## Motivation, an Essential Ingredient for Optimal Performance in Emerging Markets *(Pp. 89-106)*

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**Abstract**
*Motivation is an inner drive that activates behaviour and gives it a direction. Motivation is a management tool that managers employ in the process of achieving organizational objectives. In this paper, the following main issues were examined; historical perspectives on motivation, motivating the diverse workforce among others.*

**Introduction**
Motivating employees is a major concern of most goal-oriented managers. Their worry is that how can employees be induced to see organizational goals as part of their own goals and to work hard to assist in the achievement of these organizational goals?  Essentially, organizational performance is predicated on three factors namely: ability, motivation and environment. Employees must know how to do their jobs (ability), must want to do their

jobs (motivation), and must have the proper and enabling setting, materials and tools to do their jobs (environment). If any of these factors is missing, effective performance will be made extremely difficult.

A manager may have the most highly qualified employees in the world and even provide them with the state-of-the-art tools and equipments, but effective performance will not result, unless the employees are motivated to perform and deliver. In this paper, we shall examine the following issues:-

     (1)     Definition of motivation

     (2)     Historical perspectives on motivation

     (3)     Motivation concepts

     (4)     Theories of motivation

     (5)     Motivating the diverse work force

     (6)     Conclusion

**Definition of Motivation**

The word motivation is coined from the Latin word "Movere", which means to move. It is seen as an internal drive that activates behaviour and gives it direction (Romando, 2009). On the other hand, Kotze (2009) presents motivation as a simple model which comprises of Needs – drives – behaviour – goals – reduction or release of tension. Furthermore, Pan (2009), noted that the definition of motivation is to give reason, incentive, enthusiasm, or interest that causes a specific action or certain behaviour. "Motivation is the internal condition that activates behaviour and gives it direction, energises and directs goal-oriented behaviour" (Weightman, 2008). Again, "motivation is a human psychological characteristic that contributes to a person's degree of commitment. It includes the factors that causes, channels, and sustains human behaviour in a particular committed direction" (Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert, 2004).

Furthermore, motivation is also defined as "the psychological forces that determine the direction of a person's behaviour in an organization, a person's level of effort, and a person's level of persistence in the face of obstacles (Gareth, Jennifer and Charles, 2003). According to Robins (2004), Motivation is the processes that account for an "individual's intensity, direction, and persistence of effort toward attaining inner engine that drives the behaviour of an individual toward reaching a set goal in order to satisfy a

preponent need.  From all the definitions, it means that motivation is all about people's behaviour directed toward realizing a set goal (whether individual goal or organizational goal).

## Historical Perspectives on Motivation
Discussions on motivation will not be complete without looking at the historical evolvement of the concept in management literatures.  Motivation theory has evolved through three different philosophical views (Griffin, 2004).  The views are the traditional approach, the human relations approach, and the human resource approach.

## The Traditional Approach
Frederick W. Taylor made significant contributions to the scientific study of work and specialization in work, and he suggested the use of an incentive pay system.  He believed that management knew more about the jobs being performed than the employees and he assumed that economic gain was the primary goal in the motivation process.  Other assumptions of the traditional approach were that work is inherently unpleasant for most people and that the money they earn is more important to them than the jobs they are performing. Hence, people could be expected to tolerate any kind of job if they are paid enough money.

However, the role of money as a motivating factor cannot be disregarded. Proponents of the traditional approach took a too narrow view of the role of money in motivation and over-sighted other motivational factors (Griffin, 2004; Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert, 2004).

## The Human Relations Approach
The human relations approach to motivation grew out of the work of Elton Mayo (1939) at Western Electric in the United States of America.  This approach emphasizes the role of social processes in the work place.  The assumptions here are that employees want to feel useful and important and they want to belong to at least a social group.  These allowances are more important than money in motivating employees.  This perceived importance and involvement by employees are expected to satisfy employees' basic social needs and would result in higher motivation to perform and deliver (Griffin, 2004).

