

Structure

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15.0 OBJECTIVES

After going through this Unit, you should be able to:

- appreciate the concepts related to employee motivation and job satisfaction,
- understand the techniques that can be used for motivating employees, and
- comprehend alternative methods by which jobs can be made more interesting.

15.1 INTRODUCTION

Employee motivation and job enrichment are described as two management techniques used to improve human behaviour and attitude towards work. This is done with a view to **utilise** available human resources more **efficiently** and thus make human management more effective. Just as the employee has certain wants that the organisation is expected to **satisfy**, the organisation too expects certain types of behaviour usually **termed** as "Direction" or "Motivation". Obviously this managerial function is not so easy as it involves many problems. These problems and their possible solutions are the concerns in this Unit.

Job enrichment is also a motivational problem created by the alienation of employees from their work, or by lack of interest in their work. Here the problem is how to make the work more interesting, purposeful and acceptable to employees so that they may perform it more enthusiastically and 'with a greater sense of responsibility. Like motivation this is also a problem of human behaviour and work attitude. In fact both employee motivation and job enrichment are the problems which every supervisor and manager has to face while managing and making their subordinates work.

15.2 WHAT IS MOTIVATION?

Literally motivation means incitement or inducement to act or move. In an industrial setting it means to make a subordinate act in a desired manner so as to achieve certain aims. Obviously "desired" implies as desired in the interests of the organisation or employer. It implies not only that the subordinate should act in a disciplined manner, but also that he or she should act in an efficient and productive manner. To motivate, therefore, is to induce, persuade, stimulate, even compel (as when fear becomes the motivator) an employee to act consciously or subconsciously in a manner which may

help in attaining an organisational objective. This may be a limited view. **Motivation really comprises all the internal urges which are described as desires, wishes, drives, etc. which make a person strive for doing a thing.** Motivation is what makes people do things. In the US it is commonly described as "making John run". Webster defines the term "Motivate" as meaning to provide with a motivation to impel or incite one to action. It may be a need, idea, emotion or inorganic state that may prompt one to action or work. It is not a matter of manipulation but it is an act of making employees work better and effectively by understanding their **desires/needs**.

Motivation and Incentives

Motivation is usually not the same as incentive. Regarding incentives we generally expect greater output with the same inputs, while motivation usually involves some more inputs considered necessary for changing the work attitude **and** behaviour of the employee. Motives or motivation is considered **as** the expression of a person's inner needs, **as** they are personal but incentives are external in nature and are provided by someone to the person **concerned**. Again, **financial** incentives may not motivate all, particularly those employees whose physical needs are already satisfied. Persons with higher earnings may remain dissatisfied and frustrated because their employment and working conditions may not be conducive to make a person work wholeheartedly and give his or her best. To motivate means really to produce a goal-oriented behaviour, which may not be made possible by mere provision of incentives with the object of higher earnings and higher output.

Need and Importance

Need and importance of motivation are too obvious to have a detailed discussion. Survival and growth of an undertaking depends considerably on the performance of its employees and the performance of an employee depends on two factors, that is **(i) his or her ability to work and (ii) his or her will to work**. The **first** is determined by the quality of education, training and experience that he or she has acquired. Even if there is any deficiency in the same, it can be made good by arranging further training, retraining and developing facilities for the employee. The **second factor i.e. willingness** to work, is more difficult to manage as it involves bringing change in the behaviour and attitude of a person towards work, or motivating him or her to work in a desired manner and give an overall better performance. Motivated workforce is essential for efficient working and optimum motivation in personnel management can hardly be better seen than from the fact that after planning and organising, motivation is the third important function of a personnel manager. In order to make any managerial decision really meaningful, it is necessary to convert it into an effective action which the manager can accomplish by motivating his or her subordinates. Almost every human problem the manager faces throughout the organisation has motivational elements. The manager, therefore, should incorporate the principles and concept of motivation into his or her own philosophy of management. By understanding and applying them, he or she can influence others in attaining a better or positive motivation.

