrease their output or input to attain equity. The importance of this theory to management lies in the area of determining appropriate levels of rewards.
- vii) **V.H. Varoom's Expectancy Theory:** According to **Varoom**, an individual's level of performance is determined by one's preference for particular goals. He calls level of performance as the first level outcome and preference for a goal as second level outcome. An individual's **preference** for a particular goal which **Varoom** calls **Valence** can be positive or negative, or zero, depending on whether the individual prefers to attain the goal, or not, or it can be zero, if he is indifferent towards the outcome.

The degree to which the individual **believes** that his first level outcome (performance) leads to the second level outcome (preferred goal) is a subjective probability estimate which **Varoom** calls **Instrumentality**. The combination of Valence of the Goal and the Instrumentality determines the importance of level of performance. Another major variable in the **Varoom's** motivational scheme is **Expectancy** which like **Instrumentality** is also a probability estimate, in other words an individual will relate whether an effort in a particular job will give the desired performance. The former relates efforts to the level of performance. And the latter relates performance to the preferred goal i.e. relate a particular level of performance to some reward. Expectancy will depend on the requisite skill and abilities of the individual, as also on his perception of the most appropriate way of obtaining his objectives.

Thus, what the individual does will depend on a three step thought process (i) How important are the various second level outcomes (preferred goal)? (ii) Will the first level outcome (level of performance) lead to second level outcome or preferred goal (instrumentality)? (iii) Will existing effort in fact achieve high performance (Expectancy)? Although **Varoom's** theory does not directly contribute to the techniques of motivating personnel in an organisation, it is of value in analysing organisational behaviour.

It also points out that people can differ greatly in how they size up their chances for success in different jobs. Therefore, to motivate people, it is just not enough to offer them some rewards. They must also feel reasonably convinced that they have the ability to obtain the reward.

Check Your Progress-1

- 1) Discuss the different types of motivation.
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2) Describe Maslow's need hierarchy.

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6.6 MOTIVATION AND MORALE

These two expressions are not synonymous or interchangeable as may be clear from the definition and nature of motivation explained earlier in this Unit. But the fact remains that a motivated group of workers generally has a high degree of morale. Morale is a composite attitude of various individuals employed by a company. It is generated by the group and may be considered as a by-product of the group. It is not an average of individual attitudes. **M.S. Viteles** defines morale as “**an attitude of satisfaction, with a desire to continue in, and willingness to strive for, the goals of a particular group or organisation**”. **Milton Blum** describes morale as “**the possession of feeling of being accepted by and the belonging to a group of employees through adherence to a common goal and confidence in the desirability of these goals**”. Put simply, morale is a group concept, while motivation is largely an individual concept. Morale is the summation of feeling of employees as a group towards various aspects of their work job, the company, working conditions, fellow workers, supervisors and so on. If the attitude of employees towards all these aspects is more positive than negative, the morale of the group can be said to be high, otherwise it is low.

Important components and determinants of morale are (a) a feeling of togetherness, (b) need for a clear goal or objective to be achieved, (c) expectation of success towards the attainment of the goal, (d) feeling of each member within the group that each individual has a meaningful task to perform for achieving the goal and whatever may be the job assigned to the individual it matters and (e) supportive and stimulative leadership. All these determinants of morale are equivalent to that of job satisfaction which is a precursor of morale. However, the two differ as the term job satisfaction is used for individual and morale for groups.

An enlightened management should be conscious of the need for assessing the morale of its employees by opinion poll or attitude survey from time to time. Low morale can be caused by factors beyond the control of the organisation. However, employee morale can be boosted up by (a) better methods of working in which employees or their representatives may have a bigger say, (b) utilisation of incentive schemes with the widest possible coverage, and (c) consultative and participative style of management.

What Demotivates or Demoralises the Employees? Well, there are some management practices which affect the morale and motivation or willingness of employees to give their best or work in the desired manner. Some of these practices are:

- a) **Under assignment:** If a skilled person is assigned an unskilled or routine job, it may cause frustration or job dissatisfaction and thus demotivation.
- b) **Over assignment:** If a good worker is overloaded to the point where he or she feels being exploited, this may make him or her lose interest in work. In big organisations, it is rather a common practice to pick up good workers as others cannot be trusted or depended upon.

- c) **Buckmastership:** Superiors or leaders avoiding hard work themselves and passing on the same to their subordinates, and then finding fault with them is a common management practice which may erode employee motivation.
- d) **Coercive** types of control or supervision which may give the employee a feeling that he or she is not being trusted may also demotivate or erode his or her interest in the work. Some control no doubt is essential but if it is too coercive resulting in frequent warnings or punishments, or withdrawal of facilities to chasten the employee, morale and motivation of the employee may go down.
- e) **Manipulative** behaviour of the management which may take the form of divide and rule policy or tactics, making promises which are not fulfilled, encouraging groupism and so on may also have a demotivating effect. When employees perceive such behaviour, they naturally cease to work and lose interest in the same.

