UNIT 2 WORK MOTIVATION

Structure
2.0 Introduction
2.1 Objectives
2.2 Meaning of Work
2.3 Nature of Work Motivation
  2.3.1 Defining Work Motivation
  2.3.2 Characteristics of Work Motivation
  2.3.3 Process of Motivation
  2.3.4 Relationship Between Motivation and Performance
  2.3.5 General Model of Work Motivation
2.4 Classification Of Motives at Work
  2.4.1 Primary and Secondary Motives
  2.4.2 Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation
2.5 Developments in Motivation Theory
2.6 Importance of Motivation in Organisations
2.7 Let Us Sum Up
2.8 Unit End Questions
2.9 Glossary
2.10 Suggested Readings and References

2.0 INTRODUCTION

Motivation has long been the topic of interest for both managers and organisational researchers. There are two primary reasons for this continued interest. First, motivation is an integral part of the performance equation at all levels. It is therefore an important topic to be understood for pragmatic reasons. Second, motivation is seen as the fundamental building block in the development of useful theories of effective management practice. It is indeed an important topic in many subfields in the study of management including leadership, managerial ethics, decision making and organisational change. It is not surprising, therefore, that this topic has received a lot of attention and generated many approaches toward understanding it.

This unit is devoted to the understanding of the nature of work motivation. Various developments in motivation theory are also highlighted in this unit.

2.1 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:
- Explain the meaning of work and present its functions for an individual;
- Describe the concept of motivation;
- Elucidate a conceptual model of work motivation;
- Explain the main types of motives at work; and
- Analyse the developments in motivation theory.
2.2 MEANING OF WORK

Work has been defined variously by authors and researchers from several streams. A broad definition that encompasses conceptualisations of work across social and behavioural sciences has been offered by Budd & Bhave (2010). He defined work as a purposeful human activity involving physical or mental exertion that is not undertaken solely for pleasure and that has economic value. The first part of this definition (“purposeful human activity”) distinguishes work from the broader realm of all human effort. The second part (“not undertaken solely for pleasure”) separates work from leisure, while allowing for work to be pleasurable and thereby recognising that there can sometimes be a nebulous boundary between work and leisure. The final part (“that has economic value”) allows work to be more encompassing than paid employment by also including unpaid caring for others, self-employment, subsistence farming, casual work in the informal sector, and other activities outside the standard boundaries of paid jobs and career aspirations.

Work and its related motivational variables have also been defined from the point of view of the worker. Roe (1956) described work as the main focus of an individual’s activities and thoughts. Lofquist and Dawis (1969) defined work as a focal point for the development of one’s way of life, and a vehicle for one’s total adjustment throughout life. These two definitions emphasise the impact of work on individual lives.

Work as a human activity serves several important functions for an individual:

- **Economic function** – Work provides goods and services, either directly through self-production or indirectly through earned income. Mainstream economic thought highlights this function by conceptualising work as an abstract quantity of productive effort that has tradable economic value. It is seen as something that individuals do in order to earn income and maximise their individual or household utility.

- **Social relation function** – Work consists of human interactions that are experienced in and shaped by social networks, norms and power relations. It thus serves a social relation function by allowing individuals to seek approval, status, sociability, and power. These needs may be met in the context of the structural features of employment relation such as formal policies, rules, and routines (Thompson & Newsome, 2004) or informal elements operating in the work environment such as organisational culture (Knights & Willmott, 1989).

- **Personal fulfillment function** – The nature of one’s work – such as the job tasks, rewards, relations with co-workers, and supervision – can affect one’s cognitive and affective states. Ideally, work is a source of personal fulfillment and psychological well-being because it can satisfy human needs for achievement, mastery, self-esteem, and self-worth (Turner, Barling, & Zacharatos, 2002). But lousy work – work with mindless repetition, abusive co-workers or bosses, excessive physical or mental demands, or other factors – can have negative psychological consequences.