15.3 SOME COMMON ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT MOTIVATION

Both, the academics and **the** practising manager have been trying to understand the motivational factors since long. The theories that have been put forward regarding motivation are still tentative and cannot give any definite conclusion. Some common assumptions about motivation are:

- i) It is commonly stated that, it is the subordinates or rank and file among the workers or non-supervisory staff in an organisation who need to be motivated and not the supervisory and managerial staff. The fact is that the latter need to be motivated first and it is then that they will be able to motivate their subordinates and other workers at the shop floor or front office level. How can a demotivated manager or supervisor motivate persons working under him or her?

- ii) Motivation and higher productivity go together. This may be true by and large, but individual motivation at the workplace or group motivation, as in the case of trade unions, may not have such a correlation with productivity.
- iii) All motivational techniques are designed and applied by the personnel managers and other line executives, who directly control and take work **from** those under them. In fact, the latter are more concerned as it is their primary function to see the persons under them work most efficiently. As they are in closer touch with their workers they can understand their problems better and also know their needs. If necessary they can take the advice of the personnel expert or industrial psychologist or any consultant.
- iv) Standard theories of motivation developed by psychologists may also apply to industrial situations. Most of these concepts and theories have been developed by the study of **human** material other than the industrial personnel, and so their application to the latter may not provide dependable results.

15.4 TYPES OF MOTIVATION

In the industrial or service set-up motivation may be intrinsic as well as extrinsic. **Intrinsic motivation** is related to the job one is doing. When a skilled operative performs a job well, he or she derives a sense of satisfaction. This is intrinsic motivation which satisfies the creative instinct in a person and gives an inner satisfaction due to some sort-of achievement.

Extrinsic motivation is external to the job or task. For example, financial incentives for doing a job well or giving higher wages may motivate the workers. Other external motivators are praise from the superior for good work, recognition of good by the company in the form of public citation and award, admiration of fellow workers, and improved working conditions, more power and authority and other facilities.

Determinants of Motivation

The traditional approach that humans could be made to work by monetary rewards has been gradually giving place to a more complete pluralistic explanation which **recognises** that humans work to fulfil a variety of needs. It is recognised that motivation is the result of the **following three** groups of factors:

- i) **Individuals:** To know what can motivate employees we **must** know their aims, objectives and values. Human needs are both numerous and complex, and often it is **difficult** to identify and categorise them. Motivation is not an easily observed phenomenon. We have first to observe individual action and behaviour at work and interpret the same in **terms** of some underlying motivation. Our interpretation may not necessarily reveal **the** individual's true motivation, as some of the human needs may be difficult to describe and identify.
- ii) **Organisational Components:** Organisation structure, technological system, **physical** facilities etc. which constitute internal environment of an organisation affect employee motivation. Some machines are more interesting to work with than others; or certain kinds of work may be boring to many persons.
- iii) **External or Exogenous Variables:** A worker's life outside the organisation **i.e.** employee's social life is also an important factor affecting the employee's motivation or willingness to work in the organisation. Troubles and joys of off-job life cannot be totally put aside when reporting for work, nor can, the **organisational** matters be completely dropped after returning home. A strong motivational role is also played by culture, customs and norms, images and attributes **conferred** by society on particular jobs. An individual for example may find that his or her work commands a substantial degree of respect and social acceptance quite apart from holding a position in a

particular organisation, and so he or she may be more willing or motivated to perform such a work. Yet there are certain indications through which you may decide who can be considered a motivated worker, like:

- a) One who wants to come to work and works willingly.
- b) When at work one gives ones best.
- c) One has a definite sense of belonging and pride in the organisation and in the improvement of management effectiveness.

Similarly, some common indications of demotivation are:

- a) Increasing absenteeism among employees and excessive labour turnover.
- b) Low output and productivity.
- c) An increasing rate of accidents and wastage of raw material.
- d) **Rank** indiscipline.
- e) Frustration and unrest in the workforce.
- f) Defiant and violent behaviour of employees at or outside the workplace, and frequent confrontation or argument with supervisors and managers.
- g) Non-cooperation and strikes, **etc.**

Frustration, which is the most common manifestation of demotivation may be caused by erosion of real wages due to rising prices and unsatisfactory personnel administration. But whenever it develops, an employee will either seek a better job elsewhere if he or she can or will develop a sense of apathy towards the organisation and work so that he or she would do as little as possible. Other demotivation consequences of frustration may be as illustrated in **Figure I**.