6.7 MOTIVATION OF EMPLOYEES IN ACTUAL PRACTICE

There is no single magic wand to motivate employees as their needs and priorities of satisfaction differ. What may motivate one may not motivate the other. However, as **Taylor** has observed, it is for the employer to find out the right way that could make employees more productive. According to him an employee is a bundle of untapped energy, ready to work if, properly trained and fairly treated. In managing an organisation, some of the important factors which could improve motivation and morale of its employees are as follows:

- i) A well-defined humanistic personnel policy wherein the workforce is regarded as the valuable asset of the organisation, and sufficient care is taken to maintain and develop it, not only to attain organisational objectives but also to satisfy the normal needs and aspirations of employees.
- ii) A long-term employment policy projecting image of fairness in recruitment and selection, placement of the right person in the right job, sound and fair promotion and transfer policies, well-planned need-based training and development programmes for grooming employees for higher jobs or building their career in the organisation, and suitable manpower planning.
- iii) Fair wages and salary administration ensuring equitable wage structure free from internal and external inequalities.
- iv) Good performance should be rewarded adequately at the earliest and also be given deserving publicity. A constructive and objective system of performance appraisal and merit rating of employees aiming at improving them and not so much for punishing them.
- v) Prompt handling of workers' grievances by having a short time-bound procedure well-known to employees. In handling grievances, the attitude of persons managing grievances should be cooperative and positive and not negative, and the worker should have the feeling that he or she will be properly heard and justice will be done.
- vi) In handling disciplinary cases the management should not only be fair but also seem to be fair. Disciplinary procedure should conform to the principles of natural justice. A corrective and not punitive approach in this respect may be more motivating.
- vii) Participative and consultative style of management and supervision and increasing autonomy in work may create necessary conditions for motivating workers to give their best.
- viii) Job enrichment and enlargement, or making the job more challenging are also essential for making the workers give their best, as these will not only reduce job boredom and frustration, but also increase job satisfaction. This will satisfy the esteem or ego and self-actualisation needs of employees, which are perpetual motivators.

- ix) Self-motivation by top management, senior and middle managers and supervisors is essential if the persons working under them are to be motivated. The dictum “**before you motivate others, you must first motivate yourself**” should not be lost sight of. Seniors are expected to provide their juniors effective leadership and set an example of dedication and superior skill.

6.8 JOB ENRICHMENT – MEANING, NATURE AND OBJECTIVES

Job enrichment is a term used often for the process of achieving and improving the “quality of work life”. **Herzberg** describes job enrichment as **that type of improvement in the context of the job which may give a worker more of a challenge, more of a complete task, more responsibility, more opportunity for growth, and more chance to contribute his or her ideas.** The need for such an improvement in the job content is being stressed by the social and behavioural scientists. This is because excessive job specialisation introduced by scientific management and advancing modern technology has been dehumanising the work by making the workers job meaningless, routine repetitive, removing all challenges from it and making the worker a part of the machine culture. As human capabilities are not being fully utilised under such conditions, it is creating frustration among the workers and alienating them from their jobs. The increasing alienation of workers from their jobs is creating a serious human relations problem. Some organisations have been trying to solve the problem of excessive job specialisation by periodic job rotation to provide variety, but this has not proved adequate to reduce work boredom and monotony.

In recent years, considerable research has been undertaken with respect to more unusual and seemingly risky changes in job content. Among these are job enlargement, job enrichment and semi-autonomous groups.

Job Enrichment and Job Enlargement: Both these changes involve redesigning of the job and have the objective of humanising work by introducing more variety in work, increasing responsibilities, and making work more interesting, challenging and motivating. **Job enlargement** implies **additions of more functions and increasing the variety of tasks and duties to reduce monotony.** But the additional responsibilities involved are of a horizontal nature. **Job enrichment** implies **an improvement in the quality and variety of work,** and the additional responsibilities are of a critical nature encompassing self-growth by introducing motivators. Again the **job enlargement** merely makes a job structurally bigger, while **job enrichment** provides the opportunity for the employees’ psychological growth. The job enrichment approach to job designing is, therefore, more often recommended by the behaviourists.

According to **Hackman and Oldham**, the following are the important job characteristics underlying job enrichment:

- a) **Skill Variety:** This provides variety in the job creating opportunities for employees to perform a wide range of operations in their work and use a wide variety of equipment and procedures.
- b) **Task Identity:** This allows employees to do an entire or whole piece of work so that employees can clearly identify the result of their effort.
- c) **Task Significance:** This makes employees feel that the job has a substantial impact on others. The impact can be on others in the organisation, as when the employees perform a key step in the work process, or it may be on others outside the organisation, as when the worker helps to make a life-saving instrument.

