

S.S IN COMMERCE, V.U, UJJAIN (M.P.)

FUNDAMENTALS OF  
ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

**MOTIVATION**

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## ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR - MOTIVATION

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Motivation can be described as the internal force that impacts the direction, intensity, and endurance of a person's voluntary choice of behaviour. It consists of –

- **Direction** – focused by goals.
- **Intensity** – bulk of effort allocated.
- **Persistence** – amount of time taken for the effort to be exerted.

**Example** – A team leader encourages team members to work efficiently.

### FEATURES OF MOTIVATION

Motivation is an internal feeling, that is, it defines the psychological state of a person. It is a continuous process and we should make sure that it is not disturbed. A person should be encouraged completely.

Motivation consists of three interacting and dependent elements –

- **Needs** – The requirements or deficiency which is created whenever there is physiological imbalance.
- **Drives** – The various camps or events organized to motivate the employees and give them new opportunities.
- **Incentives** – Employees need to be rewarded for their nice work in order to keep them encouraged.

### IMPORTANCE OF MOTIVATION IN AN ORGANISATION

The process of motivation plays a very important role in any organisation, profit or non-profit. The managerial process of direction is driven primarily by the process of motivation as it creates within the mind of an employee the desire to work in the direction determined by the manager. The following aspects may be considered under this head:

- **Increases Productivity:** Motivation as a process leads to an increase in productivity of the employee. Motivation meets the needs of the employee and thereby creates the drive to work at the best of his

abilities. A well-employee will be willing to put in more effort towards the betterment of the organisation than another disheartened employee.

- **Ensures Organisational Efficiency:** Motivation plays an important role in changing the attitudes of the employees in the organisation. Indifferent attitude is extinguished most efficiently by motivation. The presence of such favourable attitude allows the organisation to thrive and be successful.
- **Ensures Loyal Workforce:** A well-motivated workforce is a loyal workforce. Motivated employees have high levels of morale and commitment towards the organisation and its goals and objectives. Motivation thus reduces employee turnover and reduces the need for constant induction of new employees.
- **Ensures a Reactive Workforce:** Adapting to changing business environments is an important feature of any successful business. In order to react to changes easily and to continue smooth functioning, an organisation requires extensive loyalty and commitment of its employees. This reduces resistance to the changes that the organisation intends to make. This in effect makes the organisation efficient in adapting to changing needs.
- **Facilitates Direction:** Direction is an important managerial function and forms one of its core functions. Motivation as already mentioned is a vital part of direction. Direction being a process that involves directing or initiating action according to a plan drawn up requires the employees to work wholeheartedly with commitment and loyalty. The process of direction is thus possible only when the employees proceed in the direction that the manager determines and this requires a motivated workforce.

*The role of motivation cannot be understated in an organisation. It is a simple process that requires an understanding of human mind and behaviour. Such an understanding and proper action thereby stimulating the motives of an employee helps in initiating and maintaining action and helps extensively in satisfying organisational objectives.*

## TYPES OF MOTIVATION

There are two types of motivation, Intrinsic and Extrinsic motivation. It's important to understand that we are not all the same; thus effectively motivating your employees requires that you gain an understanding of the different types of motivation. Such an understanding will enable you to better categorize your team members and apply the appropriate type of motivation. You will find each member different and each member's motivational needs will be varied as well. Some people respond best to intrinsic which means "from within" and will meet any obligation of an area of their passion. Quite the reverse, others will respond better to extrinsic motivation which, in their world, provides that difficult tasks can be dealt with provided there is a reward upon completion of that task. Become an expert in determining which type will work best with which team members.

### Intrinsic Motivation

Intrinsic motivation means that the individual's motivational stimuli are coming from within. The individual has the desire to perform a specific task, because its results are in accordance with his belief system or fulfils a desire and therefore importance is attached to it.

 Our deep-rooted desires have the highest motivational power. Below are some examples:

- **Acceptance:** We all need to feel that we, as well as our decisions, are accepted by our co-workers.
- **Curiosity:** We all have the desire to be in the know.
- **Honour:** We all need to respect the rules and to be ethical.
- **Independence:** We all need to feel we are unique.
- **Order:** We all need to be organized.
- **Power:** We all have the desire to be able to have influence.
- **Social contact:** We all need to have some social interactions.
- **Social Status:** We all have the desire to feel important.

### Extrinsic Motivation

Extrinsic motivation means that the individual's motivational stimuli are coming from outside. In other words, our desires to perform a task are controlled by an outside source. Note that even though the stimuli are coming from outside, the result of performing the task will still be rewarding for the individual performing the task.

