



exaMnorM

Let's break the norms

Management

Motivation

Table of Contents

Management	1
Motivation	1
Introduction	3
Nature of Motivation	3
Process of Motivation	4
Importance of Motivation.....	5
Approaches of Motivation	5
Cognitive Models	5
Non-cognitive or Reinforcement Model.....	6
Maslow's Need Hierarchy Model.....	7
Appraisal of Need Hierarchy Model.....	8
Alderfer's Existence Relatedness Growth Model	9
Herzberg's Motivation - Hygiene Model.....	11
McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y	15
The underlying assumptions of this theory are as follows:	15
The assumptions of McGregor's Theory Y are as follows:	16
Ouchi's Theory Z.....	17
Vroom's Expectancy Theory.....	21
McClelland's Three Need Model.....	23
Porter and Lawler Model	25
Equity Theory	27
Reinforcement Theory	30
Social Learning Theory	31
Goal Setting Theory.....	31
Self Determination Theory.....	32
SMART Goal Technique.....	33
Job enrichment	34
Job enlargement	35

Introduction

The term 'motivation' has been derived from the word 'motive'.

Motive means any idea, need or emotion that prompts a person into action.

It is an inner state which energizes, activates, or moves a person's behavior in a particular direction.

Whatever may be the behavior of a person, there is some stimulus behind it. Stimulus is dependent upon the motive of the person concerned. Motive can be known by studying her needs and desires.

Generally, different motives operate at different times among different people and influence their behavior. The management should try to understand the motives of individuals which cause different types of behavior.

Motivation is an effective instrument in the hands of a manager for inspiring the workforce and creating confidence in it. By motivating the workforce, management creates a 'will to work' which is necessary for the achievement of organizational goals.

According to Dalton E. McFarland, "Motivation refers to the way in which urges, drives, desires, aspirations, strivings or needs direct, control or explain the behaviour of human beings,"

Motivation has a close relationship with the behaviour of human beings. It explains how and why human behaviour is caused.

McFarland considers the terms used in his definition in a general sense "as forms of tension occurring within individuals with resulting behaviour aimed at reducing, eliminating or diverting the tension. Understanding the needs and drives and their resulting tensions helps to explain and predict human behaviour, ultimately providing a sound basis for managerial decision and action." Thus, motivation is a term which applies to the entire class of urges, drives, desires, needs and similar forces.

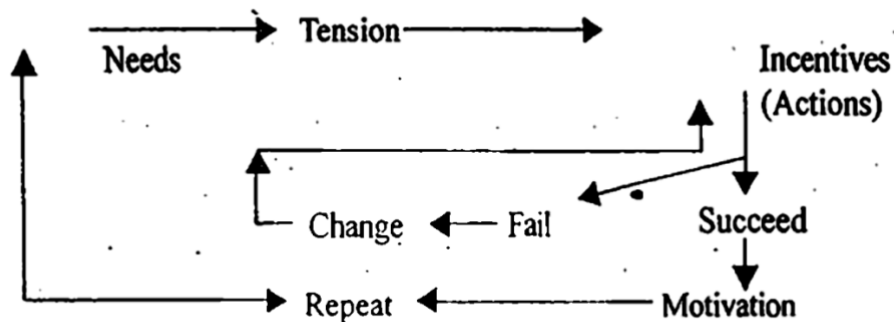
Nature of Motivation

The features of motivation are as under:

1. **Motivation is a personal and internal feeling:** Motivation is a psychological phenomenon which generated within an individual. Motives are the energetic forces within a person that drive him to action.
2. **Motivation produces goal-directed behaviour:** Motivation is a behavioural concept that directs human behaviour towards certain goals.

3. **Motivation is a continuous process:** Human needs are unlimited. Therefore, motivation is an ongoing process.
4. **Motivation is complex:** Individuals differ in their motivation. Different people seek different things, or they work for different reasons. People satisfy their needs in many ways. Moreover, goal-directed behavior does not always lead to need satisfaction.
5. A person cannot be partly motivated as he is a self-contained and inseparable unit. Motivation orates goal-directed behavior.
6. Motivation can be either positive or negative: Positive motivation implies the use of pay incentives, etc. to satisfy human needs while negative motivation emphasizes penalties, e.g., reprimands, the threat of demotion, fear of loss of job, etc.
7. Motivation is different from job satisfaction: Motivation is the process of inspiring people to work for the goals of the organization by satisfying their personal goals. Job Job satisfaction is, on the other hand, the feeling of satisfaction arising from the job itself.

Process of Motivation



The process of motivation can be seen in the diagram below.

- The process begins with a feeling of some need(s).
- Needs are several and the same need may lead to different actions (behaviours) in different persons.
- The feeling of a need creates tension and a person takes some action to fulfil his need and thereby remove tension.
- If the action is successful the need is satisfied and the action is repeated in future.
- On the other hand, if the action fails to satisfy the need the person either changes his action or has abandon his need.
- Thus, needs and incentives are the key elements in the process of motivation.

Importance of Motivation

Motivation is important in management on account of the following reasons:

1. **Higher efficiency:** A good motivational system releases the immense latent talent and abilities of employees. It converts the ability to work into a will to work. Motivated employees make a higher contribution towards the realization of organisational goals. In fact, motivation is an effective instrument in the hands of management for securing the optimum utilization of resources.
2. **Low absenteeism and turnover:** Motivation leads to job satisfaction and high morale due to which labour unrest, labour absenteeism and labour turnover are reduced. Motivated employees have higher commitment and loyalty to the organisation. They stay longer and are more punctual. All these factors ensure stability in the workforce. Thus, a team of motivated employees is the most valuable asset of an organisation.
3. **Facilitates change:** Effective motivation helps to overcome resistance to change and negative attitudes on the part of employees. Motivated employees are receptive to new developments. They learn better and they themselves suggest appropriate changes. Motivation sets the tone of an organisation.
4. **Human relations:** A high level of motivation results in harmonious relations between employers and employees. Sound industrial relations ensure industrial harmony and peace. Employee morale and discipline are likely to be high. Motivation improves acceptance and compliance with orders and instructions.
5. **Corporate image:** A company that provides adequate opportunities to its employees for the satisfaction of physical and psychological needs has a better image in the public. People refer to joining and working in such an enterprise. This helps in recruiting qualified personnel and simplifies the staffing function.

Approaches of Motivation

Cognitive Models

The models of motivation which focus on internal states and mental processes are known as the 'cognitive model'. As many authorities on motivation emphasize it is important to understand the internal states and processes of individuals - needs, desires, drives, values and expectations.

There are two dimensions of cognitive models:

1. Content Theories

2. Process Theories

Process Theories

These theories try to answer the question: What motivates people?

The focus is on human needs and desires that are internalised and give impetus to individual behaviour. They suggest the manager recognise the pattern of needs of individuals and then encourage behaviour that results in satisfying those needs. The unsatisfied needs of individuals are the starting point of motivation.

The basic idea underlying content theories is that individuals have certain physiological and psychological needs and they are motivated to engage in activities that will satisfy these needs.