- d) **Autonomy:** This gives employees a certain control over their work and make them feel that the work is their own and they are responsible for whatever success or failure ensuing from their work. Autonomy measures the extent to which employees have a say in scheduling their work and work time, selecting the equipment they will use, and deciding on the procedure to be followed and so on. The autonomy is created through a process of “vertical loading” that is, the worker is given self-management rights in multiple areas.
- e) **Feedback:** The worker must receive useful and believable information regarding the job performance. Feedback may come from the job itself or from the supervisor or from other persons.

6.9 HOW TO ENRICH JOBS?

Usually job enrichment is undertaken at the management initiative, often with the assistance of behavioural scientists as consultants for analysing the content of the job and designing a new job-structure. The management’s initiative is aroused by its perception of workers’ apathy and indifferent performance, high rate of absenteeism, and other symptoms which indicate that workers do not like the jobs they are doing.

There is no one way of enriching a job. The technology and the circumstances dictate which techniques or combination of techniques could be appropriate. According to **Tripathi**, some of the important techniques followed are:

- i) Rotation of tasks, broadening of qualifications of skills and responsibilities, enhancement of the intrinsic interest of the job and removing or lessening supervision.
- ii) Increasing responsibilities of individuals for their own work.
- iii) Giving employees more scope to vary the methods, sequence and pace of their work.
- iv) Giving a person or a work group a complete natural unit of work i.e. reducing task specialisation.
- v) Removing some controls from above while ensuring the individual or groups are clearly accountable for achieving targets or standards.
- vi) Allowing more say or influence in setting targets and the standard of performance.
- vii) Giving employees the control information that they need to monitor their own performance.
- viii) Encouraging the participation of employees in planning work, innovating new techniques and reviewing results.
- ix) Introducing new and more difficult tasks not previously handled.
- x) Assigning individuals or groups specific projects which give them more responsibility and help them to increase their expertise.
- xi) Making crisis decision in problem situations rather than relying on the boss.

As observed by **Edwin B. Flippo** the most critical core dimension of job enrichment is that of job autonomy. It is certainly the critical difference between job enrichment and job enlargement. The autonomy is created through a process of “vertical loading” that is, the worker is given self-management rights in multiple areas. In various programmes such additional responsibilities include setting one’s own work schedule and work break, in establishing work methods, making one’s own quality checks, varying the work break, in establishing work methods, changing duties with others, setting priorities as to work performed, making crisis decision in problem situations rather than relying on the boss and training less experienced workers.

Flippo outlines the theory of job enrichment in the following model prepared by **J. Richard Hackman** and **Greg R. Oldham**.

Model of Job Enrichment

Core Job Dimensions	Critical Psychological States	Personal and work outcomes
Skill Variety Task Identity Task Significance	Experienced Meaningfulness of work	High interest work performance
Autonomy	Experienced Responsibility for outcomes of the work	High quality Work performance
Feedback	Knowledge of the actual work activities Employee Growth Need strength	High motivation with the work Low absenteeism and turnover.

Some Experiments of Job Enrichment and their Success

Redesigning of jobs which job enrichment involves is a complete process and needs expert advice and guidance and a detailed study of the existing socio-technical system, even a long period of trial with new forms of operations. However, numerous job enrichment experimental programmes have been reported in the literature on this subject. At the Olivetti plant in Italy, where assembly method has been given up, each worker is now given the responsibility for a large job like an entire key board, the final assembly of an electronic calculator, a print system etc. At the Kremafactory in Reims in France, workers are specially trained so that they can operate without supervisors. The workers prefer this system and now the plant requires 20% fewer employees and so the workers can earn more in the process. A dye casting plant near Stockholm was suffering from high labour turn-over and poor productivity. In 1971 the management decided, on the basis of expert advice, to take major steps: (i) to transfer part of the responsibility from the supervisors to groups of workers and (ii) to introduce a flexible wage system based on group achievements. The results were: (i) productivity rose by 40% over a two-year period, (ii) labour turnover dropped from 60% to 18% and spoilage dropped from 4.3% to 3%. The experiments of the Institute of Human Relations, London, in British Coal Mines proved that a small self-managed team doing a variety of jobs was more productive than each man working alone even when semi-automatic equipment had been introduced.

A more famous experiment was that carried out in a new plant at Poes-Grunn by the Norsk Hydro Co., producing chemicals and fertilisers. Work in the plant had been organised in five teams of twelve workers each. Each team comprised three workgroups of four workers each, who were trained to carry out all the operations in one particular area of work, including maintenance and clearing of work areas as well as quality control. A special action committee consisting of an outside researcher, the plant manager, the representatives of the local union, of supervisors and of the personnel department, met weekly to watch and guide and experiment in the early stages. Later on this work was taken over by the 'Department Committee' which had been set up in a Norwegian industry under a collective agreement with the union in 1967. The findings in quite a few establishments where such experiments were conducted, were that productivity increased 20% or more with less supervision and the workers had high job satisfaction. This attracted the attention of industrialists all over Europe.