Extrinsic motivation is external in nature. The most well-known and the most debated motivation is money. Below are some other examples:

- Employee of the month award
- Benefit package
- Bonuses
- Organized activities

## Motivation theories

We can distinguish between **content** and **process** motivation theories. Content theories focus on WHAT, while process theories focus on HOW human behaviour is motivated. Content theories are the earliest theories of motivation. Within the work environment they have had the greatest impact on management practice and policy, whilst within academic circles they are the least accepted. Content theories are also called needs theories: they try to identify what our needs are and relate motivation to the fulfilling of these needs. The content theories cannot entirely explain what motivate or demotivate us. Process theories are concerned with “*how*” motivation occurs, and what kind of process can influence our motivation.

The **main content theories** are: Maslow’s needs hierarchy, Alderfer’s ERG theory, McClelland’s achievement motivation and Herzberg’s two-factor theory.

The **main process theories** are: Skinner’s reinforcement theory, Victor Vroom's expectancy theory, Adam’s equity theory and Locke’s goal setting theory (Figure 1).

No single motivation theory explains all aspects of people’s motives or lack of motives. Each theoretical explanation can serve as the basis for the development of techniques for motivating.

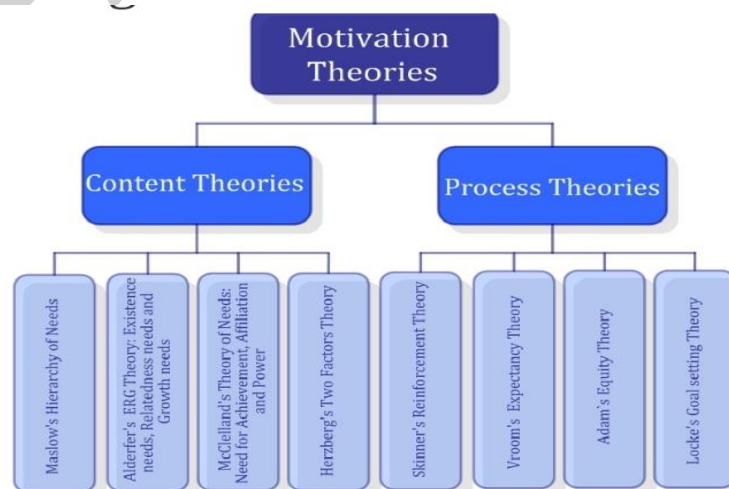


Figure 1. Motivation theories

- **Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory**

This theory was produced in order to answer the question “What motivates an individual”. Every second need comes to force when the first need is satisfied completely. Maslow explained the hierarchy of needs by grouping them into two: deficiency needs and growth needs.



*Figure 2. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs*

### **Physiological Needs**

Every individual needs to take care of the basic requirements required to sustain. These requirements include food to eat, clothing to wear and shelter to live in. These necessities are relatively independent of each other but are finite.

### **Safety Needs**

Everybody wants to stay in a protected environment with minimal danger so that they can have a peaceful life. Safety needs basically includes protection from physiological danger like accident and having economic security like bank accounts, health insurance

In an enterprise, it includes job security, salary increment, etc. The managerial practice to satisfy this involves offering pension scheme, provident fund, gratuity etc.

### **Social Needs**

We have all heard that man is a social animal, we want to be there with those people where we are loved and we are accepted as we are; nobody wants to be judged. This is a common requirement every human desires.

This theory helps managers to think about encouraging their employees by identifying employee needs. In short, it presents motivation as constantly changing force, expressing itself to the constant need for fulfilment of new and higher levels of needs.

### **Esteem**

Esteem means the typical human desire to be accepted and valued by others. People often involve in a profession or hobby to gain recognition, earn fame and respect. According to Maslow, the needs of humans have strict guidelines - the hierarchies rather than being sharply separated, are interrelated. This means that esteem and the consequent levels are not strictly separated but are closely related.

### **Self-Actualization**

Self-actualization means realizing one's full potential. Maslow describes this as a desire to complete everything that one can, to become the most that one can be.

**Deficiency needs** – The very basic needs for survival and security.

These needs include:

- *Physiological needs*
- *Safety and security needs*
- *Social needs – belongingness and love*
- *esteem needs*

It may not cause a physical indication if these 'deficiency needs' are not fulfilled, but the individual will feel anxious and tense. So the most basic level of needs must be fulfilled before a person wants to focus on the secondary or higher level needs.