Some of the major content theories are:

- Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory
- ERG Theory
- Herzberg's Two Factors Theory
- McClelland's Theory of Needs

Process Theories

Process theories of motivation provide an opportunity to understand the thought processes that influence behaviour. They explain how individual behaviour originates and operates. They examine individual behaviour in terms of satisfaction related to perceived rewards (or lack of rewards) that initiate behaviour.

The major process theories of motivation are:

- Equity Theory
 - Expectancy Theory
 - Goal-Setting Theory
 - Reinforcement Theory
 - Vroom Expectancy Model
 - Porter and Lawler Model
-
- While content theories concentrate on 'what' motivates a person while process theories concentrate on 'how' motivation occurs.
 - Content theories focus on the 'needs' of people, but process theories identify the variables that go into motivation and their relationships with one another.

Non-cognitive or Reinforcement Model

This approach concentrates on operant conditioning, i.e., behaviour is a result of its consequences. In other words, behaviour is caused by external forces.

According to B.F. Skinner, individuals having learnt from the past develop patterns of behaviour to control future consequences. The behaviour occurs and is directed and sustained because of the consequences that follow it.

If the behaviour is rewarded (or positively reinforced), it tends to increase or persist. But if behaviour is ignored or punished, it tends to decrease or cease. Thus, to understand and predict behaviour, it is necessary to focus on past actions and their consequences as provided by the external environment of the individual. Internal conditions or processes of individuals need not be considered.

Maslow's Need Hierarchy Model

The famous psychologist Abraham Maslow propounded the 'Need hierarchy theory of motivation'. His theory was based on human needs. Maslow felt that within every human being, there exists a hierarchy of five needs.



The salient features of this theory are as follows:

- The urge to fulfil needs is a prime factor in the motivation of people at work. Human beings strive to fulfil a wide range of needs. Human needs are multiple, complex and interrelated.
- Human needs form a particular structure or hierarchy. Physiologists' needs are at the base of the hierarchy while self-actualization needs are at the apex. Safety (security) needs, social needs and esteem (ego) needs are positioned in between. As one proceeds from the base towards the apex need becomes less essential.
- Lower-level needs must be at least partially satisfied before higher-level needs emerge. In other words, a higher-level need does not become an active motivating force until the preceding lower-order needs are satisfied. Human beings strive to gratify their needs in a sequential manner starting from the base of the hierarchy. All needs are not felt at the same time.
- As soon as one need is satisfied, another need emerges. This process of need satisfaction continues from birth to death.
- Various needs levels are interdependent and overlapping. Each higher-level need emerges before the lower need is completely satisfied.

There are five categories of human needs:

1. **Basic physiological Needs:** These needs are related to the survival and maintenance of human life. Hunger, thirst, shelter and sleep are some examples of these needs at the individual level. *The organisation satisfy these needs by giving basic salary to the employees.*
2. **Safety/Security Needs:** These needs provide security and protection from physical and emotional harm, e.g., protection against dangers, the safety of property, etc. *The organisation satisfies these needs by providing job security, stability of income, pension plans, etc.*
3. **Social/Affiliation/Belongingness Needs:** These needs include affection, acceptance, friendship, a sense of belongingness, etc. *The organisation satisfies these needs through informal organisation and cordial relations among employees.*
4. **Esteem Needs:** Esteem needs refer to those needs satisfaction which leads to self-confidence and prestige. These needs include the need for self-respect, recognition, autonomy, status, etc. *The organisation satisfies these needs by giving job titles, recognition, etc.*
5. **Self-Actualisation Needs:** These needs include growth and self-fulfilment. They are concerned with becoming what a person is capable of becoming. *The organisation satisfies these needs by allowing the employees to take the initiative to become what they are capable of becoming.*

Maslow's theory focuses on the needs as the basis for motivation. It helps managers to realise that the need level of employees should be identified to provide motivation to them.

For example, a manager can use financial incentives (e.g., pay and allowances, bonuses, etc.) to satisfy the basic physiological needs of lower-level employees. But, to satisfy the social and esteem needs of higher-level employees, non-financial incentives (e.g., status, recognition, etc.) play an important role.

Appraisal of Need Hierarchy Model

- The need priority model may not apply at all times in all places. Surveys in continental European countries and Japan have shown that the model does not apply well to their managers. Their degree of satisfaction of needs does not vary according to the need priority model.
- For example, workers in Spain and Belgium felt that their esteem needs were better satisfied than their security and social needs. Apparently, cultural differences are an important cause of these differences. Thus, the need hierarchy

may not follow the sequence postulated by Maslow. Even if safety need is not satisfied, egoistic or social need may emerge. The proposition that one's need is satisfied at one time is also of doubtful validity.

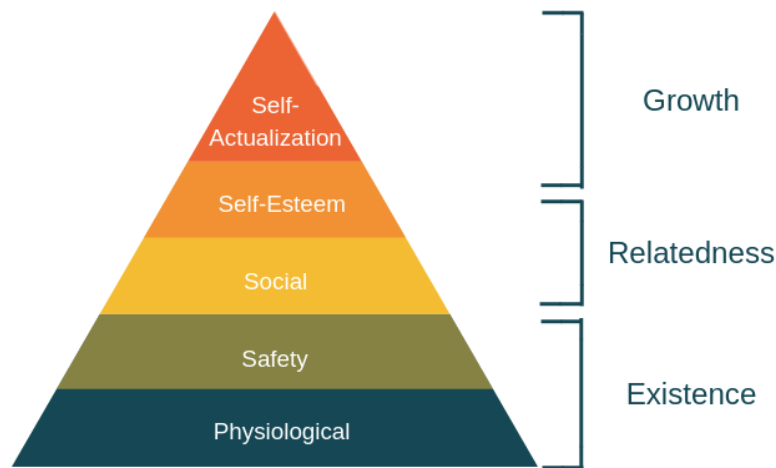
- Maslow's need hierarchy has application to the lower-level workers in a country like India where the basic needs of the workers are not satisfied fully.
- It points out that people are motivated by unfulfilled needs. It also postulates that as lower-level needs are fulfilled, upper-level needs replace them. Thus, Maslow's theory seems to be a very simple description of the complex process of motivation of human beings.
- The limitations of Maslow's theory are as under:
 - Every individual may have a different need hierarchy which may not follow the sequence suggested by Maslow. For instance, an individual may have social or egoistic needs even though his safety need is not satisfied yet.
 - It is wrong to presume that only one need is satisfied at one time. A person's behaviour at any time is mostly guided by a multiplicity of motives. However, one or two motives in any situation may be prepotent, while others may be of secondary importance. However, at different levels of needs, the motivation will be different.
 - Money can act as a motivator only for physiological and security needs, not for satisfying higher-level needs. Employees are enthusiastically motivated by what they are seeking, more than by what they already have.
 - There are always some people for whom the need for self-esteem seems more prominent than that for love. There are also creative people with whom the drive for creativity seems to be more important.
 - It is doubtful that once a need is satisfied it loses its motivating force. It is also doubtful that satisfaction of one need automatically activates the next need in the hierarchy.

Despite these limitations, Maslow's theory has a common-sense appeal for managers. It is still relevant because needs are important for understanding behaviour. The theory provides a convenient conceptual framework for the study of motivation. It helps to explain inter-personal and intra-personal variations in human behaviour. Maslow's theory helps managers in motivating employees by indicating the range of human needs and by suggesting that attention should be focused on unsatisfied needs which keep on changing over time.

