

Chapter-23

Workplace Motivation

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Abstract: Motivation is a fundamental concept in organizational behaviour and management that drives individuals to act towards achieving personal and organizational goals. It refers to the internal and external forces that initiate, direct, and sustain human behaviour over time. In the workplace, motivation plays a crucial role in enhancing employee performance, productivity, job satisfaction, and overall organizational effectiveness. This chapter examines the definition, characteristics, and significance of motivation, emphasizing its function as a crucial managerial function. In addition to discussing important motivational theories including Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory, and McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y, it looks at a variety of motivational styles, including intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. These ideas aid managers in creating successful motivational tactics and offer insight into human behaviour. The chapter also highlights useful strategies for inspiring workers, including monetary rewards, acknowledgment, chances for professional growth, and a supportive workplace. It also discusses the difficulties businesses have in keeping workers motivated in a fast-paced, cutthroat market.

Keywords: Basic Concepts: Motivation ,Needs ,Drives ,Goals ,Incentives ,Behaviour ,Satisfaction, Performance -Types of Motivation: Intrinsic Motivation.

What is Motivation...

The forces that act on or inside an individual to initiate behaviour are referred to as motivation. Psychologists investigate these forces in order to interpret behavioural shifts in an individual, deriving motivation from variations in behaviour in reaction to stimuli. Primary (unlearned, like hunger) and secondary (learned, like achievement) motives are classified as "pushes" (internal triggers) or "pulls" (external goals); most circumstances involve both. Changes in motivation are frequently transient, making it a performance variable.

At the physiological, psychological, and philosophical levels, motivation is studied. Motivational techniques are employed in society to accomplish objectives, despite ethical issues with manipulation and control.



In order to assist explain observable behavioural changes in an individual, psychologists investigate motivating forces. Therefore, the concept of motivation can be used to explain, for instance, the fact that a person is more likely to open the refrigerator door to look for food as the number of hours since the last meal grows. Motivation is usually inferred as the outcome of behavioural changes in response to internal or external stimuli, as the aforementioned example illustrates. Recognising that motivation is essentially a performance variable is also crucial. In other words, motivational shifts frequently have transient consequences. An individual, highly motivated to perform a particular task because of a motivational change, may later show little interest for that task as a result of further change in motivation.

Primary, or basic, motives are unlearned and shared by humans and animals, but secondary, or learnt, motives can vary from person to person and from animal to species. Hunger, thirst, sex, avoiding pain, and possibly fear and violence are considered to be the main motivations. Achievement, power drive, and many more specialised reasons are examples of secondary motives that are commonly studied in humans.

Additionally, motives have occasionally been divided into "pushes" and "pulls." Internal shifts that result in the activation of particular motive states are known as push motives. Pull motives are outside objectives that affect how people behave. In actuality, the majority of motivational circumstances combine push and pull factors. For instance, internal changes in blood glucose or fat storage may indicate hunger, but the availability of meals also has a significant impact on eating motivation. Certain foods are more appealing than others, and this affects how we behave. As a result, behaviour is frequently a complicated combination of internal and external forces.

What is behaviour....

Behavioural science studies behaviour, which includes human behaviours and aims to comprehend social behaviour. Motivation is crucial; behaviouristic approaches examine how motives are acquired and how learning combines with internal drives and external objectives to generate behaviour. Determinism suggests every behaviour has an antecedent cause, often attributed to motivation rather than randomness. An individual's capacity to gather resources and create alliances for survival and reproduction is improved by social behaviour, which is influenced by both cooperation and competition.

The connection between Motivation and Behaviour:

Behaviour and motivation are related because motivation, which comes from the Latin "motivus," which means "a moving cause," is the force that starts behaviour. In order to comprehend behavioural shifts in response to internal or external stimuli, psychologists examine motivation.

There are two types of motivations: primary (unlearned, like hunger) and secondary (taught, like achievement). They can also be categorised as "pulls" (external goals impacting behaviour) or "pushes" (internal changes generating motive states). Whether intrinsic or learned, motivation stimulates reactions, energises responses, and maintains behaviour throughout time. It works in tandem with learning to produce a reaction, affecting behaviour through both internal motivations and external objectives.

The study of motivation--Physiological, psychological and philosophical approaches:

Numerous(many) approaches have been used to study motivation. For example, it has been examined at the physiological level using electrical and chemical stimulation of the brain, recording electrical brain-wave activity with an electroencephalograph, and lesion techniques, which involve destroying a portion of the brain (usually of a laboratory animal) and observing changes in motivation. The significance of specific brain areas in the regulation of basic motivations including hunger, thirst, sex, aggression, and fear has been shown by physiological research conducted mostly on non-human animals.