In the Traveller's Insurance Company, the job of a key operator was enriched to include: (a) working for one particular department; (b) communicating directly with user-clients; (c) checking one's own quality; (d) establishing a personal work schedule; and (e) correcting one's errors. This resulted in an increase in the quantity of output by 31% decrease in the error rate by 8.5%, and a decrease of 3% in the rate of absenteeism.

A recent survey of 58 companies with job enrichment programmes has revealed that two-thirds felt that product quality had improved and half said that employee turn-over was down to an average of 18%. Over one-third reported decrease in absenteeism by 16%, and one-third indicated that employee satisfaction had improved with grievances dropping by 16%.

Despite the well-developed theories and many reports of programme success, one can say that job enrichment is not a panacea. When a large insurance company attempted to introduce job enrichment, 82% of the affected employees reported liking the jobs, but almost as many as 68% stated that the employees' morale was lower because they were not being paid in proportion to increased duties. Success of job enrichment process is influenced by employees' growth need. Those high in the need for achievement are more likely to respond to job enrichment opportunities, and employees with low achievement needs are often unaffected by these changes. A person with high achievement needs is one who feels a need to accomplish something important, to compete against a challenging standard of excellence and prefers to receive a clear feedback of results. Again, employees who are younger and more educated are more responsive to job enrichment. The fact that all employees are not alike in their growth needs is further indicated by another survey of some 1500 employees which reveals that collar employees ranked "interesting work" as most important. On the other hand, blue collar employees ranked "interesting work" in the seventh position, after such items as security, pay, helpful co-workers, and clearly defined responsibilities. Hence management should not assume that job enrichment will be a success with all employees.

Check Your Progress-2

- 1) Mention the factors that improve motivation and morale.
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- 2) How can jobs be enriched?
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6.10 LET US SUM UP

Willingness to work is as important a component of one's performance as his or her ability to work, if not more. Motivation means not only willingness to work but also willingness to work in a desired manner which may help to attain organisational objective. The incentive can be meant to motivate employees to better performance. Importance of motivation as management function is obvious from the fact that it is an essential pre-requisite for the survival and growth of an organisation, which largely depends on the effective utilisation of the workforce. And it is not possible unless the workforce is motivated adequately. Every human problem has a motivational element. Apart from other characteristics, motivation is a situational and complex problem as it relates to human behaviour and attitude towards work, which is subject to change and so difficult to predict.

Employee motivation is intrinsic as well as extrinsic because it is affected by elements present both within and outside the job. This is confirmed by motivation theories formulated by social and behavioural scientists. Some of these theories indicate the factors including human needs, which influence employee motivation, particularly **Maslow's** and **Herzberg's** theories of motivation which have been discussed in this Unit. However, in practice employees attitude and behaviour at work are influenced considerably by organisational structure and its working and quality of work life. They are also influenced by personnel problems like recruitment, selection, promotion and transfers, wage and salary administration, handling of conflicts, grievances and disciplinary cases, and employee welfare.

The need for job enlargement and job enrichment has arisen from the increasing alienation of workers from their job monotony and boredom created by advancing modern technology and specialisation. The management tries to improve the jobs horizontally (job enlargement) or vertically (job enrichment) on perceiving workers' apathy or indifferent performance, high rate of absenteeism, and other symptoms indicating that the workers do not like their jobs even when they are rewarded adequately for the same. Important job enlargement and enrichment techniques used are: additional job functions, rotation of job tasks, broadening of qualifications or skills and responsibilities, increasing job autonomy by lessening or removing supervision, enhancement of the intrinsic interest of the job, etc. Experiments have been made to improve the quality of work life by enriching or enlarging the jobs with such good results as increased output, decreased absenteeism, dropping grievances, and increased employee satisfaction. However, the response of blue-collar employees and employees with low growth needs was not encouraging. Yet, both are used extensively in tourism industry for a variety of reasons like: lack of availability of trained manpower in destination zones, to provide better customer care, seasonal nature of employment, small size of tourism firms, etc.

6.11 CLUES TO ANSWERS

Check Your Progress-1

- 1) Read Sec. 6.4.
- 2) See Sec.6.5.

Check Your Progress-2

- 1) Base your answer on Sec. 6.7.
- 2) Read Sec. 6.8.

Some Activities

- 1) Identify your own motivators in order of priority.
- 2) Visit any tourism firm and assess the motivating or demotivating factors among the employees.