Alderfer's Existence Relatedness Growth Model

Alderfer has provided an extension of Maslow's need hierarchy Theory. Serious doubts have been expressed about the existence of the five distinct need categories which Maslow hypothesized.

There seems to be some overlapping between security, social and physiological needs. Also, the lines between esteem, social and self-actualisation needs are not entirely clear. With these points in mind, Clayton Alderfer condensed Maslow's five need categories into three sets:



1. **Existence Needs:** These include all forms of material and physiological and safety needs, i.e., Maslow's first two-level needs.
2. **Relatedness Needs:** These include all needs that involve relationships with other people we care about. Relatedness needs cover Maslow's social needs and that part of esteem needs are derived from other people.
3. **Growth Needs:** These needs involve persons making creative efforts to achieve their full potential in the existing environment. It is like Maslow's last level of need for self-actualisation.

Esteem needs is categorised into two parts-

1. **Esteem from Others (External Esteem):** This part of esteem needs involves seeking approval, recognition, and respect from others. It includes gaining status, admiration, and acknowledgement in society, such as through achievements, awards, or social validation.
2. **Self-Esteem (Internal Esteem):** Self-esteem refers to the individual's internal sense of self-worth, confidence, and belief in their abilities. It involves feeling capable, competent, and confident in one's own value and contributions, irrespective of external validation.

ERG theory offers the following propositions so far as satisfaction of various needs is concerned:

There need for categories to form a hierarchy only in the sense of decreasing concreteness. As people move from focus on existence to relatedness and to growth needs, the ways in which they can satisfy those needs become increasingly abstract.

The rise in the level of satisfaction of any lower-order need may result in a decrease in its importance. Its place is taken by another need. Thus, the individual is able to move to become productive and creative, as he moves to this level, he steps toward a higher goal for himself.

People are likely to try to satisfy their most concrete needs first and then, they move on to the abstract needs. In this way, the progression of need satisfaction in ERG theory is similar to Maslow's need hierarchy, that is, people first satisfy their lower needs and gradually progress to the satisfaction of higher needs in that order. However, Alderfer goes one step further. He argues that along with satisfaction progression, people can experience frustration - regression, that is, if people cannot satisfy their needs at a given level of abstraction, they 'drop back' and again focus on more concrete needs.

Herzberg's Motivation - Hygiene Model

A significant development in motivation was a distinction between motivational and maintenance factors in a job situation. The research was conducted by Herzberg and his associates based on the interview of 200 engineers and accountants who worked for eleven different firms in the Pittsburgh area. These men were asked to recall specific incidents in their experience which made them feel either particularly good or bad about their jobs.

An analysis of their answers revealed that feelings of unhappiness or dissatisfaction were related to the environment in which people were working. On the contrary, feelings of happiness or satisfaction were related to their job. Herzberg classified all factors affecting motivation into categories.

According to Herzberg, maintenance or hygiene factors are necessary to maintain a reasonable level of satisfaction among employees. Their presence does not provide satisfaction to the employees but their absence will dissatisfy them. They are called maintenance factors in a job because they are necessary to maintain a reasonable level of satisfaction among the employees. They are also known as dissatisfiers or 'hygienic factors' because they support employees' mental health. They are not intrinsic parts of a job but they are related to conditions under which a job is performed (extrinsic to the job).

Another set of job conditions operates primarily to build strong motivation and high job satisfaction among the employees. These conditions are 'motivational factors'. Any increase in these factors will satisfy the employees and help to improve performance. But a decrease in these factors will not cause dissatisfaction.

MOTIVATORS

Satisfaction

No Satisfaction

HYGIENE FACTORS

No Dissatisfaction

Dissatisfaction

Motivators and Demotivators

Maintenance Factors (Hygienic Factors)	Motivating Factors
Company policy and administration	Achievement
Technical supervision	Advancement
Inter-personal relationship with peers	Opportunity for growth
Inter-personal relationship with supervisors	Responsibility
Inter-personal relationship with subordinates	Work itself
Salary	
Job security	
Personal life	
Working conditions	
Status	

Hygiene factors include things such as wages, fringe benefits, physical conditions and overall company policy and administration. The presence of these factors at a satisfactory level prevents job dissatisfaction, but they do not provide motivation to the employees. So they are not considered motivational factors.

Motivational factors, on the other hand, are essential for increasing the productivity of the employees. They are also known as satisfiers and include such factors as recognition, a feeling of accomplishment and achievement, opportunity for advancement and potential for personal growth, responsibility and sense of job and individual importance, new experience and challenging work, etc.

Critical Appraisal

Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory has received a great deal of attention and it has become popular among managers. Our striking conclusion of Herzberg's theory is that one cannot achieve higher performance simply by improving wages and working conditions. The conclusion should be an eye-opener to managers who go on improving wages and fringe benefits with the hope of improving efficiency.

Herzberg stressed the job as an intrinsic motivating factor. The key to job satisfaction and high performance lies in job enrichment. Herzberg's two-factor theory has made a significant contribution toward improving the basic understanding of human behaviour.

His theory is simple and based on empirical data. It offers specific actions for managers to improve motivation and performance. This theory has exercised tremendous impact in stimulating thought, research and experimentation in the area of work motivation.

Traditionally, job satisfaction and dissatisfaction were viewed as opposite ends of a single continuum. Herzberg's findings that dissatisfaction is not simply the opposite of satisfaction or motivation. Satisfaction and dissatisfaction are independent rather than opposite ends of the same continuum.

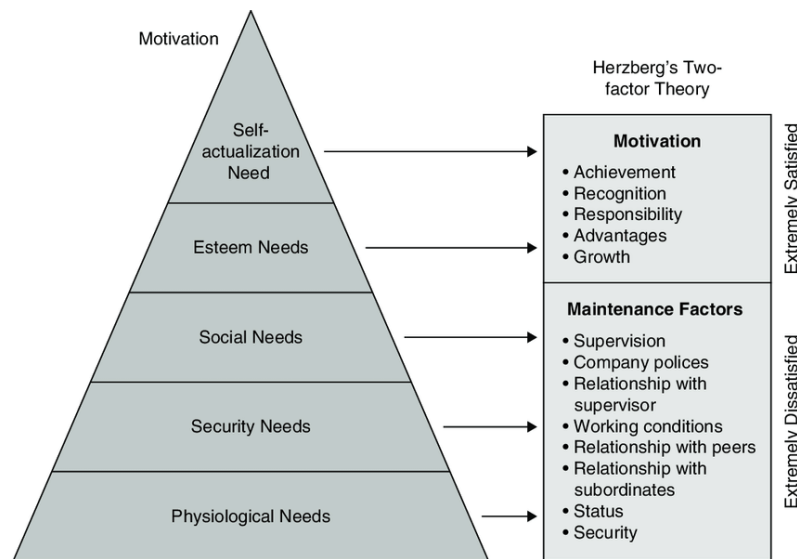
Criticism of Herzberg's Model

Herzberg's theory has been criticized on the following grounds:

1. Herzberg drew conclusions from a limited experiment covering engineers and accounts. Engineers, accountants and other professionals may like responsibility and challenging jobs. But the general body of workers is motivated by pay and other benefits.
2. In Herzberg's study, the interviewees were asked to report exceptionally good or exceptionally bad moments. This methodology is defective because there is a common bias among human beings to take more credit for good things and put the blame on others for bad things.
3. Herzberg gave too much emphasis on job enrichment. But job enrichment is not the only answer. Off-the-job satisfaction of the workers is also very important. Herzberg did not attach much importance to pay, status, or interpersonal relationships which are generally held as important contents of satisfaction.
4. The theory focuses too much attention on satisfaction rather than on performance level. There is no direct link between satisfaction, motivation and performance. Therefore, Herzberg's two-factor theory is a grossly oversimplified portrayal of the process of motivation.
5. The distinction between maintenance factors and motivating factors is not fixed. What maintenance factors (e.g., pay) for a worker in the United States may very much be a motivator for an Indian worker? The theory ignores the dominating influences of situational variables. Motivating and maintenance factors are not wholly unidimensional. They operate primarily in one direction but also partly in another direction.