**Growth needs** – Personal growth and fulfilment of personal potential.

These needs include:

- *Self-actualisation needs*

This hierarchy is not as rigid as we may have implied. For example, there are some humans for whom self-esteem or self-actualization seems to be more important than love or belonging. The popularity of this theory of motivation rooted in its simplicity and logic.

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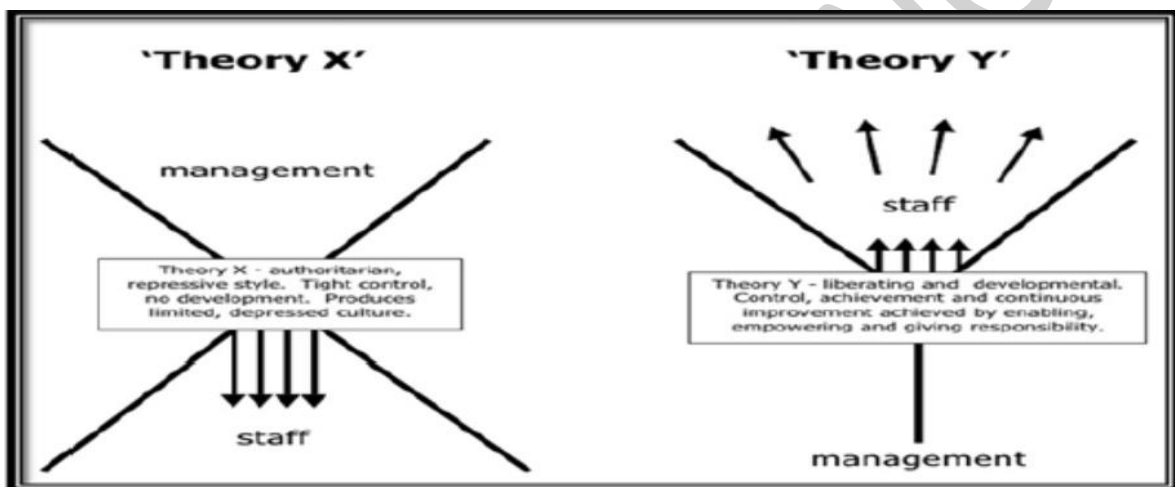
- Douglas McGregor's Theory X & Y

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Our management style is firmly influenced by our beliefs and assumptions about what encourages members of our team like: If we believe that our team members dislike work, then we tend towards an authoritarian style of management. However, if we assume that employees take pride in doing a good job, we tend to adopt a more participative style.

Douglas McGregor, the eminent social psychologist, divides management style into two contrasting theories –

- Theory X
- Theory Y



### Theory X

This theory believes that employees are naturally unmotivated and dislike working, and this encourages an authoritarian style of management. According to this theory, management must firmly intervene to get things done. This style of management concludes that workers –

- Disfavour working.
- Abstain responsibility and the need to be directed.
- Need to be controlled, forced, and warned to deliver what's needed.
- Demand to be supervised at each and every step, with controls put in place.
- Require to be attracted to produce results; else they have no ambition or incentive to work.

McGregor observed that X-type workers are in fact mostly in minority, and yet in mass organizations, such as large scale production environment, X Theory management may be needed and can be unavoidable.



## **Theory Y**

This theory explains a participative style of management, that is, distributive in nature. It concludes that employees are happy to work, are self-motivated and creative, and enjoy working with greater responsibility. It estimates that workers –

- Take responsibility willingly and are encouraged to fulfill the goals they are given.
- Explore and accept responsibility and do not need much guidance.
- Assume work as a natural part of life and solve work issues imaginatively.

In Y-type organizations, people at lower levels are engaged in decision making and have more responsibility.

## **Comparing Theory X & Theory Y**

Let us now compare both the theories –

### **Motivation**

Theory X considers that people dislike work; they want to avoid it and do not take responsibilities willingly.

While, Theory Y considers that people are self-motivated, and sportingly take responsibilities.

### **Management Style and Control**

In Theory X-type organization, management is authoritarian, and centralized control is maintained.

While in Theory Y-type organization, the management style is participative, employees are involved decision making, but the power retains to implement decisions.

### **Work Organization**

Theory X employees are specialized and the same work cycle continues.

In Theory Y, the work tends to be coordinated around wider areas of skill or knowledge. Employees are also motivated to develop expertise, and make suggestions and improvements.

### **Rewards and Appraisals**

Theory X-type organizations work on a 'carrot and stick' basis, and performance assessment is part of the overall mechanism of control and compensation.

Coming to Theory Y-type organizations, appraisal is also regular and crucial, but is usually a separate mechanism from organizational controls. Theory Y-type organizations provide employees frequent opportunities for promotion.