The presence of other individuals also affects an individual's motivation. Social psychologists have been actively investigating how motivation is affected by the presence of individuals in a certain circumstance. For instance, in the classroom, both teachers and students act in predictable ways. However, those habits are frequently very different from how teachers and students act outside of the classroom. Three topics in this subject that have drawn a lot of attention include studies of obedience, conformity, and helpful behaviours (those that assist others without receiving compensation).

Lastly, a more philosophical approach to motivation is occasionally also used. In other words, assessments of motivation can be understood, at least partially, by looking at the theorist's specific philosophical stance. Some motivational theorists, for instance, believe that motivation is an undesirable state that should be avoided. This concept could be used to apply Sigmund Freud's theory of motivational processes, which suggests that the accumulation of sexual energy (motivation) is aversive. Freud claimed that suppressed sexual energy could be displaced into acceptable activities. Motivation is viewed by some theories as a far more favourable sensation. In other words, motivation might result in actions that boost motivation in the future. This framework could be used to implement Abraham H. Maslow's theory of self-actualization (see Self-actualization below).

➤ **Historical overview-**

The contributions of philosophers:

Philosophers and physiologists have had a significant impact on motivating philosophy throughout its history. For instance, until it was largely discarded in favour of determinism, the idea of free will as put forward by

Aristotle and others was a commonly recognised philosophical stance. Psychologists refer to this theory as determinism, which maintains that every behaviour has an antecedent cause. Motivation is one antecedent that specific acts are frequently linked to. The foundation for researching how learning affects behaviour was Aristotle's theory that the mind is initially a blank slate on which experience writes. The idea of mind-body dualism was first out by the 17th-century philosopher René Descartes, who suggested that human activity could be explained as coming from both automatic, nonrational bodily processes and a free, rational soul.

The contributions of physiologists:

Advances in the study of physiology have also advanced motivational research. The stimulus-response approach to motivation, which has become essential to the field, naturally resulted from the discovery of distinct nerve fibres for sensory and motor information, which was first suspected by the Greek physician Galen and independently confirmed by the English anatomist Sir Charles Bell in 1811 and the French physiologist François Magendie in 1822.

Definition:

The most common definition of motivation is something that propels or encourages someone to act in a particular way or in a particular direction. Motivation can be defined as a process that initiates and propels a variety of behaviours, whether they are psychological or physical (Gerrig and Zimbardo, 2006). The Latin word "movere," which meaning "to move," is where the word "motivation" originates. Therefore, it can be explained in terms of motivation, force, requirements, wants, and desires that could cause people to act in a particular way. A student may be motivated to perform well in a class activity if they want to receive praise from the teacher.

Feldman (2015, p. 287) defined motivation as **“the factors that direct and energize the behaviour of humans and other organisms”**.

Feist and Rosenberg (2015, p. 397) define motivation as **“the urge to move towards one’s goals, to accomplish tasks”**.

Chamorro- Premuzic (2015, p. 272) defined motivation as **“an internal state, dynamic rather than static in nature, that propels action, directs behaviour and is oriented toward satisfying both instincts and cultural needs and goals”**.

Quick, Nelson and Khandelwal (2013, p. 172) defined motivation as **“the process of arousing and sustaining goal directed behaviour”**.

Petri (1996) defines motivation as **“the process by which activities are started, directed and continued so that physical or psychological needs or wants are met”**.

Needs: These are associated with the biological conditions of cellular or physiological inadequacies that give rise to drives. For instance, in order to survive, people require food, water, and oxygen (Feist & Rosenberg, 2015). These are the bodily needs, or biological wants. We also have social and cognitive demands. The urge for achievement and curiosity are examples of cognitive requirements. Social wants, such as the drive to compete, collaborate, and comply, originate from social situations and contexts.

Drives: are "the perceived states of tension that occur when our bodies are deficient in some need, creating an urge to relieve the tension," according to Feist & Rosenberg (2015, p. 397). As we covered under need, drive is either compelled by or results from a need. As a result, when someone is hungry, they will look for food. As a result, the need generates motivation and causes the person to act in a way that addresses the created lack.

Incentives: Unlike drive, which is internal, incentives are external or come from the environment and are used to motivate conduct. It might be a thing or an occasion. One way to think of a trophy won in a game is as an incentive to perform well.

Now that we understand what motivation is, let's look at the many kinds of motivation. Human behaviour is influenced by a variety of elements, some of which are basic, like eating, and some of which are social in nature. Additionally, some may result from internal psychological variables that exist within the individual. In the part that follows, let's talk about these different kinds of motivations.

Characteristics of Motivation

1. A psychological phenomenon is motivation:

Since motivation is an internal emotion, it cannot be imposed on workers. Human behaviour is influenced by internal emotions including need, want, aspirations, etc. For instance, wanting a new home, being respected and

acknowledged,

etc.