Comparison between Maslow and Herzberg models

Herzberg's theory is an extension of Maslow's need priority model. The two models are basically compatible or complementary. There is a close similarity between survival needs (physiological, safety and social needs) and dissatisfiers on the one hand and between growth needs (esteem and self-actualization needs) and satisfaction on the other.



Both Maslow's and Herzberg's models tend to over-simplify the motivational process.

Maslow's model is formulated in terms of human needs while Herzberg's model is in terms of rewards or goals. Herzberg has attempted to refine and reinforce the need priority model and has thrown new light on the content of work motivation.

Herzberg has suggested the use of hygiene factors to avoid dissatisfaction and the use of motivators to improve motivation and job performance. Maslow has given a hierarchical or sequential arrangement suggesting that any unsatisfied need whether of lower order or higher order will motivate individuals. Despite these differences, the two models show marked similarities. Both models fail to take account of individual differences in motivation.

Basis	Maslow	Herzberg
Formulation	In terms of needs	In terms of rewards or incentives
Order or arrangement of needs	Hierarchical or sequential	No such arrangement
Essence of Theory	Unsatisfied needs motivate individuals and performance	Gratified needs regulate behaviour

Motivator	Any need can be a motivator if it is relatively unsatisfied	Only higher order needs serve motivators
Applicability	Takes a general view of the motivational problems of all workers	Takes a micro view and deals with work oriented motivational problems of professional workers

McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y

Douglas McGregor was a known psychologist. He has developed a theory of motivation on the basis of hypotheses relating to human behaviour. According to McGregor, the function of motivating people involves certain assumptions about human nature. There are two alternative sets of assumptions about human beings that McGregor has described as Theory X and Theory Y.

Theory X

Theory X indicates the traditional approach to managerial motivation and control. It represents old stereotyped and authoritarian management styles of motivation.

The underlying assumptions of this theory are as follows:

- The average human being is basically lazy and has an inherent dislike of work. She will avoid work if she can.
- Most people lack ambition. They are not interested in achievement. They like to be directed.
- Most people have little capacity for creativity in solving organisational problems.
- Most people are indifferent to the organisation's goals.
- Most people must be closely controlled and often threatened to achieve organisational goals.
- The motivation of average human beings occurs at the physiological (food, clothing, shelter, etc.) and safety levels.

These negative assumptions of human behaviour underline the traditional mechanisation of people and processes. The world is supposed to be full of unskilled workers, peons and messengers and managing them is largely a matter of vigilance and strict supervision.

Management merely thinks of creating for their physical and safety needs with some fringe benefits, keeping the implied threat of punishment handy in case of need. Thus, the carrot-and-stick approach to motivation is followed.

Theory X suggests that threats of punishment and strict control are the ways to manage people. It was practised during the days the Scientific Management approach gained performance and human beings were treated like machines.

Theory Y

After challenging the validity of Theory X, McGregor developed an alternative theory of human behaviour which is known as Theory Y.

This theory assumes that people are not unreliable and lazy by nature. If they are properly motivated, they could really be creative. The main task of the management is to unleash the potential in the employees. An employee who is properly motivated can achieve his goals by directing his own efforts and thus, he can help in accomplishing the organisational goals.

The assumptions of McGregor's Theory Y are as follows:

- Work is as natural as play if the conditions are favourable. The average person does not inherently dislike work.
- Self-control is often indispensable in achieving organisational goals. External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing about efforts toward organisational objectives. A person will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which she is committed.
- Commitment to an objective is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement. The most significant of such rewards, e.g., the satisfaction of ego and self-actualisation needs can be direct products of efforts directed towards organisational objectives.
- The average human being learns under proper conditions, not only to accept but also to seek responsibility. Avoidance of responsibility, lack of ambition and emphasis on security are generally the consequences of experience, not inherent in human characteristics.
- The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity and creativity in the solution of the organisational problem is wide, not narrowly, distributed in the population.

Theory Y assumes that the basic problem in most organisations is that of securing the commitment of workers to organisational goals. Workers' commitment is directly related to the satisfaction of their needs. Thus, this theory places emphasis on the satisfaction of the needs of the workers. It does not rely heavily on the use of authority as an instrument of command and control.

It assumes that workers exercise self-direction and self-control in the direction of the goals to which they feel themselves committed. Because of these reasons, 'Theory Y' is realistic and frequently used at different levels in most organisations.

Theory X	Theory Y
Based on the assumption that people are basically lazy and so shirk work.	Based on the assumption that people like work as children like play.
People do not take initiative. They like to be directed.	People like to take initiative. They seek self-direction.
People avoid responsibility whenever possible.	People assume responsibility gladly if conditions are favourable.
To get things done, people must be supervised closely and strictly.	People do not require close and strict supervision to perform their jobs.
Autocratic style of leadership is likely to be more effective.	Democratic or participative style of leadership is likely to be more effective.
Applicable to illiterate, unskilled and lower-level workers.	Applicable to educated and skilled employees who occupy higher positions in the organisation.
Believe in mental sickness and so negative motivation of employees.	Believes in mental health and so positive and intrinsic motivation of employees.

Appraisal of McGregor's Contribution

Douglas McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y represent two extremes to draw the fencing within which the organisational man is seen to behave. No man would belong completely to either Theory X or Theory Y. He possesses the traits of both in varying degrees under different situations. Thus, these are important tools for understanding the behaviour of human beings and designing incentive schemes to motivate employees.

Neither of the two theories is fully applicable in all situations and to all types of human beings. However, Theory X is more applicable to unskilled and uneducated low-level workers whereas Theory Y is more applicable to skilled and educated employees who are mature enough and understand the responsibility.

Therefore, the management should use an amalgamation of both theories to motivate the different kinds of employees at different levels in the organisation.

Ouchi's Theory Z

William Ouchi developed Theory Z after making a comparative study of Japanese and

American management practices. Theory Z is an integrated model of motivation. Theory Z suggests that large complex organizations are human systems and their effectiveness are human systems and their effectiveness depends on the quality of humanism used.

A type Z organisation has three major features-

- **T r u s t**
- **Subtlety**
- **Intimacy**
 - Mutual trust between members of an organisation reduces conflict and leads to teamwork.
 - Subtlety requires sensitivity towards others and yields higher productivity.
 - Intimacy implies concern, support and disciplined unselfishness.