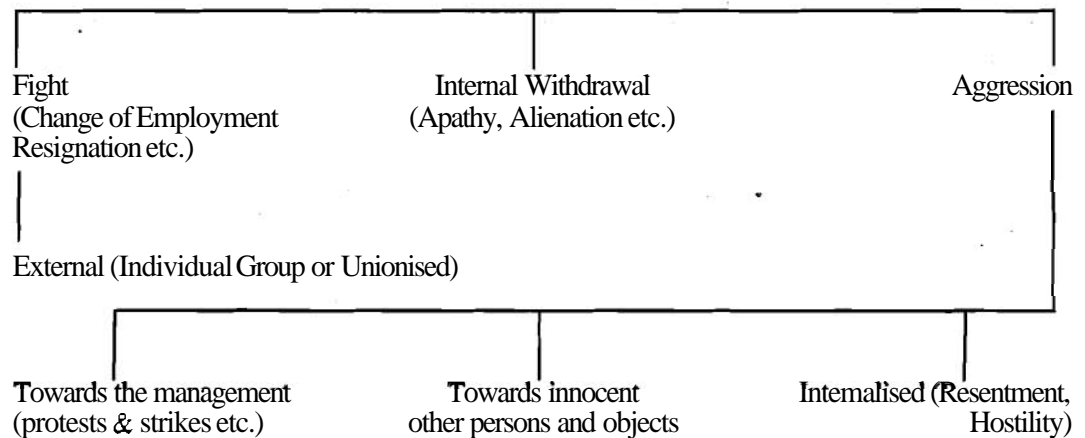


Figure I: Frustration at the Work Place

15.5 THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

Although no area of personnel management has been more debated than motivation, the latter has been and still is an important area, where **considerable** research is being conducted by psychologists, behavioural scientists and management scholars. Based on this research many theories of motivation have been formulated. Some of the important theories which try to provide explanations of the behaviour outcome are as below:

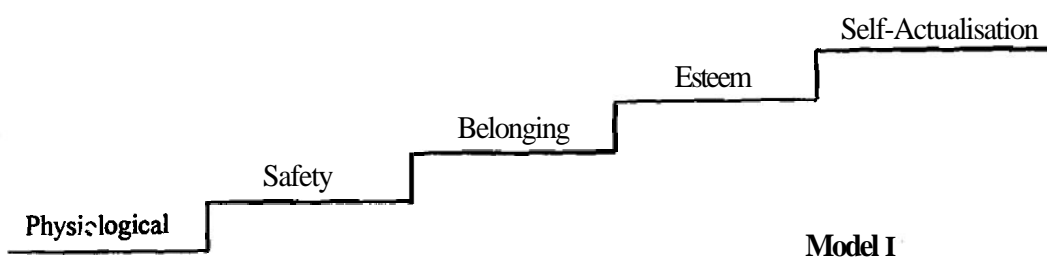
- i) **B.F. Skinner's Theory of Operant Conditioning or Behaviour Modification Theory:** According to this theory people behave the way they do because in past circumstances they learned that certain behaviour was associated with pleasant

outcomes, while certain other behaviour was associated with unpleasant outcomes. In other words behaviour of a person **depends upon its consequences**. In simple language this is a theory of learning, **i.e.** how to make a human being learn what is positive or desirable behaviour? This feeling can be induced by introducing some favour at the end of some positive behaviour, thus strengthening the urge to repeat the behaviour. **Skinner** did not make any research in the field of industries, but he conducted his researches to study learning process among rats, and also experimented with school children and found that stimulus for desirable behaviour could be strengthened by rewarding it at the earliest. In the industrial situation, the relevance of this theory may be found in the installation of some type of incentives. More immediate is the reward, and the stimulation or the motivation it creates. Withdrawal of reward in case of substandard work may also produce the desired **result**. However, researches show that it is generally more effective to reward desired behaviour than to punish undesired behaviour.