2. Goal-directed behaviour is the result of motivation:

People are motivated to act in certain ways in order to accomplish their objectives. A motivated person doesn't require guidance or oversight. He'll always work the way you want him to. For instance, if someone is motivated to advance, they will work hard to do so.

3. motivators can be positive as well as negative:

Managers use a variety of motivators to inspire their staff. There are positive and negative motivators. A few examples of positive motivators are respect, recognition, bonuses, promotions, and increments. The manager employs negative motivators, such as warnings, memos, demotions, stopping increments, etc., if the employee does not improve his performance using positive motivators. Sometimes a person's fear of unfavourable motivators also causes them to act in a desired way.

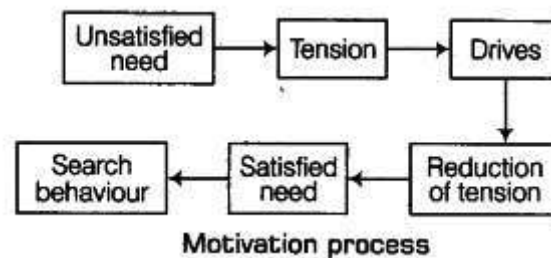
4. Motivation is a complex process:

The process of motivation is intricate. Motivation is a challenging and intricate process. A manager needs to be aware of the different kinds of human needs in order to inspire employees. Human needs are quantifiable mental emotions. Each person utilises a distinct strategy to meet his needs if the management measures them effectively. Financial incentives satisfy some people, whereas non-financial incentives, positive motivators, and negative motivators satisfy others. Therefore, it is impossible to generalise about motivation.

5. Motivation is a dynamic and continuous process:

The process of motivation is dynamic and ongoing. People are constantly evolving. Human wants are limitless and constantly evolving. Managers must constantly fulfil the role of motivation since meeting one need leads to the fulfilment of another.

Process of Motivation:



1. **Unsatisfied need.** Motivation process begins when there is an unsatisfied need in a human being.
2. **Tension.** The presence of unsatisfied need gives him tension.
3. **Drive.** This tension creates an urge of drive in the human being as he starts looking for various alternatives to satisfy the drive.
4. **Search Behaviour.** A person begins acting in accordance with the option they have selected after looking for alternatives.
5. **Satisfied need.** He assesses whether or not the demand is met after acting in a certain way for a considerable amount of time.
6. **Reduction of tension.** After fulfilling the need the human being gets satisfied and his tension gets reduced.

➤ **Types of Motivation:**

1. Primary and Secondary Motivation: Primary motivation, also known as basic motivation, is primarily driven by requirements like as food, thirst, sleep, sex, pain avoidance, and so on. These mostly affect a person's behaviour at a fundamental level and are connected to the fundamental urge for self-preservation. Learned motivation, also known as secondary motivation, can vary from person to person. They are also connected to a person's values and priorities. This is covered in more detail in section on drive reduction theory.

2. Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation: This is yet another way in which motivation can be categorized. Extrinsic motivation can be defined as "motivation that comes from outside the person and usually involves rewards and praises." Extrinsic incentive includes things like money, praise, rewards, feedback, and more. As a result, it is composed of something external to the person. These motivators offer joy and fulfilment that the

chores or activities might not. As a result, these motivators persuade the person to take action that they might not have otherwise.

➤ **SOME THEORIES OF MOTIVATION-**

1] Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs:

Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs uses a pyramid to show the needs in a hierarchical order. It starts with the most fundamental demands and works its way up to more complex ones. Prior to meeting the higher-level demands, the basic needs must be satisfied.

1] **Physiological needs:** Physiological needs are the basic biological necessities that keep the human body alive, like food, air, and sleep.

2] **Safety needs:** Safety needs include the need for a stable and predictable life that includes financial security, health, and safety from harm.

3] **Sociological Needs: Love and Belonging:** The emotional urge for closeness, companionship, and belonging to a community of people who support one another.

4] **Esteem needs:** Esteem needs include the need for status, acknowledgement, and gratitude from those around you as well as the quest for self-respect.

5] **Self-actualization:** The desire to develop your skills, realise your full potential, and experience genuine self-fulfilment.



As we see in the above figure, the basic needs are the physiological needs (related to the primary drive), namely need for food, water, sleep and sex. This is also called the 'deficiency needs or D-needs. Physiological needs are followed by the safety needs that are related to the need for an environment that keeps us safe and secure. These two needs can be termed as lower order needs and once these are fulfilled, then the individual will move on to the other higher order needs, also called the 'growth needs'.