The distinguishing features of theory Z are as follows:

1. **Mutual trust:** There should be trust between employees, supervisors, work groups, unions and management. According to Ouchi, trust, integrity and openness are closely related. All these are necessary for an effective organisation. To develop trust, there should be complete openness and candour in relationships.
The chances of conflict should be reduced to a minimum. Attempts should be made to achieve win-win relationships in the organisation. This would make the employees committed to the organisation.
2. **A strong bond between organisation and employees:** Several methods can be used to establish a strong bond between the enterprise and its employees. Employees may be granted lifetime employment which leads to loyalty toward the enterprise. During adverse business conditions, shareholders may forgo dividends to avoid retrenchment of workers. Promotions may be slowed down.
3. **Employee involvement:** Theory Z suggests that the involvement of employees in related matters improves their commitment and performance. Involvement implies the meaningful participation of employees in the decision-making process, particularly in matters relating directly affecting them. Such participation generates a sense of responsibility and increases enthusiasm for the implementation of decisions. Top managers serve as facilitation rather than decision-make.
4. **Integrated organization:** No formal structure is recommended by theory Z. The organisation structure should be based on teamwork as in the case of a

basketball team where there are no formal reporting relationships and the players play together. An integrated organisation need not have any chart or visible structure. The employees must develop a group spirit.

5. **Coordination:** The leader's role should be to coordinate the efforts of human beings. In order to develop common culture and class feeling in the organization, the leader must use the process of communication, debate and analysis.
6. **Informal control system:** Organisational control systems should be made informal. For this purpose, the emphasis should be on mutual trust and cooperation rather than on superior-subordinate relationships.
7. **Human resource development:** Managers should develop new skills among employees. Under Theory Z, the potential of every person is recognized and attempts are made to develop and utilize it through job enlargement, career, planning, training, etc.

Thus, theory Z is a hybrid system which incorporates the strength of American management (individual freedom, risk-taking, quick decision-making, etc.) and Japanese management (job security, group decision-making, social cohesion, holistic concern for employees, etc.)

Japanese companies operating in the United States have successfully used Theory Z. After collaboration between Japanese and Indian companies, some experts have suggested the application of this theory in India.

In Maruti Udyog, which has collaboration with Suzuki Motors of Japan, an attempt has been made to apply Theory Z. The workplace has been designed of the Japanese pattern which involves open offices. The same uniform has been introduced for all employees irrespective of their designation. Similarly, there is a common canteen for all. These practices are expected to avoid status differential and class feelings among employees and thereby facilitate teamwork in the company.

Comparison between Japanese and American Management systems

Basis	Japanese Organisations	American Organisations
Employment	Lifetime employment – Japanese workers tend to make a lifetime commitment to their organizations and in turn, organizations assume	Short-term employment – American organisations do not commit to lifetime employment. Employees seek better careers by moving between organisations.

	responsibility for lifetime employees.	
Advancement	Slow advancement – Employees rise slowly through established ranks; promotion depends on loyal and harmonious behaviour.	Rapid advancement – Employees gain economically and socially from fast promotions based on performance.
Decision Making	Collective decision making – Employees and managers seek consensus in decisions.	Personal decision making – Americans rely on individual judgment and take decisions independently.
Responsibility	Group responsibilities – Focus on teamwork and group rewards.	Individual responsibility – Focus on personal initiative and individual accountability.
Employee Concern	Holistic concern – Organisation takes care of employees beyond work (housing, health, etc.).	Segmented concern – Focus mainly on employee's work role, less on personal life.
Career Approach	General career – Careers are linked to organisations; less focus on specialisation and more on flexibility and internal training.	Specialisation in careers – Focus on specialised skills and defined career paths.

Evaluation of Theory Z

Theory Z suffers from the following limitations:

1. Provision of lifetime employment to employees to develop a strong bond between the organization and employees may fail to motivate employees with higher-level needs. It merely provides job security and may fail to develop loyalty among employees. An employee may leave the organisation when better employment is offered to him by another enterprise. Moreover, the complete security of the job may create lethargy among many employees. Employers also do not like to retain inefficient employees permanently.
2. Participation of employees in the decision-making process is very difficult. Managers may dislike participation as it may hurt their ego and freedom. Employees may be reluctant to participate due to fear of criticism and lack of motivation. Even if they sit along with management they may contribute little unless they understand the issues and take initiative. The involvement of all employees may also slow down the decision- making process.

3. Theory Z suggests an organization without any structure. But without structure, there may be chaos in the organization as nobody will know who is responsible for whom.
4. It may not be possible to develop a common culture in the organization because people differ in their attitudes, habits, languages, religions, customs, etc.
5. Theory Z is based on Japanese management practices. These practices have evolved from Japan's unique culture. Therefore, the theory may not be applicable to different cultures. Theory Z is not the last word on motivation.

Thus, Theory Z does not provide a complete solution to the motivational problems of all organizations operating under different types of environments. However, it is not merely a theory of motivation but a philosophy of managing.

Vroom's Expectancy Theory

Victor H. Vroom criticised the content theories of motivation which are based on human needs and their priority. He developed an alternative theory which is based on the motivation process. Vroom expanded the work of Maslow and Herzberg.

According to him, a person's motivation towards action at any time would be determined by an individual's perception that a certain type of action would lead to a specific outcome and his personal preference for this outcome.

Vroom's theory is built around the concepts of **Valance**, **Instrumentality** and **Expectancy**. Therefore, this theory is also known as the VIE theory.

Valance (Reward Preference)

- It refers to the strength of an individual's preference for receiving a reward.
- It is an expression of the value he places on a goal (outcome or reward). The value attached to a goal or reward is subjective as it varies from person to person. For instance, if a young and dynamic employee wants a promotion, then promotion has high valence or strength for that employee. Similarly, a retiring employee may have high value for re-employment.
- If the individual prefers an outcome the valence is positive. When the individual does not prefer an outcome, the valence is negative. If an individual is indifferent to a particular outcome the valence is zero. Thus, the total range of valence is -1 to +1.

Expectancy (Effort - Performance Probability)

It refers to the extent to which the person perceives or believes that his efforts would lead to the completion of a task.

Expectancy is stated as a probability i.e., an individual's estimate of the probability of an outcome from an action. Since it is an association between effort and performance, its value may range from 0 to 1. If the individual feels that the chances of achieving an outcome are zero, he will not even try. On the other hand, if expectancy is higher, the individual would put higher effort into achieving the desired outcome. Employees are generally motivated to exert effort if they believe their efforts will lead to high performance.

Instrumentality (Performance -reward probability)

It refers to the probability that the performance (first-level outcome) would lead to the desired results (second-level outcome). For instance, an individual wants a promotion and feels that superior performance is very important in achieving promotion. Superior performance is the first-level outcome and promotion is the second-level outcome.

The first-level outcome of high performance acquires a positive valence by virtue of its expected relationship to the preferred second-level outcome of the promotion.

In other words, superior performance (first-level outcome) will be instrumental in obtaining promotion (second-level outcome). The value of instrumentality also ranges from 0 to 1 as it is the probability of achieving the desired outcome.