- **Identity function** – Since work is such a major part of many people’s lives, it can be conceptualised as a source of identity, that is, understanding and
meaning (Leidner, 2006). This can occur on several levels. The personal identity dimension focuses on stable and consistent attributes and traits that an individual sees as making him or herself unique (Turner & Onorato, 1999). This can contain biographical information, including descriptors related to one’s work. The social identity approach focuses on how individuals further construct their identities by categorising themselves into various groups (Hogg, 2006). This might include one’s occupation, employer, and other work-related group constructs. The interactionist approach suggests that individuals create identities through social interactions with others (McCall & Simmons, 1966). From this perspective, the social roles attached to occupations and careers are a major source of our self-presentation and identity during our adult years (Hughes, 1971).

2.3 NATURE OF WORK MOTIVATION

The study of motivation is concerned with why people behave in a certain way. The basic underlying question is ‘why do people do what they do?’ An important problem in the study of motivation is accounting for purposiveness of behaviour.

The term motivation derives from the Latin word movere which means ‘to move’. Taken literally, motivation is the process of arousing movement but the term ordinarily applies to the arousal of one kind of movement – behaviour. However, the study of motivation is not restricted to the process of evoking behaviour, but it also includes an analysis of the conditions which sustain activity and which regulate its patterning. It is also concerned with why people choose a particular course of action in preference to others, and why they continue with a chosen action, often over a long period, and in the face of difficulties and problems.

2.3.1 Defining Work Motivation

In an attempt to understand the concept of motivation and highlight its complexity, several definitions have been offered. Atkinson (1964) defines motivation as “the contemporary (immediate) influence on direction, vigour, and persistence of action”, while Vroom (1964) defines it as “a process governing choice made by persons among alternative forms of voluntary activity”. Campbell and Pritchard (1976) suggest that “motivation has to do with a set of independent/ dependent variable relationships that explain the direction, amplitude, and persistence of an individual’s behaviour, holding constant the effects of aptitude, skill, and understanding of the task, and the constraints operating in the environment”. Kanfer (1990) describes motivation as “a set of psychological processes involved with the arousal, direction, intensity, and persistence of voluntary actions that are goal directed”.

All definitions appear to have four common denominators which may be said to characterise the phenomenon of motivation. That is, when we discuss motivation, we are primarily concerned with:

1) Activation of behaviour – It has to do with the drive or energy behind our actions and is demonstrated by the arousal of goal-directed behaviour.

2) Direction of behaviour – It is concerned with the paths people choose toward meeting their goals and is seen by the regulation of behaviour toward specific goals.
3) **Persistence of behaviour** – It has to do with continued efforts in the achievement of goals often in the face of obstacles and is demonstrated by sustained activity over a period of time.

4) **Intensity of behaviour** – It is concerned with the extent of effort put in to achieve a goal and is seen in the concentration and vigour that goes into pursuing the goal.

A definition of work motivation that covers these denominators is presented by Katzell and Thompson (1990) who defines it as a “broad construct pertaining to the conditions and processes that account for arousal, direction, magnitude, and maintenance of effort in a person’s job”. Pinder (1998) defined work motivation as “a set of energetic forces that originate both within as well as beyond an individual’s being, to initiate work-related behaviours, and to determine its form, direction, intensity, and duration”. There are two noteworthy features of this definition. First, motivation is identified as an energising force – it is what induces action in employees. Second, this force has implications for the form, direction, intensity, and duration of behaviour. That is, it explains what employees are motivated to accomplish, how they will attempt to accomplish it, how hard they will work to do so, and when they will stop.

More recently, Robbins (2005) defines work motivation as “the willingness to exert high levels of effort towards organisational goals, conditioned by the effort’s ability to satisfy some individual needs”. Three key elements can be seen in this definition: effort, organisational goals, and needs. The **effort** element is a measure of intensity or drive. A motivated person tries hard. But high levels of effort are unlikely to lead to favourable job performance unless the effort is channeled in a direction that benefits the organisation. Therefore, one must consider the quality of the effort as well as its intensity. Effort that is directed toward, and is consistent with, organisational goals is the kind of effort that managers and organisations should be seeking. Finally, motivation is a need-satisfying process. A need refers to some internal state that makes certain outcomes appear attractive. An unsatisfied need creates tension that stimulates drives within an individual. These drives lead to a search behaviour to find particular goals that, if attained, will satisfy the need and reduce the tension. When the individuals’ needs are compatible with the organisation’s goals, they may exert high levels of effort that are beneficial for the organisation.