ii) **McClelland's Need for Achievement Theory:** This theory has particular reference to industrial enterprises, as the achievement motive naturally has much to do with the success and failure of an enterprise. In the US maximum **research has** been conducted on the achievement motive. According to **McClelland** the three human needs are **need for affiliation, need for power and need for achievement**. His theory postulates that some people are much more achievement minded than others and they attain job satisfaction, and derive a special kind of joy in attaining an objective successfully or accomplish a challenging job or completing a job of great responsibility rather than receiving a monetary or other reward. According to him need for achievement or self-actualisation is the strongest and lasting motivating factor, particularly in case of persons whose power needs are satisfied. **McClelland** stated that the motivational pattern and factors are influenced by **the** family, friends, culture, social attitudes and other similar factors. And achievement motivated people are usually not as much money hungry as they are for achievement and accomplishment. This type of motivation may be seen more among people with higher technical skill and professional knowledge, than in labour intensive traditional organisations.

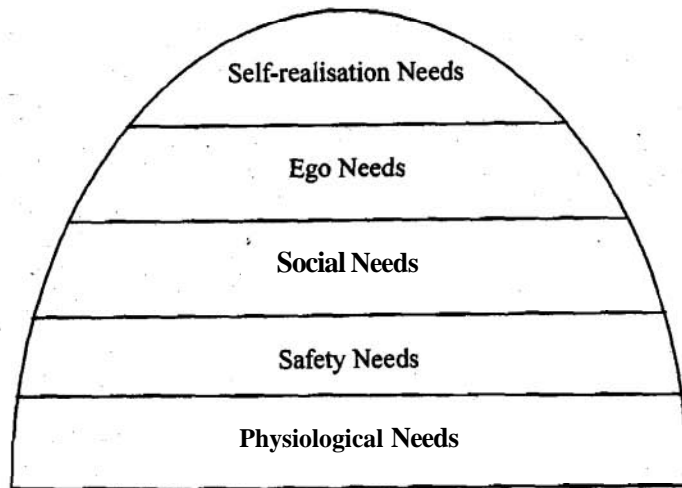
iii) **Abraham H. Maslow's Need Hierarchy or Deficient Theory of Motivation:** You have already read in Unit 5 about **Maslow's** theory. The **crux** of **Maslow's** theory is that human needs are arranged in a hierarchy composed of five categories., The lowest level needs are physiological and the highest levels are the self-actualisation needs. **Maslow** starts with the formulation that man is a wanting animal with a hierarchy of needs, of which some are lower in scale and some are in a higher scale or system of values. As the lower needs are satisfied, higher needs emerge. Higher needs cannot be satisfied unless lower needs are fulfilled. A satisfied need is no longer a motivator. The hierarchy of needs at work in the individuals is today a routine tool of the personnel **trade**, and **when these** needs are active they act as **powerful** conditioners of behaviour – as motivators.

Hierarchy of Needs: The main needs of a person are five **i.e.** physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, ego needs and self-realisation or **self-actualisation** needs, as shown in order of their importance and working in the following two Models.



The above five basic needs are regarded as striving needs which make a person do things. The first model indicates the **ranking** of the different needs. The second is

more helpful in indicating how the satisfaction of the higher needs is based on the satisfaction of the lower needs. It also shows how the number of persons who have experienced the fulfilment of higher needs gradually tapers off.