## The Human Resource Approach
The human resource approach holds that employees' actual participation and contribution to the process of management are useful to the employees and

the organizations. They feel motivated when they are given the opportunity to participate and contribute towards the goals of the organization. Management task is to create an enabling environment that would make use of the human resources (Gareth, Jennifer and Charles, 2003).

In sum, the historical perspectives on motivation reveals that money, perceived usefulness and belongingness, and actual participation and contribution by employees are motivation factors.

### Motivation Concepts

The two basic motivational concepts are the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Kagan 1972, Marshal, Blank and Meeden, 2004).

### Intrinsic Motivation

Psychologists Ryan and Deci (2000), noted that "Intrinsic motivation is the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfaction rather than for some separable consequence. When intrinsically motivated, a person is moved to act for the fun of challenge entailed rather than because of external products, pressure or reward". On the other hand, Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert 92004), observed that intrinsic motivation is a psychological reward that is experienced directly by an individual. Similarly, Thomas (2000) "describes employees as intrinsically motivated when they genuinely care about their work, look for better ways to do it, and are energized and fulfilled by doing it well. The reward an employee gets from intrinsic motivation comes from the work itself rather than from external factors like increases in pay or compliments form the boss".

Furthermore, Thomas (2000) proposed that intrinsic motivation is achieved when people experience feelings of choice, competence, meaningfulness, and progress. To him, choice is the opportunity to be able to select task activities that make sense to a person and to perform them in ways that seems appropriate. Competence is the accomplishment a person feels in skillfully performing task activities he has chosen. Meaningfulness is the opportunity to pursue a worthy scheme of things. Progress is feeling that a person has in making significant advancement in achieving the task's purpose.

All put together, intrinsic motivation comes from rewards inherent in a task or the activity itself. Therefore, we are of the opinion that managers should motivate their employees by allowing them to make choice of task to perform for which they have the requisite competence, which is meaningful and in which they can make appreciable progress.

### Extrinsic Motivation

Extrinsic motivation is a construct that occurs whenever an activity is done in order to attain some separable outcome (Ryand and Deci, 2000). On the other hand, extrinsic motivation is reward that is provided by an outside agent such as a supervisor or work group (Stone, Freeman and Gilbert, 2004). Extrinsic motivation comes from outside of the performer. Common examples of extrinsic motivation includes: money, coercion, threat of punishment, trophies, competition (Deci, 1972). Social psychological reward has indicated that extrinsic rewards can lead to over justification and a subsequent reduction in intrinsic motivation (Fishbein and Ajeen, 1975).

### Theories of Motivation

Some of the earliest and contemporary theories of motivation includes: hierarchy of needs theory, theory X and theory Y, two factor theory, ERG theory, McClelland's theory of needs, cognitive evaluation theory, goal-setting theory, operant conditioning theory, social learning theory, equity theory, expectancy theory and self determination theory.

### 1. Hierarchy of Need Theory

One theory of motivation that has gained a lot of attention, but not completely accepted was put forward by Abraham Maslow (1908-1970). In his theory, he argued that individuals are motivated to satisfy a number of different needs, some of which are more preponent and powerful that others. Prepotency means that some needs are felt as being more pressing than others. Abraham Maslow went further to argue that until the most pressing needs are met, other needs have little effect on an individual's behaviour. By this, the most preponent needs are satisfied first and then progresses to the less preponent ones. As one need become satisfied and hence less important, other needs looms up and becomes motivators of behaviour (Ellen, 1984).

Abraham Maslow presented this prepotency of needs as a hierarchy. The most pressing needs are represented at the bottom of the triangular ladder, with pressing needs reducing as one moves up the ladder as shown below:-

* **Self-Actualisation:** reaching one's maximum potential, doing the best thing.

* **Esteem needs**: respect from others, self-respect, recognition.

* **Belongingness**: affiliation, acceptance, being part of something.

* **Safety needs**: physical safety, psychological security.
* **Physiological needs**: hunger, thirst, shelter, sex.