Work motivation is thus concerned with factors that energise, channel, sustain and amplify work performance toward organisational goals. Gaps between motivation and performance exist whenever people avoid starting something new, resist doing something familiar, stop doing something important and switch their attention to a less valued task, or refuse to “work smart” on a new challenge and instead use old, familiar but inadequate solutions to solve a new problem (Clark, 1998).

### 2.3.2 Characteristics of Work Motivation

From a review of motivational definitions, several characteristics of work motivation can be identified:

1) Motivation is an individual psychological phenomenon that allows for a person’s uniqueness to be demonstrated at the workplace.
2) It is assumed to be under the person’s control. Behaviours that are influenced by motivation, such as effort expended, are seen as purposive rather than random.

3) The direction of a person’s behaviour toward organisational goals is determined by work motivation.

4) It describes concerted effort often in the face of obstacles until the goal is accomplished.

5) It leads individuals to invest greater cognitive effort to enhance both the quality and quantity of work performance.

6) It is distinct from performance; other factors besides motivation (e.g., ability and task difficulty) influence performance.

7) It is multifaceted. People may have several different motives operating at once. Sometimes, these motives may conflict with one another.

2.3.3 Process of Motivation

Motivation as a process starts with a physiological or psychological deficiency or need that activates behaviour or a drive that is aimed at a goal or incentive. Thus motivation consists of three interacting and interdependent elements:

1) **Needs** – Needs are created whenever there is a physiological or psychological imbalance. For example, a need exists when cells in the body are deprived of food and water or when a person is deprived of friends and other companions. Although psychological needs may be based on a deficiency, sometimes they are not. For example, an individual with a strong need to get ahead may have a history of consistent success.

2) **Drives** – Drives are set up to alleviate needs. They are action-oriented and provide an energising thrust toward achieving a certain goal or accomplishing a certain task. Needs for food and water are translated into the hunger and thirst drives, and the need for friends becomes a drive for affiliation.

3) **Incentives** – Incentive is anything that can mitigate a need and decrease the intensity of the drive. Thus attaining an incentive tends to restore physiological or psychological balance and reduces the drive. Eating food, drinking water and obtaining friends will tend to restore the balance and reduce the corresponding drives. Food, water and friends are the incentives in these examples.

2.3.4 Relationship Between Motivation and Performance

While motivation and performance are related, motivation is just one of the several possible determinants of job performance. The MARS model describes four factors that directly influence employee’s behaviour and performance – motivation, ability, role perceptions and situational factors. The model shows that these four factors have a combined effect on individual performance. If any factor weakens, employee performance will decrease. For example, enthusiastic salespeople (motivation) who understand their job duties (role perceptions) and have sufficient resources (situational factors) will not perform their jobs as well if they lack sufficient knowledge and sales skill (ability).
The model thus depicts that successful performance involves the co-operation of motivation and ability in clear and supportive work environments. Motivation only leads us to use our knowledge and skills and apply them effectively to work tasks. Without adequate knowledge, clear role perceptions and a supportive environment, motivation alone does not increase performance. Thus adequate motivation is a necessary, but not sufficient for effective performance.