Model II

- 1) **Physiological or Body Needs:** The individual moves up the ladder responding first to the physiological needs for nourishment, clothing and shelter. These physical needs must be equated with pay rate, pay practices and to an extent with the physical conditions of the job.
- 2) **Safety/Security:** The next in order of needs is **safety/security** need, the need to be free from danger, either from other people or from environment. The individual wants to be assured, once his or her bodily needs are satisfied, that they are secure and will continue to be satisfied for the foreseeable future. The safety needs may **take** the form of job security, security against disease, misfortune, old age, etc. as also against industrial injury. Such needs are generally met by safety laws, measures of social security, protective **labour** laws and collective agreements.
- 3) **Social Needs:** Going up the scale of needs, the individual **feels** the desire to work in a cohesive group and develop a sense of belonging and identification with a group. He or she feels the need to love and be loved and the need to belong and be identified with a group both within the organisation and in the society. In a large organisation it is not easy to build up social **relations**. However, close relations can be built up with at least some fellow workers. Every employee wants to feel that he or she is wanted or accepted by the society where he or she belong or want to belong.
- 4) **Ego or Esteem Needs:** These needs **are** reflected in our desire for status and recognition, respect and prestige in the workgroup or workplace, such as is conferred by the recognition of one's merit by promotion, by participation in management and by the fulfilment of a worker's urge for self-expression. Some of the needs relate to one's self-esteem, **e.g.** need for achievement, self-confidence, knowledge, competence, etc. On the job, this means praise for a job well done. But more important, it means a feeling by the employee that at all times he or she has the respect of his or her supervisor as a person and as a contributor to the organisation's goal.
- 5) **Self-realisation or Self-actualisation Needs:** This upper level need is one which when satisfied makes the employee give up dependence **on** others on the environment. The person becomes growth-oriented, self-directed, detached and creative. This need reflects a state defined in terms of the extent to which an individual attains his or her personal goal. This is the need, which totally lies within oneself and there is no demand from any external situation or person.

To quote Maslow, **“A musician must create music; an artist must paint, a poet must write, if he is to be ultimately happy. What a man can be, he must be. This need we may call self-actualisation”**. The person has "the desire to be more and more what one is, to become everything what one is capable of becoming". In practical terms, in an organisation one seldom achieves self-realisation. However, the creativity of a person in producing new and practical ideas, in bringing about productivity, innovation and reducing costs might satisfy some of these needs.

By and large Maslow's analysis is significant, and he may also be correct in saying that saturated basic needs act as disincentives, but his reasoning is not free from flaws. For the majority of industrial workers or executives even basic needs are never satisfied fully. These needs are recurrent and some of them are fairly constant. They may vary, say from a small flat to a bigger flat, or from a small car to a bigger car, but all the same they are there. Moreover, as observed earlier, the industrial scene is hardly conducive to satisfying higher needs, particularly the one of self-actualisation. A highly dedicated and committed executive may have a highly developed sense of responsibility, but may not have the need for self-actualisation.

- iv) **Herzberg's Two Factor or Hygiene or Maintenance Theory of Motivation:** According to Herzberg, one has two different categories of needs which are essentially independent of each other and affect ones behaviour in **different** ways. When people are dissatisfied about their jobs, they are concerned about the environment **i.e.** the job conditions in which they are working. On the other hand, when people feel good about their job, this has to do with the work itself. Herzberg calls the first category of needs **hygiene/maintenance** factors because they describe one's environment and serve the primary purpose of maintaining a reasonable level of job satisfaction. He calls the second category of needs as **motivators** since they seem to be effective in motivating people to superior performance. Hygiene factors include company policies, administration, supervision, working conditions, interpersonal relations, wages and allowances, status and security. **Motivators** or job content factors include achievement, recognition, increased responsibility, challenging work, growth and development. According to Herzberg both the sets of factors work in one direction only. Absence of hygiene factors may dissatisfy the workers but will not demotivate them. Similarly, in the presence of motivators, workers may be motivated, but their absence does not make them dissatisfied.

Herzberg's theory and observations are based on the information collected by him and his colleagues by interviewing 200 engineers and accountants in the late **fifties** at Pittsburg in order to assess what motivated them in their work. Obviously this was a group of employees whose lower needs, **i.e.** physiological, safety and even social needs by and large were satisfied and so they could be motivated by the remaining two higher needs, **i.e.** esteem and self-actualisation. **Herzberg's** theory may, therefore, be relevant for better-paid executives. Moreover, it has to be understood that some maintenance factors for one person can be motivational factors for another and vice versa. Hardly any organisation can offer unbounded opportunities for personal growth to its executives. So a middle way has to be found.