Once the first level needs are reasonably satisfied, according to Maslow, the next level of needs becomes more preponent. People become concerned with the need for safety and security (Protection from physical harm, disaster, illness, security of income, lifestyle and relationships). Furthermore, as soon as this safety needs have become reasonably satisfied, people become concerned with the next level needs which is belongingness needs (group membership, affiliation, and feeling of acceptance by others). After the belongingness needs have been reasonably attended to, people become motivated by a desire to be held in esteem. When all the above needs have been reasonably satisfied, the individuals are motivated by a desire to self-actualise, that is, to achieve whatever is their maximum potential (Ellen, 1984; Kotze, 2009).

## 2. Theory X and Theory Y

McGregor (1960), proposed two distinct views of human beings. The first, view he called theory X and the second view he called theory Y. In theory X, he made the following assumptions about human behaviour with respect to work.

(i) Employees, inherently dislike work and whenever possible, will attempt to avoid it.

(ii) Since employees dislike work, they must be coerced, controlled, or threatened with punishment to achieve goals.

(iii) employees will avoid responsibilities and seek formal direction whenever possible.

(iv) Most workers place security above all other factors associated with work and will display little ambition.

Similarly, he made the following assumptions in theory Y with respect to human behaviour:

(a) Employees can view work as being as natural as rest or play.

(b) People will exercise self direction and self-control if they are committed to the objectives.

(c) The average person can learn to accept, even seek responsibility.

(d) The ability to make innovative decisions is widely dispersed throughout the population and is not necessarily the sole prerogative of those in management positions.

What are the motivational implications of McGregor's analysis? Like Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs, theory X represents the individual's lower order needs; while theory Y is similar to the higher order needs. McGregor proposed that participative decision making; responsible and challenging jobs and good group relations are approaches that would maximize employees' job motivation (McGregor, 1960, Robins, 2004).

3. **Two-Factor Theory**

The two-factor theory (sometimes also called Motivation-Hygiene Theory) was proposed by Psychologists Hertzberg, Mauser and Snydeman (1959). The basic hypothesis of this theory was that there are two types of motivators. One type results in employees' job satisfaction while the other type prevents dissatisfaction. Herzberg et al (1959) called the factors which result in job satisfaction <u>motivators</u> and those that simply prevent dissatisfaction <u>hygienes</u>.

The motivators are:-

- Achievement
- Recognition
- Work itself
- Responsibility
- Advancement

On the other hand, the hygiene factors are:

- Company policy and administration
- Working conditions
- Supervision
- Interpersonal relations
- Money
- Status
- Security.

Hygiene factors if applied effectively, can at best prevent dissatisfaction, and if applied poorly, can result in negative feelings about the jobs. Motivators are those things that allows for psychological growth and development on the job. They are closely related to the concept of self-actualization, involving a challenge, an opportunity to extend oneself to the fullest, to taste the pleasure of accomplishment, and to be recognized as having done something worthwhile. The point of the psychologists is that if you want to motivate people, you have to be concerned with the job itself and not simply with the surroundings.

### 4. The ERG Theory

Glayton Alderfer (1969), collapsed the five categories of needs in Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs into three universal categories – Existence Relatedness and Growth (ERG). He agreed with Maslow that as lower level needs becomes satisfied, a person seeks to satisfy higher level needs. However, unlike Maslow, Alderifer believed that a person can be motivated by needs at more than one level at the same time. He suggested that when people experience need frustration or are unable to satisfy needs at a certain level they should focus all the more on satisfying the needs at the next lowest level in the hierarchy.

However, for managers, the important message from Alderfer's theory is the same liker that from Abraham Maslow's theory, they are to determine what needs their subordinates are trying to satisfy at work, and make sure that they receive outcomes that will satisfy those needs when they perform at a high level and so help the organization achieve its goals (Gareth, Jennifer and Charles, 2000).

### 5. McClelland's Theory of Needs

McClelland (1961), developed this theory of needs and it focuses on three needs namely, the need for achievement, the need for power and the need for affiliation.

### a. The Need for Achievement

This is the drive to excel, to achieve in relation to a set of standards, and to strive to succeed (Robins and Timothy, 2008). From research into the achievement need, McClelland found that high achievers differentiate themselves from others by their desire to do things better (Atkinson and Raynor, 1974). They seek situations in which they can attain personal

responsibility for finding solutions to problems, in which they can receive rapid feedback on their performances so that they can determine easily whether they are improving or not and in which they can set moderately challenging goals (Stahi, 1986).