### 2.3.5 General Model of Work Motivation

A general model of work motivation is summarised in Figure 2.2. The model states that internal needs create drives that are affected by one’s environment. The drives encourage motivated employees to put in effort. However, results occur only when motivated employees are provided with the opportunity (such as proper training) to perform and the resources (such as proper tools) to do so. The presence of goals and the awareness of incentives to satisfy one’s needs are also powerful motivational factors leading to the release of effort. The level of effort put in (motivation) then influences performance together with ability or the knowledge and skills required in performing the task. When an employee is productive and the organisation takes note of it, rewards will be distributed. If those rewards are appropriate in nature, timing and distribution, the employee’s original needs and drives are satisfied. At that time, new needs may emerge and the cycle will begin again.
<table>
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<th>Self Assessment Questions</th>
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<td>1) Explain the meaning of work. What functions does work serve for an individual?</td>
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<td>2) What is motivation? Describe the three elements in the process of motivation with suitable examples.</td>
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<td>3) Define work motivation. Describe its characteristics.</td>
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<td>4) Explain the relationship between motivation and performance using the MARS model.</td>
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<td>5) Illustrate the general model of work motivation.</td>
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2.4 CLASSIFICATION OF MOTIVES AT WORK

The various needs and motives can be categorised in a number of ways – for example, the division into primary and secondary motives; or into extrinsic and intrinsic motivation.

2.4.1 Primary and Secondary Motives

Primary motives are unlearned, physiological needs that include hunger, thirst, sleep, sex, avoidance of pain and maintenance of body temperature. These needs arise from the basic requirements of life and are important for survival of the human race. They are, therefore, virtually universal, but they vary in intensity from one person to another. For example, a child may need more sleep than an older person. These needs may also be conditioned by social practice. If it is customary to eat three meals a day, then a person tends to become hungry at three times of the day, even though two meals might just be adequate. Similarly, if a coffee hour is introduced at work, coffee drinking may become a satisfying habit as well as a social need.

Secondary motives are learned, social motives that arise as a result of interaction with other people and develop as people mature. Included in this category are affiliation – desire to associate with others; recognition – need for frequent tangible proof that one is getting ahead; status – need to have a high rank in society; power – need to control and influence others; achievement – drive to accomplish something, autonomy – drive for independence; security and safety – desire to be secure; and defensiveness – desire to defend oneself from blame, criticism, ridicule and censure. Secondary needs are strongly conditioned by experience, vary in type and intensity among people, and are subject to change across time within an individual. These needs cannot usually be isolated and work in combination to influence behaviour. Nearly all action that management takes will affect secondary needs; therefore managerial plans should consider the effect of any proposed action on the secondary needs of employees.

2.4.2 Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation

Extrinsic motivation is related to tangible rewards such as salary and fringe benefits, promotion, contract of service, the work environment and conditions of work. Individuals are extrinsically motivated when they engage in work in order to obtain some goal that is apart from the work itself. Extrinsic motivation thus requires an instrumentality between the activity and some separable consequences such as tangible or verbal rewards, so that satisfaction comes not from the activity itself but rather from the extrinsic consequences to which the activity leads.

Intrinsic motivation is related to psychological rewards such as the opportunity to use one’s ability, a sense of challenge and achievement, receiving appreciation, positive recognition and being treated in a caring and considerate manner. Individuals are intrinsically motivated when they seek enjoyment, interest, satisfaction of curiosity, self-expression, or personal challenge in the work. Intrinsic motivation thus involves people doing an activity because they find it interesting and derive spontaneous satisfaction from the activity itself. One psychological view suggests that very high levels of intrinsic motivation are
marked by such strong interest and involvement in the work, and by such a perfect match of task complexity with skill level, that people experience some kind of psychological “flow”, a sense of merging with the activity they are doing (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975).

Ken Thomas model of intrinsic motivation proposes that intrinsic motivation is achieved when people experience feelings of:

- **Choice** – ability to select activities and to perform in ways that seem appropriate.
- **Competence** – accomplishment felt in skillfully performing task activities.
- **Meaningfulness** – opportunity to pursue a worthy task purpose.
- **Progress** – feeling that one is making significant advancement in achieving the task’s purpose.