The value of instrumentality also ranges from 0 to 1 as it is the probability of achieving the desired outcome.

Thus, Motivation is the product of valence, expectancy and instrumentality.

- $\text{Motivation} = \leq \text{Valence} * \text{Instrumentality} * \text{Expectancy}$

The motivational forces will be highest when expectancy, instrumentality and valence are all high.

The important contribution of Vroom's model is that it explains how the goals of individuals influence their efforts and the behaviour individuals select depends upon their assessment of the probability that the behaviour would successfully lead to the goal.

For instance, all people in an organisation may not place the same value on such job factors as promotion, high pay, job security and working conditions. In other words, they may rank them differently.

Vroom is of the opinion that what is important is the perception and value the individual places upon certain goals. Let us assume that one individual places high

value on salary increases and perceives superior performance as instrumental in reaching that goal. According to Vroom, this individual will strive toward superior performance in order to achieve a salary increase. On the other hand, another individual may highly value promotion and perceive political behaviour as instrumental in achieving it. This individual is not likely to emphasise superior performance to achieve the goal.

McClelland's Three Need Model

Each person tends to develop certain motivational drives as a result of his cognitive pattern and the environment in which he lives. David McClelland gave a model of motivation which is based on three needs, namely, achievement, power and affiliation. They are stated below:

Need	Meaning
Need for achievement	a drive to excel, advance and grow
Need for power	a drive to influence others and situations
Need for affiliation	a drive for friendly and close personal relationships

Achievement Motivation

Some people have a compelling drive to succeed, and they strive for personal achievement. They have a desire to do something better or more efficiently than it has been done before.

This drive is the achievement needed.

From research into the achievement need, McClelland found that high achievers differentiate themselves from others by their desire to do things better. They seek situations where they can attain personal responsibility for finding solutions to problems, and where they can receive rapid feedback on their performance so they set moderately challenging goals.

An achievement motive is not necessarily present in all individuals. It also differs in different cultures. For instance, McClelland in his research on the achievement motive in various cultures found that underdeveloped societies are characterized by low levels of achievement motive and even in developed countries like the USA, only 10% of the population has high levels of need for achievement.

The achievement motive among people has been found to depend on child-rearing practices, maternal warmth, personal and occupational experiences and the type of organisation for which they work.

McClelland further suggested that achievement motive can be taught also to some extent to create entrepreneurs. He suggested the following four steps of such a training programme:

- Teach the trainees or participants how to think, talk, and act like persons with high-need achievement.
- Stimulate the participants to set higher but carefully planned and realistic work goals for themselves.
- Let the participants know themselves
- Develop team spirit by having group members learn about each other's hopes, fears, successes and failures and by undergoing an emotional experience together.

Power Motivation

The need for power is a drive to have an impact, be influential, and control others.

Individuals high in power motive enjoy being 'in charge', strive for influence over others, prefer to be placed into competitive and status-oriented situations, and tend to be more concerned with gaining influence over others and prestige than with effective performance. Power-motivated people wish to create an impact on their organisation and are willing to take risks to do so.

McClelland and his associates have found that people with a high power need have a greater concern for exercising influence and control. Such individuals generally seek positions of leadership; they are involved in conversation; they are forceful, outspoken, hard-headed and demanding.

Affiliation Motive

The need for affiliation can be viewed as the desire to be liked and accepted by others. It is the need for human companionship.

Individuals with a high affiliation motive strive for friendship, prefer cooperative situations rather than competitive ones, and desire relationships involving a high degree of mutual understanding.

Such people are motivated to express their emotions and feelings to others and expect other people to do the same in return.

High need for affiliation individuals tend to take job satisfaction from socialising with people. They play important integrative roles in our group or inter-group activities. However their overemphasis on social relationships may interface with the process of accomplishing the tasks.

People possess the above needs in varying needs. However, one of the needs will

tend to be more characteristic of the individual rather than the other two.

- Individuals with a high need for achievement thrive on jobs and projects that tax their skills and abilities. Such individuals are goal-oriented in their activities, seek a challenge and want task-relevant feedback.
- Individuals with high affiliations need to value interpersonal relationships and exhibit sensitivity towards other people's feelings.
- But individuals with high power need to seek to dominate, influence or have control over others.

Porter and Lawler Model

Porter and Lawler is an improvement over Vroom's Expectancy model. It is based on four assumptions about behaviour in organisations:

1. Behavior is determined by a combination of factors in the individual and in the environment.
2. Individuals make conscious decisions about their behavior in the organization
3. Individuals have different needs, desires and goal
4. Individuals decide between alternate behaviors on the basis of their expectations that a given behaviour would lead to the desired outcome.

Porter and Lawler applied their model to study the behaviour of managers and concluded that there exists a complex relationship between job attitudes and performance. This model encounters some of the simplistic traditional assumptions about the positive relationship between satisfaction and performance.

The various elements of Porter and Lawler's model is discussed below:

1. **Effort:** It refers to the amount of energy exerted by a person on a job.
2. **Value of Reward or Valence:** The outcome of a particular behaviour (i.e., the effort put in by an individual), has a specific valence (or motivating power or value) for each individual.
 - For example, For instance, the possibility of promotion may have a high valence for individuals who like higher responsibilities and may have a low value for individuals who don't want to accept higher responsibilities.
3. **Perceived effort reward probability:** It refers to the individual's perception of the probability that different rewards depend upon the different degrees of effort. The value of reward for a person and his perception of the effort-reward probability will

determine the number of efforts he will put in.

4. **Performance:** Efforts lead to performance. But both may not be equal. In fact, performance is determined by the amount of effort and ability and role perception of the individual. That means, if an individual is lacking in ability and/or has a wrong role perception, his performance is bound to be unsatisfactory in spite of his putting great efforts.
5. **Rewards:** Performance may lead to two kinds of rewards, namely, intrinsic rewards such as a sense of self-actualisation and extrinsic rewards such as working conditions and status.
6. **Satisfaction:** The extent to which actual rewards fall short, meet or exceed the individual's perceived level of equitable rewards determines the degree of satisfaction. If actual rewards meet or exceed perceived equitable rewards, the individual will feel satisfied and if these are less than equitable rewards, the individual will feel dissatisfied.

Thus, satisfaction is only in part determined by actual rewards and that satisfaction is more dependent on performance than performance is on satisfaction. Only through the less direct feedback loops, satisfaction will affect performance.

Porter and Lawler suggested that managers should carefully assess their reward structure and that through careful planning and careful definition of role requirements, the effort-performance-reward-satisfaction system should be into the overall system of management.

Thus, the managers should take the following steps to motivate the workers:

1. **Determine the rewards valued by each subordinate:** If rewards are to be motivators, they must be suitable for the individual. A manager can determine what rewards his subordinates seek by observing their reactions in different situations and by asking them what rewards they desire.
2. **Determine the desired performance:** A manager must identify what performance level he wants so that he can tell subordinates what they must do to be rewarded.
3. **Make the performance level attainable:** If subordinates feel that the goal they are asked to pursue is difficult or impossible, their motivation will be low.

4. **Link rewards to performance:** To achieve and maintain motivation, the appropriate reward must be clearly associated within a short period of time with successful performance.