High achievers are not gamblers, they dislike succeeding by chance. They prefer the challenge of working at a problem and accepting the responsibility for success or failure rather than leaving the outcome to chance or the actions of others. Again, they avoid what they perceive to be very easy or very difficult tasks. They prefer tasks of moderate difficulty. They perform best when they perceive their probability of success as being 0.5, that is, when they estimate that they have a 50.50 chance of success. Furthermore, they dislike gambling with high odds because they get no achievement satisfaction from chance success. Similarly, they dislike low odds (high probability of success) because there is no challenge to their skills; they prefer setting goals that can challenge them (McClelland, 1961, Robins, 2004).

### b. The Need for Power

The need for power is the desire to have impact, to be influential, and to control others. Individuals high in need for power enjoy being in charge, strive for influence over others, prefer to be placed into competitive and status oriented situation, and tend to be more concerned with prestige and gaining influence over others than with effective performance (McClelland, 1961; robins, 2004).

### c. The Need for Affiliation

Individuals with a high affiliation motive strive for friendship, prefer cooperative situations rather than competitive ones, and desire relationships that involve a high degree of mutual understanding (McClelland, 1961; Robins, 2004).

By application, individuals with a high need to achieve prefer job situations with personal responsibility, feedback and an intermediate degree of risk. When these characteristics are present, high achievers will be strongly motivated. Consistent evidence shows that high achievers are successful in entrepreneurial and intrapreneural activities (McClelland, and Winter, 1969). In studying the motivational profiles of North American Managers, McClelland found that many of those who reached the top of the organizations and are rated as highly effective in their positions, demonstrates a concern for influencing people (the need for power). Power

motivation refers not to autocratic, tyrannical behavior but to a need to have some impact, to be influential and effective in achieving organizational goals.

Furthermore, the need for affiliation is similar to Maslow's need to belong. It can be a dominant motivation force affecting behavior and may manifest itself in many ways. High need for affiliation people value relationships over accomplishments and friendship over power (Kotze, 2009).

**Cognitive Evaluation Theory**
This theory proposed that the introduction of extrinsic rewards, such as pay, for work effort that had been previously intrinsically rewarding due to the pleasure associated with the content of the work itself would tend to decrease the overall level of motivation (Decharms, 1968). This theory as it were, has limited application to work organizations because most low-level jobs are not inherently satisfying enough to foster high intrinsic interest and many managerial and professional positions offers intrinsic rewards. Therefore, cognitive evaluation theory may be relevant to those set of organizational jobs that falls in between those that are neither extremely dull nor extremely interesting (Robins, 2004).

6.  **Goal-Setting Theory**

Goal-setting theory presupposes that individuals are committed to goals, that is, are determined not to lower or abandon goals. This is most likely to occur when goals are made public, when the individuals have internal locus of control, and when the goals are self-set rather than assigned (Hollenbeck, Williams and Klein, 1989).

In addition, four other factors have been found to influence goals-performance relationship. They are goal commitment, adequate self-efficacy, task characteristics, and national culture (Robins and Timothy, 2008). Self-efficacy refers to an individual's belief that he/she is capable of performing a task (Bandura, 1997). The higher one's self-efficacy the more confidence he has in his ability to succeed in a task.

Research results shows that individual goal setting does not work equally well on all task. Goals seems to have a more substantial effect on performance when tasks are simple rather than complex, well-learned rather than novel, and independent rather than interdependent (Wood, Mento and Locke, 1987). On interdependent tasks, group goals are preferable. Goal setting theory is culture bound. Goals are potent motivating force, and under proper conditions, they can lead to higher performance, although there is no

evidence that goals are associated with increased job satisfaction (Anderson, and O'Relly, 1981).

### 7. **Operant conditioning Theory**

Operant conditioning theory developed by Skinner (1969), a psychologist, proposed that people learn to perform behaviours that lead to desired consequences and learn not to perform behaviours that lead to undesired consequences. This means that people will be motivated to perform at a high level and attain their work goals to the extent that high performance and goal attainment allow them to obtain outcomes they desires. On the other hand, people will avoid performing behaviours that lead to outcomes they do not desire.

