



INTEGRATED INSTITUTE OF PROFESSIONAL MANAGEMENT

Our Accreditations



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Our Standards



Motivation

Learning outcomes

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

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

Motivation defined

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

The three components of motivation.

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

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

Types of motivation

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

Intrinsic motivation

Intrinsic motivation can arise from the self-generated factors that influence people's behaviour. It can take the form of motivation by the work itself when individuals feel that their work is important, interesting and challenging and provides them with a reasonable degree of autonomy (freedom to act), opportunities to achieve and advance, and scope to use and develop their skills and abilities.

Extrinsic motivation

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

Difference between intrinsic & extrinsic motivators

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

Leading motivation theories

- Reinforcement theory.
- Instrumentality theory.
- Content or needs theory.
- Process or cognitive theory.
- Herzberg's two-factor (motivation-hygiene) theory.
- McGregor's theory X and theory Y.

Reinforcement theory

- Reinforcement theory suggests that successes in achieving goals and rewards act as positive incentives and reinforce the successful behaviour, which is repeated the next time a similar need emerges. The more powerful, obvious and frequent the reinforcement, the more likely it is that the behaviour will be repeated until, eventually, it can become a more or less unconscious reaction to an event. Conversely, failures or punishments provide negative reinforcement, suggesting that it is necessary to seek alternative means of achieving goals. This process has been called 'the law of effect'.

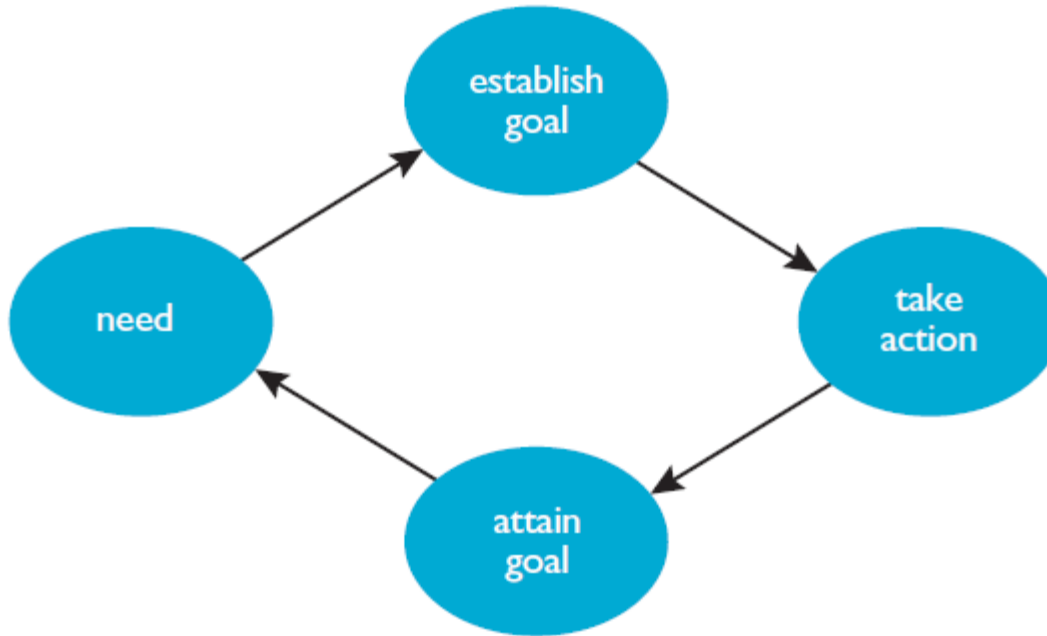
Instrumentality theory

- ‘Instrumentality’ is the belief that if we do one thing it will lead to another. In its crudest form, instrumentality theory states that people only work for money. It assumes that people will be motivated to work if rewards and penalties are tied directly to their performance; thus the awards are contingent upon effective performance. Instrumentality theory has its roots in the scientific management methods of Taylor (1911), who wrote: ‘It is impossible, through any long period of time, to get workmen to work much harder than the average men around them unless they are assured a large and permanent increase in their pay.’ It is based on the principle of reinforcement.

Content (needs) theory

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

The process of motivation



There are three points that emerge from this model. First, people have a multiplicity of needs depending on themselves and the situation they are in. Second, they can select all sorts of goals and actions to satisfy those needs. Third, while we can observe their behaviour we cannot be certain of the needs and goals that motivated it.

Maslow's hierarchy of needs

He suggested that there are five major need categories that apply to people in general, starting from the fundamental physiological needs and leading through a hierarchy of safety, social and esteem needs to the need for self-fulfillment, the highest need of all. When a lower need is satisfied the next highest becomes dominant and the individual's attention is turned to satisfying this higher need. The need for self-fulfillment, however, can never be satisfied.

McClelland's achievement–affiliation–power needs

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

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

ERG theory (Alderfer)

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

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

Process theory

In process theory, the emphasis is on the psychological processes or forces that affect motivation, as well as on basic needs. It is also known as 'cognitive theory' because it is concerned with people's perceptions of their working environment and the ways in which they interpret and understand it. Process or cognitive theory can certainly be more useful to managers than needs theory because it provides more realistic guidance on motivation techniques. The main processes are expectations, goal achievement and feelings about equity.

Expectancy theory

Expectancy theory states that motivation will be high when people know what they have to do to get a reward, expect that they will be able to get the reward and expect that the reward will be worthwhile. The concept of expectancy was originally contained in the valency–instrumentality–expectancy (VIE) theory formulated by Vroom (1964). Valency stands for value, instrumentality is the belief that if we do one thing it will lead to another, and expectancy is the probability that action or effort will lead to an outcome.

Goal theory

Goal theory as developed by **Latham and Locke** (1979) states that motivation and performance are higher when individuals are set specific goals, when goals are difficult but accepted, and when there is feedback on performance. Participation in goal setting is important as a means of getting agreement to the setting of higher goals. Goal theory is in line with the 1960s concept of Management By Objectives MBO (a process of managing, motivating and appraising people by setting objectives or goals and measuring performance against those objectives).

Social learning theory

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

Equity theory

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

Forms of Equity

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

Herzberg's Motivation Theory

Two-factor model

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

McGregor's Theory X and Y

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

Motivation and Money

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

Motivation Strategies

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

Self-practice Questions

1. What is the difference between content and process theory?
2. In his 1993 *Harvard Business Review* article, *Alfie Kohn* wrote: 'Do rewards work? The answer depends on what we mean by "work". Research suggests that, by and large, rewards succeed at securing one thing only: temporary compliance. When it comes to producing lasting change in attitudes and behaviour, however, rewards, like punishment, are strikingly ineffective.' What does this tell us about the power of money to motivate? Does it mean that money never motivates effectively, or what?

Congratulations

- Please, continue to course 19: Employee Commitment and Engagement.