A] The physiological and safety needs are followed by the need for love and belongingness, that is related to the give and take of love and affection. Next comes the esteem needs, that are related to the need for development of a sense of self worth.

B] The highest need is that of self-actualization, that is related to the need for realization of one's full potential (Feist & Rosenberg, 2015) or can also be termed as a state of self-fulfilment (Feldman, 2015). Maslow, later on, has added a new level of needs higher than self-actualization, i.e., transcendence needs, which refers to finding spiritual meaning in life (Maslow, 1996).

Maslow's theory has been criticized on two grounds: (i) these needs are not universal as suggested by Maslow. Cultural variations in the importance of needs may influence this and; (ii) These needs may not occur in the same hierarchical order. We have many instances where great scientists or reformers or artists have engaged in the higher needs of self-actualization even if their lower needs of hunger have not been met.

2] Alderfer's ERG theory:



Clayton Paul Alderfer, an American psychologist, expanded on Maslow's well-known hierarchy of needs to create a unique framework called the ERG theory. This model was developed between the years 1961 to 1978, during which Alderfer rigorously tested its principles and published academic papers to support it.

Alderfer's Existence, Relatedness, and Growth (ERG) Theory (hypothesis) : Alderfer's theory is comparable to Maslow's theory, however it emphasises only three levels rather than five. The existence needs, which are fundamental needs connected to the physiological and safety needs, are at the bottom of the hierarchy. The relatedness demands, which are associated with social relationships, come next.

The final level is called "growth needs," and it has to do with the need to reach one's potential, become competent, and so on. Maslow's self-actualization demands and the growth needs are comparable.



The ERG categories of human needs are:

1.Existence Needs: physiological and safety needs (such as hunger, thirst and sex).

2.Relatedness Needs: social and external esteem (involvement with family, friends, coworkers and employers).

3.Growth Needs: internal esteem and self-actualisation (the desire to be creative, productive and to complete meaningful tasks).

- The ERG theory allows for different levels of needs to be pursued simultaneously.
- The ERG theory allows the order of the needs be different for different people.
- The ERG theory acknowledges that if a higher-level need remains unfulfilled, the person may regress to lower-level needs that appear easier to satisfy. This is known as the frustration-regression principle.

3] Two Factors theory:



Herzberg's two-factor theory outlines that humans are motivated by two things: *motivators* and *hygiene factors* (see Figure 1). These two factors are both critical to motivation: motivators encourage job satisfaction and hygiene factors prevent job dissatisfaction.

This theory mainly focuses on two main factors that is hygiene factor and motivational factor. It states that satisfaction and dissatisfaction arise from these two factors. Herzberg says that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not two ends in the same continuum, but they are two separate factors. Thus the opposite of satisfaction is 'no satisfaction' (not 'dissatisfaction') and the opposite of dissatisfaction is 'no dissatisfaction'

(not 'satisfaction').



Motivational factors: elements associated with job satisfaction. They address intrinsic wants like success, acknowledgement, and progress. Motivation elements foster progress and enable workers to be satisfied in their positions.

Hygiene Factors: Hygiene considerations are elements that must exist in the workplace to avoid unhappiness but are unrelated to job satisfaction. Extrinsic necessities including pay grade, workplace policies, and peer relationships are examples of hygiene factors.

A]Hygiene factors In order to apply Herzberg's theory in the workplace, one must examine the hygiene factors. As stated above, hygiene factors do not contribute to workplace satisfaction but must be present in order to prevent workplace dissatisfaction. **Hygiene factors** are closely related to extrinsic needs:

Hygiene factors consist of a set of 10 factors:

1.company policies and administration, 2.quality of technical supervision, 3.quality of interpersonal relations among peers, 4.subordinates, and 5.superiors, 6.salary,7. job security, 8.personal life, 9.working conditions, and 10.status.

B] motivators factors: It is thought that the two-factor theory's date is especially significant. Similar to Maslow, Herzberg developed his thesis in the 1960s, when people were thought to be primarily driven by financial gain. Herzberg challenged this conventional wisdom, arguing that content rather than context was what led to professional happiness. A company must comprehend what drives employees to be more productive if it wants to create new goods and enter new markets. They could start by examining employees' basic needs:

The six motivators that fulfil employee intrinsic needs:

1.achievement,2. recognition, 3.growth, 4.advancement,5. responsibility, and 6.the work itself.

Essentially, managers will need to reevaluate the 'human' aspect of their employees, including their goals, values and hobbies. They will need to invest emotionally into the relationship by taking the time to talk to them, thank them for their loyalty, or send a card acknowledging their hard work. Managers can also celebrate an employee's creativity or an important milestone in their career. Above all, they need to be good leaders by helping their subordinates develop to their full potential.

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