Equity Theory

The equity theory of motivation was formulated by J.S. Adams. It is based on the assumption that members of an organisation experience strong expectations of **justice, balance and fairness in treatment by the organisation.**

When a person feels that he is being treated unfairly by the organisation, these feelings can have a variety of adverse effects on the person's motivation and performance on the job.

The equity theory of motivation helps in understanding both the causes and the likely consequences of feelings of inequitable treatment among organisation members.

According to equity theory, two variables are important, i.e., inputs and outcomes.

- Inputs are the efforts and skills that a member of an organisation perceives that she puts into her job.
- Outputs are the rewards that the member receives from the organisation and her job.

Inputs	Outputs
Time	Pay
Effort	Promotion
Education	Recognition
Experience	Security
Training	Personal Development
Ideas	Benefits
Ability	Friendship

Inputs and outcomes are important elements in the exchange relationship between the organisation and its members. When the individual finds equity in the situation or feels that what she receives from the organisation in terms of treatment and compensation is fair in terms of the effort and skills she contributes to the organisation, she is satisfied with the arrangement and is normally committed to the organisation and its goals.

The individual will also compare his input-output ratios with the ratios of inputs and outcomes of some of his colleagues. This comparison is subjective since it is based on his perception and feelings. Such a comparison enables him to arrive at a conclusion about whether the ratios are in balance or not.

$$\frac{\text{Individual outputs}}{\text{Individual inputs}} = \frac{\text{Other's output}}{\text{Other's input}}$$

If the ratios are in balance, the individual experiences positive feelings of equity, fairness and justice. If they are not in balance, feelings of inequity are generated in the individual. Schematically, equity occurs when an individual feels that her ratio of input-outcome is more or less equal to that of others of her rank and status, there is equity and she feels motivated. The problem arises when these ratios are not in balance.

- The ratios get imbalanced when a person's ratio of outcomes to inputs is significantly less or significantly more than the ratios of others with whom she compares herself.
- If the ratio is significantly less in comparison with those of others, it means that the individual feels underpaid. She will feel that she does not get outcomes commensurate with her inputs or efforts. In such a case, she is likely to feel angry, hostile and frustrated.
- If the ratio is significantly higher, the individual feels over-rewarded. Such a situation may generate a feeling of guilt in the individual.
- In either case, the individual experiences some tension or anxiety and is motivated to reduce the perceived inequity or imbalance. For example, if the individual feels underpaid, she may try to reduce her input or effort or fight for higher emoluments.

Referent Comparisons

There are four referent comparisons made by an employee:

1. **Self-inside:** An employee may compare his present position to a different position inside the same organization.
2. **Self-outside:** An employee may compare his present position to a situation or position outside the employee's organisation.
3. **Other inside:** Comparison with another individual inside the organisation.
4. **Other outside:** Comparison with another individual outside the organization.

Based on these comparisons, six references are drawn and corrective action is taken by the employees. Six choices made in reference to any of the four situations are:

1. **Changing inputs:** The person may change his inputs to match his outcomes by lowering his inputs (in the case of underpaid equity) or by increasing his inputs (in the case of overpaid inequity). Thus, he may either put in a lesser amount of work effort or may work harder, as the case may be.

2. **Changing outputs:** A person may attempt to change his outcomes by requesting a salary raise or asking for a bigger office or a personal secretary. Anything perceived to be an outcome important to the individual can shift his ratio of inputs to outcomes.

3. **Changing perceptions of inputs and outcomes:** Rather than actually changing inputs or outcomes, a person may change his perception of these factors.

For example, a person who at first was feeling overpaid in return for his input to the company could re-establish equity by distorting upward his own inputs (e.g., I now feel that I really do work a lot harder than anyone else does).

4. **Changing the inputs or outcomes of others:** The person may try to re-establish equity by persuading the other persons to change their inputs or by changing her perception about the inputs/outcomes relationships of others.

5. **Changing the comparison person:** If comparing oneself with a specific person creates feelings of inequity, choosing someone else for comparison may result in less uncomfortable feelings.

6. **Leaving the situation:** If a person perceives that she cannot get justice, she may seek transfer to another department or location. In extreme cases, she may even leave the organisation.

Equity theory has some important implications for managers. It makes them realise that equity motive tends to be one of the important motives with the employees.

Second, feelings or perceptions in work settings are as important as facts in motivating people.

Third, equity consideration should form a part of the determination of the wage and salary structure in organisations.

Reinforcement Theory

Reinforcement theory is based on the concepts of operant conditioning developed initially by the well-known psychologist B.F. Skinner. Basically, reinforcement theory argues that the behaviour of people is largely determined by its consequences.

In other words, those actions that tend to have positive or pleasant consequences tend to be repeated more often in the future, while likely to be repeated again.

The reinforcement theory suggests that managers should try to structure the contingencies of rewards and punishments on the job in such a way that the consequences of effective job behaviour are positive while the consequences of ineffective work behaviour are negative or unpleasant.

The focus of this approach is on changing or modifying the behaviour of people on the job. That is why it is also labelled as the organisational behaviour modification or OB model.

OB model uses four strategies to systematically reinforce desirable behaviour while discouraging undesirable behaviour. These strategies are briefly discussed as under:

1. Positive Reinforcement

It entails the use of rewards (or other positive consequences) that stimulate desired behaviour and strengthen the probability of repeating such behaviour in the future. Positive reinforcement can be money, praise, promotion, recognition, etc.

2. Negative Reinforcement

This strategy is called “**avoidance learning**”. It implies the use of unpleasant consequences to condition individuals to avoid behaving in an undesirable way. By making unpleasant consequences contingent on undesirable behaviour, individuals learn to systematically change patterns of behaviour.

Avoidance learning is not a strategy of punishment. We learn to watch for traffic when crossing streets to avoid accidents, and we learn to bundle up on cold days to avoid cold and cough. Punishment or coercion is not implied in any of these actions.

In a work environment, training, safety warnings, orientation sessions, and counselling help alert employees against the negative consequences of undesirable behaviour.

3. Extinction

There is a withdrawal of all forms of reinforcement to remove or extinguish undesirable behaviour.

For instance, a disruptive employee who is punished by his supervisor for his undesirable behaviour may continue the disruptions because of the attention they bring. By ignoring or isolating the disruptive employee, attention is withheld and possibly also the motivation for fighting.

4. Punishment

This tool is used when an unpleasant or undesirable behaviour needs to be reduced or eliminated. For example, a worker's wages may be deducted if the quality of goods produced is not of standard quality.

Social Learning Theory

Social learning theory suggests that employees gain substantial information about how to perform by observing and imitating others around them. In the same way, they influence others in their environment who are watching them.

It reminds managers that employees do not react mechanically to their environment (consequences), but carefully observe other people and symbols around them. This is why much of their behaviour is carefully chosen.

Goal Setting Theory

Goals lay down targets to be achieved in future. They influence the behaviour of employees and also their motivation. When the employees participate in goal setting, they see how their efforts will lead to performance, rewards and personal satisfaction. Thus, goals provide a sense of direction to the employees. Moreover, the attainment of goals is rewarding as it helps to satisfy the needs of the employees and stimulates them to set higher goals for the future.