Operant conditioning theory provides four tools that managers can use to motivate high performance and prevent workers from engaging in behaviours that detract from organizational effectiveness. These tools are positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement, punishment and extinction (Weiss, 1990).

  a. **Positive Reinforcement:** This gives people outcomes they desire when they perform organizationally functional behaviours. These positive reinforcers include any outcomes that a person desires, such as pay, praise or promotion. On the other hand, desired organizational behaviour includes producing high quality products, providing high quality customer services, and meeting deadlines. By linking positive reinforcers to the performance of functional behaviours, managers motivate workers to perform the desire behaviours (Skinner, 1969).

  b. **Negative Reinforcement**: This can be used to encourage workers to perform desired behaviours. Managers using negative reinforcement remove undesired outcomes once the functional behaviour is performed. When negative reinforcement is used, workers are motivated to perform behaviours because they want to stop receiving undesired outcomes (Weiss, 1990).

  c. **Extinction***:- This is the process by which managers curtails the performance of a dysfunctional behaviour of eliminating whatever is reinforcing the behaviour (Weiss, Op cit, 1990).

    **d.  Punishment -** When employees are performing dangerous behaviours or behaviours that are illegal or unethical, such behaviours need to be eliminated and this could be done by punishment.  Employees' punishment may range from verbal reprimands to pay cuts, temporary suspension, demotions etc.

### 8.  Social Learning Theory

The social learning theory proposed by Bandura (1977), suggests that motivation results not only from direct experience of rewards and punishments, but also from a person's thoughts and believes.  Social learning theory extends operant conditioning's contribution to managers' understanding of motivation by explaining thus;-

    (1)  How people can be motivated by observing other people perform behaviour and be reinforced by doing so (vicarious learning).

    (2)  How people can be motivated to control their behaviour themselves (self reinforcement).

    (3)  How people's beliefs about their ability to successfully perform a behavior affect motivation (self-efficacy) (Davis and Luthans, 1980).

### 9. Equity Theory

Equity theory was done by Adams (1963), in it, he proposed that what is important in determining motivation is the relative rather than the absolute level of outcomes a person receives and the inputs a person contributes. Motivation is influenced by the comparison of one's own outcome/input ratio with the outcome/input ratio of a referent.  The referent could be another person or a group of people who are perceived to be similar to oneself.  Also, the referent could be oneself in a previous job or one's expectations about what outcome/input ratio should be.  In summary, equity theory is a theory of motivation that concentrates on people's perception of the fairness of their work outcomes relative to, or in proportion to their work inputs (Gareth et al, 2000).

### 10.  Expectancy Theory

Expectancy theory was formulated by Vroom (1964), in it, he posits that motivation will be high when workers believe that high levels of effort will

lead to high performance and high performance will lead to the attainment of desired outcomes. This theory is one of the most popular theories of work motivation because it focuses on all the three parts of the motivation equation – inputs, performance and outcomes. The theory identifies three major factors that determines a person's motivation namely, expectancy, instrumentality and valence (Feather, 1962).

a. **Expectancy**:- This is a person's perception about the extent to which effort (input) will result in a certain level of performance. A person's level of expectancy determines whether he believes that a high level of effort will result in a high level of performance (Vroom, 1964).

b. **Instrumentality**:- This is a person's perception about the extent to which performance at a certain level will result in the attainment of outcomes. Employees will be motivated to perform at a high level only if they think that high performance will lead to (or is instrumental) for attaining outcomes such as pay rise, job security among others.

c. **Valence**:- This refers to how desirable each of the outcomes available from a job is to a person. To motivate employees, managers need to determine which outcomes have high valence (highly desired) and make sure they are provided when employees perform at a high level (Vroom, 1964).