### Application

Admitting the fact that Theory X management style is widely accepted as inferior to others, it has its place in large scale production procedure and unskilled production-line work.

Many of the principles of Theory Y are widely accepted by different types of organization that value and motivate active participation.

Theory Y-style management is appropriate for knowledge work and licensed services. Licensed service organizations naturally develop Theory Y-type practices by the nature of their work, even high structure knowledge framework, like call centre operations, benefit from its principles to motivate knowledge sharing and continuous improvement.

- **ALDERFER – ERG THEORY: EXISTENCE NEEDS, RELATEDNESS NEEDS AND GROWTH NEEDS**

Alderfer (Furnham, 2008) distinguished three steps or classes of needs: *existence, relatedness and growth*. Maslow's physiological and safety needs belong together to existence needs. Relatedness can be harmonised to belongingness and esteem of others. Growth is the same as Maslow's self-esteem plus self-actualization. Both Maslow and Alderfer tried to describe how these needs, these stages of needs become more or less important to individuals.

- **Existence needs:** These include needs for basic material necessities. In short, it includes an individual's physiological and physical safety needs.

- **Relatedness needs:** Individuals need significant relationships (be with family, peers or superiors), love and belongingness, they strive toward reaching public fame and recognition. This class of needs contain Maslow's social needs and external component of esteem needs.

- **Growth needs:** Need for self-development, personal growth and advancement form together this class of need. This class of needs contain Maslow's self-actualization needs and intrinsic component of esteem needs.

Alderfer agreed with Maslow that unsatisfied needs motivate individuals.
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Alderfer also agreed that individuals generally move up the hierarchy in satisfying their needs; that is, they satisfy lower-order before higher-order needs. As lower-order needs are satisfied, they become less important, but
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Alderfer also said: as higher-order needs are satisfied they become more important. And it is also said that under some circumstances individuals might return to a lower need. Alderfer thought that individuals multiply the efforts invested in a lower category need when higher categorized needs are not consequent.

**For example** there is a student, who has excellent grades, friends, and high standard of living, maybe also work at the university. What happens if this individual finds that he or she is frustrated in attempts to get more autonomy and responsibility at the university, maybe also more scholarship that generally encourage individuals' growth? Frustration in satisfying a higher (growth) need has resulted in a regression to a lower level of (relatedness) needs (*'I need just my friends, some good wine, I do not want to go to the university anymore.'*).

This event is known and called as the frustration-regression process. This is a more realistic approach as it recognises that, because when a need is met, it does not mean it will always remain met. ERG theory of motivation is very flexible: it explains needs as a range rather than as a hierarchy. Implication of this theory: Managers must understand that an employee has various needs that must be satisfied at the same time. ERG theory says, if the manager concentrates only on one need at a time, he or she won't be able to motivate the employee effectively and efficiently. Prioritization and sequence of these three categories, classes can be different for each individual.

- **MCCLELLAND – NEED FOR ACHIEVEMENT, AFFILIATION AND POWER**

In the early 1960s McClelland – built on Maslow's work – described three human motivators. McClelland (Arnold et al., 2005) claimed that humans acquire, learn their motivators over time that is the reason why this theory is sometimes called the '*Learned Needs Theory*'. He affirms that we all have three motivating drivers, and it does not depend on our gender or age. One of these drives or needs will be dominant in our behaviour.

McClelland's theory differs from Maslow's and Alderfer's, which focus on satisfying existing needs rather than creating or developing needs. This dominant motivator depends on our culture and life experiences, of course (but the three motivators are permanent). The three motivators are:

- *Achievement*: a need to accomplish and demonstrate competence or mastery
- *Affiliation*: a need for love, belonging and relatedness
- *Power*: a need for control over one's own work or the work of others

These learned needs could lead to diversity and variety between employees. More precisely, prioritization and importance of these motivational needs characterises a person's behaviour. As we wrote, although each person has all of these needs to some extent, only one of them tends to motivate an individual at any given time.

**Achievement motivation** – a need to accomplish and demonstrate competence or mastery. It pertains to a person's need for significant success, mastering of skills, control or high standards. It is associated with a range of actions. Individuals seek achievement, attainment of challenging (and also realistic) goals, and advancement in the school or job.

This need is influenced by internal drivers for action (intrinsic motivation), and the pressure used by the prospects of others (extrinsic motivation). Low need for achievement could mean that individuals want to minimise risk of failure, and for this reason people may choose very easy or too difficult tasks, when they cannot avoid failure. In contrast, high need for achievement means that humans try to choose optimal, sufficiently difficult tasks, because they want to get the chance to reach their goals, but they have to work for it, they need to develop themselves.