Deci and his colleagues proposed that intrinsic motivation occurs when individuals feel both self-determined and competent in their work (Deci, 1975; Deci & Ryan, 1985). According to these theorists, people will feel competent if they obtain feedback that indicates progress in their work, or suggests ways in which they can increase their competence. This model also suggests that extrinsic motivation works in opposition to intrinsic motivation. Extrinsic motivation takes place when individuals feel driven by something outside of the work itself such as promised rewards or incentives. In general, these theorists suggest that, when strong extrinsic motivators are put to work, intrinsic motivation will decline.

### Self Assessment Questions

1) Distinguish between primary and secondary motives using suitable examples.

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2) What is the difference between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation? Describe the conditions under which people are likely to experience intrinsic motivation.

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2.5 DEVELOPMENTS IN MOTIVATION THEORY

The earliest approaches to understanding human motivation date from the time of the Greek philosophers and focus on the concept of hedonism as a principle driving force in behaviour. Individuals were seen as focusing their efforts on seeking pleasure and avoiding pain. Toward the end of the nineteenth century, the issue of motivation began to migrate from the realm of philosophy to the newly emerging science of psychology. Behavioural scientists began searching for empirically based models to explain motivation. Among these early models were instinct theories, such as those proposed by James, Freud, and McDougall. Instead of viewing behaviour as highly rational, these theorists argued that much behaviour resulted from instincts. James identified a list of such instincts that included locomotion, curiosity, sociability, fear, jealousy, and sympathy.

Drive and reinforcement models

Beginning around the 1920s, however, as increased limitations of the theory began to emerge, instinct theories began to be replaced by models based on drive or reinforcement. Led by such psychologists as Thorndike, Woodworth, and Hull, drive theorists introduced the concept of learning in motivated behaviour and posited that decisions concerning present or future behaviours are largely influenced by the consequences of rewards associated with past behaviour. Allport (1954) referred to this as \textit{hedonism of the past}. Past actions that led to positive outcomes would tend to be repeated, whereas past actions that led to negative outcomes would tend to diminish. Thorndike (1911) referred to this as the \textit{law of effect}, while Hull (1943) suggested that effort or motivation was largely determined by \textit{drive $\times$ habit}. Skinner (1953) and others later built on these principles with the introduction of operant conditioning (referred to by some as \textit{reinforcement theories}), arguing that, over time, individuals learn contingent relationships between actions and their consequences and that these contingencies guide future behaviour. Reinforcement models continue to thrive today as explanatory vehicles for understanding work motivation and job performance.

Scientific management

While psychologists were focusing on instincts and drives, managers were focusing on more pragmatic issues. A key development here was the work of Frederick Taylor and his colleagues in the scientific management movement. Coming from an industrial engineering background, Taylor (1911), along with many of his associates, focused his attention on the inefficiencies of factory production in an increasingly industrialised age. These colleagues proposed new and sophisticated wage incentive models to motivate workers that relied on a combination of job training, pay-for-performance incentive systems, improved employee selection techniques, and job redesign. While Taylor and his associates saw scientific management as an economic, workers soon came to dislike Taylor’s approach as they were only given boring, repetitive tasks to carry out and were being treated little better than human machines. Firms could also afford to lay off workers as productivity levels increased. This led to an increase in strikes and other forms of unionisation efforts by dissatisfied workers.

Human relations movement

In the 1930’s, the human relations movement started gaining momentum with social scientists and managers beginning to consider the role of social influences
Work Motivation

on behaviour. Best noted among these research endeavors is Elton Mayo’s (1933) work. Mayo conducted a series of experiments at the Hawthorne factory of the Western Electric Company in Chicago. He isolated two groups of women workers and studied the effect on their productivity levels of changing factors such as lighting and working conditions. He expected to see productivity levels decline as lighting or other conditions became progressively worse. What he actually discovered surprised him: whatever the change in lighting or working conditions, the productivity levels of the workers improved or remained the same. From this Mayo concluded that workers are best motivated by better communication between managers and workers, greater manager involvement in employees working lives and working in groups or teams. The role of group dynamics and the need to view employees as complex beings with multiple motivational influences were thus recognised as powerful influences on performance. Bendix (1956) summarised the principle contribution of this human relations movement by observing that the “failure to treat workers as human beings came to be regarded as the cause of low morale, poor craftsmanship, unresponsiveness, and confusion”. McGregor (1960) later built on this in his classic early work, ‘The Human Side of Enterprise’.