Edwin Locke studied the processes by which employees set goals for themselves and then put in efforts to achieve them. There are four elements of the setting model explained below:

1. **Goal acceptance:** The employees should understand the implications of goals for them and also accept them. If difficult goals are assigned to individuals, they may not feel attached to the goals. That is why it is desired that managers should follow a participative approach in setting the goals for their subordinates. When the employees are involved in goal setting, they accept the goals and take steps to realise them.

2. **Goal Specifically:** A specific goal identifies the target in quantitative or measurable terms. This would enable the worker to his performance and judge how he is doing in relation to the goal. Meeting a goal provides a worker with a sense of achievement, pride and personal satisfaction.

General goals, such as “produce as much as possible,” have very little effect on motivation. Specific goals reduce ambiguity, and each employee gets a very clear idea as to what is expected of him or her. This results in improved performance.

3. **Goal Challenge:** Difficult but feasible goals provide more challenges than easy goals. Reaching an easy target is not competitive and hence hardly exciting. This is particularly true for high-need achievers. However, even the challenging goals must be achievable, given the capability and experience of the individual and the resources available.
4. **Performance Feedback:** The employees, who have set challenging goals for themselves, need feedback about how well they are doing and how successful they are. Proper feedback can motivate them further. Performance feedback tends to encourage better job performance and self-generated feedback is an especially powerful motivational tool.

Goal setting theory proposes that challenging and specific goals are more likely to lead to better performance. Proper feedback can sustain motivation further.

In addition to feedback, two other factors have been found to influence the goals-performance relationships

- Goal commitment: Commitment towards goals increases when goals are made public when there is an internal locus of control and when goals are self- set rather than assigned
- Self-efficacy: an individual's belief that he is capable of performing a task

Self Determination Theory

Self-determination refers to a person's ability to make choices and manage their own life.

Being self-determined means that you feel in greater control, as opposed to being non-self-determined, which can leave you feeling that your life is controlled by others.

Self-determination theory seeks to explain how being self-determined impacts motivation—that people feel more motivated to take action when they think that what they do will have an effect on the outcome.

Self-determination theory grew out of the work of psychologists Edward Deci and Richard Ryan, who first introduced their ideas in their 1985 book *Self-Determination and Intrinsic Motivation in Human Behaviour*. They developed a theory of motivation that suggests people tend to be driven by a need to grow and gain fulfilment.

Components of Self-Determination

According to self-determination theory, self-determination has three components:

1. **Autonomy:** People need to feel in control of their own behaviours and goals. This sense of being able to take direct action that will result in real change plays a major part in helping people feel self-determined.
2. **Competence:** Another need concerns our achievements, knowledge, and skills; people have a need to build their competence and develop mastery over tasks that are important to them.
3. **Relatedness:** People need to have a sense of belonging and connectedness with others; each of us needs other people to some degree

SMART Goal Technique

The SMART criteria were first introduced by George T. Doran in a paper titled "There's a S.M.A.R.T. Way to Write Management's Goals and Objectives" published in 1981. The concept gained popularity for its effectiveness in setting objectives that are both clear and achievable. Since then, it has been widely adopted in various fields, including business, education, personal development, and project management, as a framework for goal-setting and planning.

1. **Specific:** A specific goal has a much greater chance of being accomplished than a general goal. A general goal would be 'get in shape', but a specific goal would say, 'join a health club and workout 3 days a week'.
2. **Measurable:** Establish concrete criteria for measuring progress toward the attainment of each goal you set. When you measure your progress, you stay on track, reach your target dates, and experience achievement that spurs you on to the continued effort required to reach your goal.
3. **Attainable:** When you identify goals that are most important to you, you begin to figure out ways you can make them come true. You can attain almost any goal you set when you plan your steps wisely and establish a time frame that allows you to carry out those plans.

4. **Relavant:** Goals should align with your overall objectives, purpose, or broader organizational aims. They should be meaningful and contribute to your long-term aspirations.
5. **Timely:** A goal should be grounded within a time frame. With no time frame tied to it, there's no sense of urgency. If you want to lose 10 lbs, by when do you want to lose it? 'someday' won't work. But if you anchor it within a timeframe, 'by 1st May, then you've set your unconscious mind into motion to begin working on the goal.

Job enrichment

Job enrichment implies increasing the contents of a job or the deliberate upgrading of responsibility, scope and challenges in work.

Job enrichment is a motivation technique which emphasises the need for challenging and interesting work. It suggests that jobs are redesigned so that intrinsic satisfaction is derived from doing the job.

In its best applications, it leads to a vertically enhanced job by adding functions from other organisational levels, making it contain more variety and challenge and offering autonomy and pride to the employee. The job holder is given a measure of discretion in making operational decisions concerning his job. In this sense, he gains a feeling of higher status, influence and power.

Job enrichment involves vertical loading of functions and responsibilities which require a higher level of skills and competence. In order to enrich the job, management should take the following measures:

1. Give sufficient freedom to employees in deciding about work methods, pace, sequence, etc.
2. Increase responsibility
3. Encourage participation
4. Provide feedback to the employees; and
5. Make the personnel understand how tasks contribute to the finished product of the enterprise.

Advantages of Job Enrichment

The advantages of job enrichment are as follows:

1. It makes the work interesting and challenging.
2. It decreases the rates of absenteeism and labour turnover.

3. It helps in motivation through opportunities for growth and advancement.
4. It makes easy task reinforcement and increases the skills of workers.
5. Workers get higher job satisfaction.
6. The enterprise gains through the improvement of output both quantitatively and qualitatively and higher satisfaction of the workers.

Limitations of Job enrichment

1. Technology may not permit the enrichment of all jobs. With specialised machinery, it may not be possible to make jobs very meaningful.
2. Job enrichment has proved to be a costly process in certain cases as the expenditure involved is higher than the gains in productivity.
3. Jobs of highly skilled professionals already contain many challenging elements, but they are not necessarily that satisfied.
4. It is difficult to say that all workers really want challenging jobs. Many of them even like to avoid responsibility. They seem to like job security and pay above all.
5. All those who prefer job enrichment may not have the requisite capability to meet the new challenges.

Job enlargement

Job enlargement refers to enlarging the range of tasks in a job to make it more broad-based.

It is the strategy adopted by many managers to combat the mal-effects of division labour

Job enlargement focuses on enlarging jobs by increasing tasks and responsibilities. It involves an expansion of the scope and width of the job by means of a horizontal loading of certain closely related operations.

For example, a clerk in an office who is doing the typing work only may also be assigned the tasks of drafting duties, sorting incoming mail and filling letters. This will reduce his boredom and make him satisfied with the job. His efficiency will also improve.

Basis	Job Enlargement	Job Enrichment
Nature	Expansion of the range of tasks in a job; horizontal loading (addition of similar tasks).	Improvement in the quality of a job in terms of its intrinsic worth; vertical loading (addition of responsibility and functions).
Purpose	To reduce monotony in repetitive jobs by increasing the number of tasks.	To make the job more lively, challenging and satisfying; fulfils higher-level needs like ego satisfaction, self-expression, and achievement.

Need for Skills	Does not necessarily require higher-level skills.	Requires development and use of higher skills, initiative, and innovation.
Direction and Control	Does not reduce the need for supervision; may require more control.	Requires less supervision; encourages self-direction and control.

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