Individuals with high need for achievement like to receive regular feedback on their progress and achievements; and often like to work alone; seek challenges and like high degree of independence.

Sources of high need for achievement can be: praise for success, goal setting skills, one's own competence and effort to achieve something, and it does not depend only on luck; of course positive feelings and also independence in childhood. McClelland said that training, teaching can increase an individual's need for achievement. For this reason, some have argued that need for achievement is not a need but a value.

**Affiliation motivation** – a need for love, belonging and relatedness

These people have a strong need for friendships and want to belong within a social group, need to be liked and held in popular regard. They are team players, and they may be less effective in leadership positions. High-need-for-affiliation persons have support from those with whom they have regular contact and mostly are involved in warm interpersonal relationships. After or during stressful situation individuals need much more affiliation. In these situations people come together and find security in one another. There are times when individuals want to be with others and at other times to be alone – affiliation motivation can become increased or decreased. Individuals do not like high risk or uncertainty.

**Authority/power motivation** – a need to control over one’s own work or the work of others. These persons are authority motivated. There is a strong need to lead and to succeed in their ideas. It is also needed to increase personal status and prestige. This person would like to control and influence others..

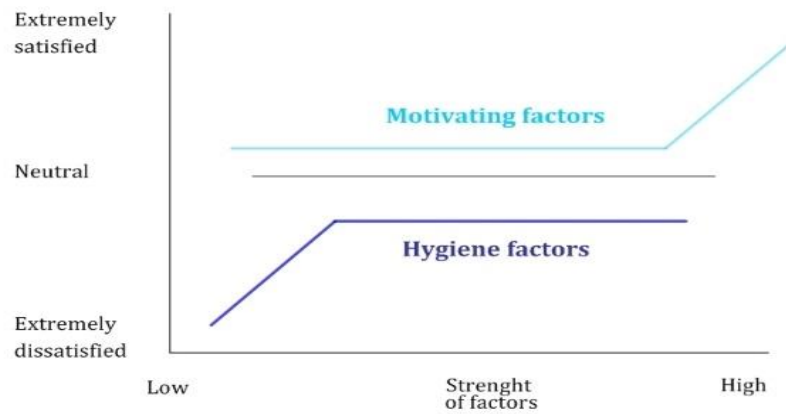
McClelland argues that strong need for achievement people can become the best leaders. But at the same time there can be a tendency to request too much of their employees, because they think that these people are also highly achievement-focused and results-driven, as they are. Think about your teachers and professors! I am sure they all want the best for you, they would like to develop you, but I do not think you feel the same every time. McClelland said that most people have and show a combination of these characteristics.

## HERZBERG – TWO FACTOR THEORY

It is also called motivation-hygiene theory.

This theory says that there are some factors (motivating factors) that cause
job satisfaction, and motivation and some other also separated factors
(hygiene factors) cause dissatisfaction (Figure 3). That means that these
feelings are not opposite of each other, as it has always previously been
believed.

Opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction, but rather, no satisfaction. According to Herzberg (1987) the job satisfiers deal with the factors involved in doing the job, whereas the job dissatisfies deal with the factors which define the job context.



*Figure 3. Herzberg's Two Factor*

If the **hygiene factors**, for example salary, working conditions, work environment, safety and security are unsuitable (low level) at the workplace, this can make individuals unhappy, dissatisfied with their job. **Motivating factors**, on the other hand, can increase job satisfaction, and motivation is based on an individual's need for personal growth. If these elements are effective, then they can motivate an individual to achieve above-average performance and effort. For example, having responsibility or achievement can cause satisfaction (human characteristics) (Dartey-Baah, 2011).

Hygiene factors are needed to ensure that an employee is not dissatisfied. Motivation factors are needed to ensure employee's satisfaction and to motivate an employee to higher performance.

*Table 1. Herzberg's Two Factory Theory*

Dissatisfaction – Low level	
No dissatisfaction-High level	Hygiene factors
No satisfaction – Low level	
Satisfaction – High level	Motivating factors

**Herzberg's five factors of job satisfaction (motivating factors):**

- *Achievement*
- *Recognition*
- *work itself*
- *Responsibility*
- *Advancement*

Only these factors can motivate us. But at the same time we need the lack of dissatisfactions (we need hygiene factors, "work peace") to achieve more efficient work.