Need-based content models

By the 1950s, several new models of work motivation emerged, which collectively have been referred to as content theories, since their principal aim was to identify factors associated with motivation. Included here is work by Maslow, McClelland, Herzberg and Alderfer. Herzberg’s work introduced the field to the role of job design – specifically, job enrichment – as a key factor in work motivation and job attitudes. In subsequent work, Hackman and Oldham (1976) and others have extended this line of research as it relates to work design, motivation, and job performance, while others, including Deci (1975), have articulated theories focusing specifically on task-based intrinsic versus extrinsic factors in motivation (e.g., self-determination theory).

Process-oriented theories

Beginning in the mid 1960s, a new approach to the study of work motivation emerged, which focused on delineating the processes underlying work motivation. Process theories contrast sharply with the earlier content theories, which focused on identifying factors associated with motivation in a relatively static environment. Process theorists view work motivation from a dynamic perspective and look for causal relationships across time and events as they relate to human behaviour in the workplace. Central to the process theory genre is a series of cognitive theories of motivation that collectively attempt to understand the thought processes that people go through in determining how to behave in the workplace. The best known of cognitive theories is expectancy theory formulated by Victor Vroom, expanded later by Porter and Lawler.

In addition to expectancy theory, a number of other important cognitive process theories have been developed since the 1960s, each with its own focus. Adams, for example, introduced equity theory to explain how employees respond both cognitively and behaviourally to perceived unfairness in the workplace. Goal-setting theory also emerged in the late 1960s, as researchers began to discover that the simple act of specifying targets for behaviour enhanced task performance.
Recent developments in work motivation

Many of the ideas emerging from the 1960s and 1970s have been extended and further developed to reflect an expanded pool of research findings and more sophisticated research methods. Researchers have made great strides in conceptual developments and empirical work focusing on social learning theory, goal-setting theory, job design, reward systems, punishment, procedural justice, innovation and creativity, and cross-cultural influences on work behaviour.

2.6 IMPORTANCE OF MOTIVATION IN ORGANISATIONS

Employee motivation is essential to the success of any organisation, big or small. In the modern workplace, human resources are valued above all others. Motivated employees are productive, happy and committed. The spin-off of this includes reduced employee turnover, results-driven employees, company loyalty and workplace harmony.

Motivation is very important for an organisation because of the following benefits it provides:

1) **Increased productivity and improved employee performance** – Perhaps the most significant impact of increased employee motivation is that of increased productivity. A motivated workforce is essential, as it inevitably drives the profitability of the organisation. Research has shown that motivation is a key determinant of job performance and that a poorly motivated force is costly in terms of excessive staff turnover, higher expenses, negative morale, increased cost of operations and increased use of managements’ time.

2) **Stability of workforce** – If management neglects to educate and motivate their employees, they will inevitably become dissatisfied or disenchanted with their job. Disenchantment in the workplace leads to absenteeism, turnover, sick leave, strikes, grievances and even accidents. A motivated workforce alleviates disenchantment felt by employees and improves these factors.

3) **Positive workplace culture** – Motivation leads to an optimistic and challenging attitude at the work place. It instills a positive attitude among employees during challenging times. There is also more adaptability and creativity during periods of amendments. Motivation thus creates a workplace and culture of high achievers.

4) **Better teamwork** – Motivation encourages teamwork among employees. The more motivated the employees are, the more empowered the team is. The more is the team work and individual employee contribution, the more profitable and successful is the organisation.