### 11. Self Determination Theory

Self determination theory was developed by Deci and Ryan (1985). The theory focuses on the importance of intrinsic motivation in driving human behaviour. Like Maslow's hierarchical theory and others that built on it, self determination theory posits a natural tendency toward growth and development. Unlike other theories of motivation, self determination theory does not include any sort of autopilot for achievement, but instead, requires active encouragement from the environment. The primary factors that encourage motivation and development are autonomy, competence, feedback and relatedness (Deci and Ryan, 1985).

### Motivating the Diverse Workforce

In this section, we shall examine some of the unique problems managers face in trying to motivate professional employees, contingent workers, low-skilled service workers, and workers performing highly repetitive tasks.

**Motivating Professional Employees**

Professionals are typically different from non-professionals. They have a strong and long-term commitment to their field of expertise. Their loyalty is more often to other professionals than to their employers (Munk, 1998). To keep current in their profession, they need to update their knowledge regularly, and their commitment to their profession means that they rarely define their work in terms of time or period.

The question is, how do you motivate professionals? Money and promotion are typically low in their priority list because they tend to be well paid and they enjoy what they do. In contrast, they rank job challenge to be very high on their list. They like to tackle problems and find solutions to the problems. Their chief reward in their job is the work itself (intrinsic reward). Professionals also value support. They want others to believe that what they are working on is very important (Munk, 1998, Robins, 2004).

From the foregoing, it is suggested that to motivate professionals, managers should provide them with ongoing challenging projects. Give them autonomy to follow their interest and allow them to structure their work in ways they find productive. Reward them with educational opportunities such as training, workshops, attending conferences that allow them to keep current in their professions. Also reward them with recognition, ask them questions and engage them in other actions that demonstrate to them that you are sincerely interested in what they are doing (Robins and Timothy, 2008).

**Motivating Contingent Workers**

Contingent workers include part-timers, on-call workers, short-term hires, temporary day labourers, independent contractors and leased workers (Penzias, 1995). The common denominator among contingent employees is that they do not have the security or stability that permanent employees have. As a result they do not identify with the organization or display the commitment that permanent employees do. Contingent workers are provided with little or no health-care pensions or similar benefits.

What then will motivate contingent workers? An obvious solution is affording them the opportunity of attaining permanent status. In cases in which permanent workers are selected from the pool of temporary workers, contingent workers will often work hard in high hopes of becoming permanent employees. A less obvious approach is the opportunity for training. The ability of a contingent worker to find a new job is largely dependent on his skills. If he sees that the job he is doing for the manager

can help develop saleable skills, then his motivation is increased (Fillipczak, 1997, Robins and Timothy, 2008).

**Motivating Low-skilled Service Workers**
The basic question here is that, how do you motivate employees who are earning very low wages and have little opportunity to significantly increase their play on their current jobs or even get promoted? Employees in this category are people who have limited education and skills. A traditional approach to motivate these categories of employees is to provide them with more flexible work schedules and to fill such job vacancies with teenagers and retirees who have less financial needs (Robbins, 2004). Furthermore, low-skilled jobs should be made more appealing by making the salaries more attractive and giving due recognition to such employees, (Hage and Impoco, 1993).

**Motivating Employees Performing highly Repetitive Tasks**
Motivating employees performing standardized and repetitive jobs can be made easier through careful selection. Many employees prefer jobs that have minimum amount of discretion and variety. Such workers are obviously a better match to standardized and repetitive jobs than those with strong need for growth and autonomy. Employees performing repetitive jobs should be well paid (extrinsic motivation) and this will make filling vacancies relatively easy. Furthermore, managers should create a pleasant work environment by providing clean and attractive work surroundings, ample work breaks, the opportunity to socialize with colleagues during breaks, and empathetic supervisors (Robins, 2004).

**Conclusion**
The subject of motivation is an interesting one because it unveils the nitty-gritty of what will make managers succeed in their jobs as they are able to carry their workers along. Although many managers are aware of the importance of motivating their employees, many of them do not take necessary steps towards motivating their workforce for whatever reason. The near absence of proper employees' motivation is largely responsible for the industrial unrest and low performance in many organizations particularly there in developing nations. Therefore, we are of the opinion that organizational managers will do better if they are prepared to carry their workers along by motivating them to put in their best toward achieving organizational goals.

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