**Herzberg's five factors of job dissatisfaction (hygiene factors – deficiency needs):**

- *Company policy and administration*
- *Supervision*
- *Salary*
- *Interpersonal relationships*
- *working conditions*

Can we motivate with money, with higher salary? What did Herzberg and Maslow say? Is it just the same or something different?

Herzberg addressed salary not a motivator in the way that the primary motivators are, just like achievement and recognition. Salary can be a motivator, if you get always higher and higher salary, but we cannot say that it is an incentive. Maslow said, money or salary is needed to buy food to eat, to have some place to live and sleep, etc. It can be a physiological need. Some differences between Herzberg and Maslow theory are described in Table 2.

*Table 2. Differences between Maslow's and Herzberg's theory*

<b>Points of view</b>	<b>Maslow's theory</b>	<b>Herzberg's theory</b>
<b>Date of the theory</b>	in 1940's	in 1960's
<b>Study group</b>	ordinary American people	well-situated American people
<b>About needs</b>	Every level of needs give us satisfaction and give the opportunity to move on to the next level of needs.	Not every type of needs can give us satisfaction, just motivating factors.

**Limitations of this theory:**

- *This theory oversees situational variables.*
- *Herzberg supposed a correlation, linear between productivity, performance and satisfaction.*
- *The theory's reliability is uncertain.*
- *No comprehensive measure of satisfaction was used.*
- *The theory ignores blue-collar workers, only white-collar men's opinion was discussed.*

However, Herzberg tried to bring more humanity and caring into companies' life. His intention was not to develop a theory that is used as a 'motivational tool', but to provide a guidance to improve organisational performance.

*Table 3. Summary of Content Theories of Motivation*



Maslow	Alderfer	McClelland	Herzberg
Physiological	Existence		
Safety and security			
Belongingness and love	Relatedness	Need for Affiliation	Hygiene
Self-esteem	Growth	Need for power	Motivators
Self-actualization		Need for achievement	

There are some critics for all need theories. Although, there is a consensus for the general concept: human behaviour is motivated by the strong wish for fulfilling a human need. Critics are:

- *Universality*: they do not care about gender, age, culture, religious or other factor differences.
- *Research support and methodology problems*: these theories were not based on reliable and creditable research results.
- *Work focus*: individuals have needs only at their workplaces, but not at any other places of their life.
- *Individual differences and stability over time*.
- *Process simplicity*.

#### ◆ SKINNER'S REINFORCEMENT THEORY

The Reinforcement theory, based on Skinner's operant conditioning theory, says that behaviour can be formed by its consequences (Gordon, 1987).

**Positive reinforcements**, for example praise, appreciation, a good mark/grade, trophy, money, promotion or any other reward can increase the possibility of the rewarded behaviours' repetition.

If a student gets positive verbal feedback and a good grade for his test, this reinforcement encourages the performance of the behaviour to recur. If the teacher doesn't tell precisely what he expects, then the positive reinforcements can drive the behaviour closer to the preferred. For example, when a student who is usually late to class gets positive feedback when he arrives on time, the student becomes more and more punctual. Positive reinforcement motivates to get the anticipated reinforcement of required behaviour.

We use **negative reinforcement** when we give a meal to a hungry person if he behaves in a certain manner/way.

In this case the meal is a negative reinforcement because it eliminates the unpleasant state (hunger).

Contrary to positive and negative reinforcement, **punishment** can be undesired reinforcement, or reinforce undesired behaviour.



For example, if a student is always late to class and thus he gets negative verbal feedback and also always has to tidy up the classroom at the end of the day, in this case the undesirable behaviour is reinforced with an undesirable reinforcer. The punishment declines the tendency to be late.

According to the theory, positive reinforcement is a much better motivational technique than punishment because punishment:

- *tries to stop undesirable behaviour and does not offer an alternative behaviour*
- *creates bad feelings, negative attitudes toward the activity, and the person who gives the punishment*
- *suppresses behaviour, but does not permanently eliminate it.*

Once certain behaviour has been conditioned through repetitive reinforcement, elimination of the reinforcement will decline the motivation to perform that behaviour. Therefore it is better not to give a reward every time. Reinforcement in the workplace usually takes place on a partial or irregular reinforcement schedule, when reward is not given for every response.

The reinforcement theory is included in many other motivation theories. Reward must meet someone's needs, expectations, must be applied equitably, and must be consistent. The desired behaviour must be clear and realistic, but the issue remains: which reinforcements are suitable and for which person?

#### ◆ Vroom's expectancy theory

The expectancy theory places an emphasis on the process and on the content of motivation as well, and it integrates needs, equity and reinforcement theories.