5) **Workplace harmony** – A motivated workforce leads to greater understanding, acceptance, commitment to implementation, understanding of objectives and decision making between management and employees. It thus promotes harmony at the workplace.
Self Assessment Questions

1) Discuss the scientific management approach.
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2) Examine the role of Hawthorne studies in understanding and motivating employees.
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3) Describe and compare the need-based and process approaches to work motivation.
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4) Why do you think motivating employees is an important consideration for organisations?
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2.7 LET US SUM UP

Work is an important activity in an individual’s life that serves not only economic, but also social relation, personal fulfillment and identity functions for an individual. Motivation at work is valuable as it serves to arouse, direct, maintain and intensify effort toward specific goals. Motivation can be understood as an inner directing force that influences people’s willingness to work toward organisational goals. As a process, it is initiated when there is an internal need that drives an individual toward actions directed at obtaining incentives.
Motivation at the workplace is a complex process of needs and drives, and awareness of goals and incentives that motivate employees to exert effort. However, results occur only when motivated employees are provided with the opportunity to perform and when they have the resources and the ability to do so. When an employee is productive and the organisation takes note of it, rewards are distributed that result in the satisfaction of employee’s original needs and drives.

There are several motives that can be classified as either primary or secondary. Primary motives are unlearned physiological motives that are related to the survival of the human species. Secondary motives are learned social motives that vary greatly in their presence and strength across individuals. Motives can also be classified as extrinsic or intrinsic. Extrinsic motivation requires an instrumentality between the activity and some separable consequences such as tangible or verbal rewards, so that satisfaction comes not from the activity itself but rather from the extrinsic consequences to which the activity leads. Intrinsic motivation, on the other hand, involves people doing an activity because they find it interesting and derive spontaneous satisfaction from the activity itself.

Developments in motivation theory can be traced back to Greek philosophers, though its scientific understanding began only when instinct approaches were propounded. While the concept of instincts highlighted the biological basis of motivation, the drive and reinforcement models emphasised that motives were primarily learned. Interest in motivation for improving work efficiency can be attributed to Taylor’s scientific management. As opposed to the economic view of man inherent in scientific management, human relations movement brought to notice the human side to organisations. Later, content models built on human needs as important elements in work motivation while process theories examined the dynamic processes that underlie human behaviour at the workplace. Together, the several approaches contribute to a better understanding of work motivation.

Motivation is important to organisations because it leads to enhanced employee performance that translates into greater organisational productivity. It also promotes stability of the work force, a positive work culture, better teamwork and enhanced workplace harmony.

### 2.8 UNIT END QUESTIONS

1) Describe the meaning of work. How does work contribute to an individual’s life?

2) Explain the concept of motivation by quoting suitable definitions.

3) What is work motivation? Describe some of its important characteristics.

4) Illustrate the MARS model to describe the relationship between motivation and performance.

5) Examine the general model of work motivation.

6) Trace the developments in motivation theory.

7) Discuss the importance of motivation in organisations.
### 2.9 GLOSSARY

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<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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<td>Work</td>
<td>Human activity involving physical or mental exertion that is not undertaken solely for pleasure and that has economic value.</td>
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<td>Motivation</td>
<td>Psychological process governing the arousal, direction, intensity, and persistence of voluntary actions that are goal directed.</td>
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<td>Work motivation</td>
<td>Process that accounts for arousal, direction, magnitude, and maintenance of effort in a person’s job.</td>
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<td>Need</td>
<td>Physiological or psychological deficiency that creates a state of tension and imbalance.</td>
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<td>Tension that provides an energising thrust toward achieving a certain goal or accomplishing a certain task.</td>
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<td>Incentive</td>
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<td>Primary motives</td>
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<tr>
<td>Secondary motives</td>
<td>Learned social motives that arise as a result of interaction with other people and that develop as people mature.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extrinsic motivation</td>
<td>Motivation promoted by factors external to the individual and unrelated to the task being performed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic motivation</td>
<td>Internal desire to perform a particular task because it is enjoyable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hedonism</td>
<td>The doctrine holding that behaviour is motivated by the desire for pleasure and the avoidance of pain.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 2.10 SUGGESTED READINGS AND REFERENCES


Personality and Attitudes in Organisational Behaviour

References