Victor Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory aims to explain how people choose from the available actions. Vroom defines motivation as a process that governs our choices among alternative forms of voluntary behaviour. The basic rationale of this theory is that motivation stems from the belief that decisions will have their desired outcomes.

The motivation to engage in an activity is determined by appraising three factors. These three factors are the following (Figure 4):

- **Expectancy** – a person's belief that more effort will result in success. If you work harder, it will result in better performance.

In this case the question is: "*Am I capable of making a good grade on a math test if I learn more?*" Appraisal of this factor is based on the effort to learn math, on knowledge of math, on the previous experience of math test results, on self-efficacy and specific self-rated abilities.

- **Instrumentality** – the person's belief that there is a connection between activity and goal. If you perform well, you will get reward.

In this case the question is that: "Will I get the promised reward (a good mark) for performing well on a math test?" Appraisal of this factor is based on the accuracy and consistency of marking. If one day I get a good grade and another day I get a bad grade for the same performance, then the motivation will decrease.

• **Valence** – the degree to which a person values the reward, the results of success.

In this case the question is that: "Do I value the reward that I get?" Appraisal of this factor is based on the importance of its subject (math), the good mark, and the good performance in general.

Vroom supposes that expectancy, instrumentality and valence are multiplied together to determine motivation. This means that if any of these is zero, then the motivation to do something will be zero as well.



*Figure 4. Vroom's expectancy theory*

A person who doesn't see the connection between effort and performance will have zero expectancy. A person who can't perceive the link between performance and reward will have zero instrumentality. For a person who doesn't value the anticipated outcome, reward will have zero valences.

For example if I think:

- *That no matter how hard I'm studying I can't learn math due to lack of necessary skills or*
- *that no matter how good I perform on the test I don't always get good mark so the reward is unpredictable, not dependent on my success or*
- *The good mark from math is not important for me, and I'm not interested in math, so the reward is not attractive, then I won't be motivated to learn for the exam.*

The expectancy theory highlights individual differences in motivation and contains three useful factors for understanding and increasing motivation. This

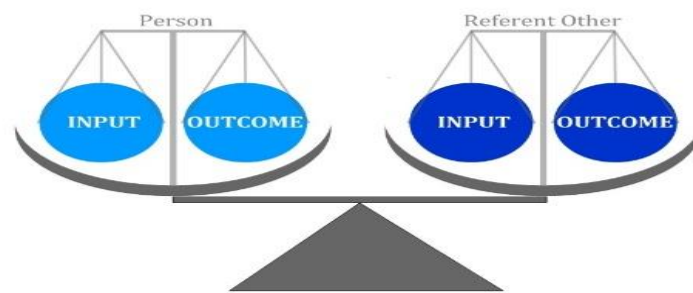
theory implies equity and importance of consistent rewards as well (Konig & Steel 2006).

### ◆ ADAMS' EQUITY THEORY

The equity theory states that people are motivated if they are treated equitably, and receive what they consider fair for their effort and costs.

The theory was suggested by Adams (1965) and is based on Social Exchange theory.

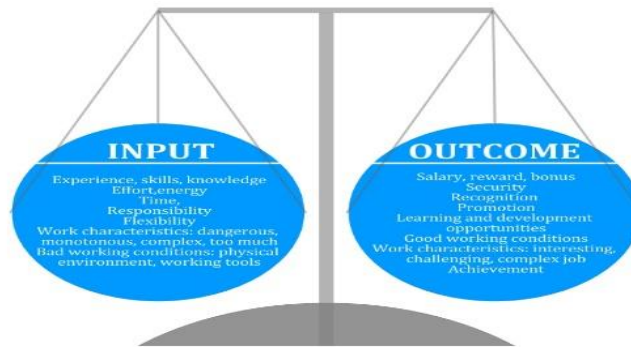
According to this theory, people compare their contribution to work, costs of their actions and the benefits that will result to the contribution and benefits of the reference person. If people perceive that the ratio of their inputs-outputs to the ratio of referent other's input-output is inequitable, then they will be motivated to reduce the inequity (Figure 5).



*Figure 5. Adams' equity theory*

At the workplace the workers put inputs into the job, such as education, experience, effort, energy, and expect to get some outcomes such as salary, reward, promotion, verbal recognition, and interesting and challenging work

each in equal amounts (Figure 6).



*Figure 6. Examples for the inputs and outcomes in the equity theory*

The equity theory works not just in the workplace, but at school as well. For example, when for the same oral exam performance two students get different marks, and then inequity exists. In this case, the student who gets the worse mark may lose his/her motivation to learn (reduce his/her efforts), or persuade the teacher to give him/her a better mark, or change the perception of the reference person's performance ("*I did not know everything, but my classmate could answer all the questions*"). At the school it can demotivate students if someone who never studies or who never performs better than the others always gets good mark. The greater the inequity the greater the distress an individual feels, which will motivate the endeavour to make the outcomes and the inputs equal compared to the reference person.

**When inequity exists, a person might...**

- *reduce his/her inputs, efforts, quantity or quality of his/her work*
- *try to increase his/her outputs (ask for better mark, or pay raising)*
- *adjust his/her perception of reference person or his/her outcomes or inputs (re-evaluate his/her or the reference person's effort or outcome)*
- *change the reference person*
- *quit the situation.*

The problem with equity theory is that it does not take into account differences in individual needs, values, and personalities. For example, one person may perceive a certain situation as inequitable while another does not. Nevertheless ensuring equity is essential to motivation.

### ◆ Locke's goal-setting theory

Locke's (1990) goal setting theory is an integrative model of motivation just like the expectancy theory.

It emphasizes that setting specific, challenging performance goals and the
commitment to these goals are key determinants of motivation. Goals describe
a desired future, and these established goals can drive the behaviour.
Achieving the goals, the goal accomplishment further motivates individuals to
perform.

We can distinguish goals according to specificity, difficulty and acceptance. A specific goal can be measured and lead to higher performance than a very general goal like “*Try to do your best!*” A difficult, but realistic goal can be more motivational than easy or extremely difficult ones. The acceptance of the goal is very important as well, therefore involvement in the goal setting is recommended.

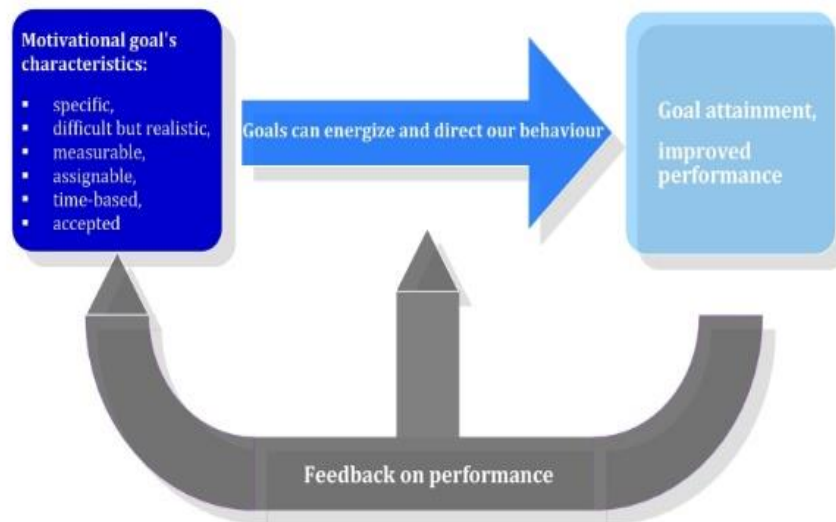
For example, if I decide to pass a medium level language exam in German in six months – this goal is specific and difficult enough – because I want to work in Germany – this goal is very important for me, therefore the goal commitment is high – then I will be motivated to learn, and to pass the exam.

**The following guidelines have been useful in the goal-setting** (Figure 7):

- *Set challenging but attainable goals.* Too easy or too difficult/unrealistic goals don't motivate us.
- *Set specific and measurable goals.* These can focus toward what you want, and can measure the progress toward the goal.
- *Goal commitment should be obtained.* If people don't commit to the goals, then they will not put effort toward reaching the goals, even specific, or challenging ones. Strategies to achieve this could include participation in the goal setting process, use of extrinsic rewards (bonuses), and encouraging intrinsic motivation through providing workers with feedback about goal attainment. Pressure to achieve goals is not useful because it can result in dishonesty and superficial performance.
- *Support elements should be provided.* For example, encouragement, needed materials, resources, and moral support.
- *Knowledge of results is essential* – so goals need to be quantifiable and there needs to be feedback.

Goal-setting is a useful theory which can be applied in several fields, from sport to a wide range of work settings. Sports psychology in particular has adopted its recommendations. The concept of goal-setting has been incorporated into a number of incentive programmes and management by objectives (MBO) techniques in a number of work areas. Feedback accompanying goal attainment

may also enhance a worker's job performance and ability to become more innovative and creative on the job through a trial-and-error learning process. Since goal-setting is a relatively simple motivational strategy, it has become increasingly popular.



*Figure 7. Process of motivation according to goal-setting theory*

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