-) **Alderfer's ERG Theory of Motivation:** Taking Maslow's theory as the starting point, Clayton Alderfer has built up a theory which he claims has realistic application to a work organisation. According to him, Maslow's five levels of needs can be amalgamated into three, **i.e.** "**existence relatedness and growth**" resulting in his approach being termed **ERG** Theory. His **Existence Needs** include all forms of physiological and safety needs or Maslow's first two level needs. **Related Needs** include relationship with other people (Social Needs of Maslow's third level) and that part of Maslow's fourth level (**Esteem Needs**) which are derived from other people. **Growth Needs**, like Maslow's notion of self-actualisation, are concerned

with the desire to be creative and to achieve full potential in the existing environment.

Alderfer's theory conceives of ERG needs along a continuum thus avoiding the implication that the higher up an individual is in the hierarchy the better it is. According to him different types of needs can operate simultaneously, and if a particular path towards the satisfaction is blocked, the individual will both persist along that path and at the same time regress towards more easily satisfied needs. In this way, he distinguishes between chronic needs which persist over a period and the episode needs which are situational and can change according to the environment.

- vi) **V.H. Varoom's Expectancy Theory:** According to **Varoom**, an individual's level of performance is determined by one's preference for particular goals. He calls level of performance as the first level outcome and preference for a goal as second level outcome. An individual's **preference** for a particular goal which **Varoom** calls **Valence** can be positive or negative, or zero, depending on whether the individual prefers to attain the goal, or not, or it can be zero, if he is indifferent towards the outcome.

The degree to which the individual **believes** that his first level outcome (performance) leads to the second level outcome (preferred goal) is a subjective probability estimate which **Varoom** calls **Instrumentality**. The combination of Valence of the Goal and the Instrumentality determines the importance of level of performance. Another major variable in the **Varoom's motivational** scheme is **Expectancy** which like **Instrumentality** is also a probability estimate, in other words an individual will relate whether an effort in a particular job will give the desired performance. The former relates efforts to the level of performance. And the latter relates performance to **the** preferred goal **i.e.** relate a particular level of performance to some reward. Expectancy will depend on the requisite skill and abilities of the individual, as also on his perception of the most appropriate way of obtaining his objectives.

Thus, what the individual does will depend on a three step thought process (i) How important are the various second level outcomes (preferred goal)? (ii) Will the first level outcome (level of performance) lead to second level outcome or preferred goal (instrumentality)? (iii) Will existing effort in fact achieve high performance (Expectancy)? Although Varoom's theory does not directly contribute to the techniques of motivating personnel in an organisation, it is of value in analysing **organisational** behaviour. It also points out that people can differ greatly in how they size up their chances for success in different jobs. Therefore, to motivate people, it is just not enough to offer them some rewards. They must also feel reasonably convinced that they have the ability to obtain the reward.

As far as the hospitality sector is concerned this is still open for further research.

15.6 MOTIVATION OF EMPLOYEES IN ACTUAL PRACTICE

These two expressions are not synonymous or interchangeable as may be clear from the definition and nature of motivation explained earlier in this Unit. But the fact remains that a motivated group of workers generally has a high degree of morale. Morale is a **composite** attitude of various individuals employed by a company. It is generated by the **group and** may be considered as a by-product of the group. It is not an average of individual attitudes. **M.S. Viteles** defines morale as "**an attitude of satisfaction, with a desire to continue in, and willingness to strive for, the goals of a particular group or organisation**". **Milton Blum** describes morale as "**the possession of feeling of being accepted by and the belonging to a group of employees through adherence to a common goal and confidence in the desirability of these goals**". Put simply, morale is

a group concept, while motivation is largely an individual concept. Morale is the summation of feeling of employees as a group towards various aspects of their work job, the company, working conditions, fellow workers, supervisors and so on. If the attitude of employees towards all these aspects is more positive than negative, the morale of the group can be said to be high, **otherwise** it is low. Some of the important components and determinants of morale are (a) **a feeling of togetherness**, (b) need for **a clear goal or objective to be achieved**, (c) **expectation of success** towards the attainment of the goal, (d) feeling of each member within the group that **each individual has a meaningful task to perform** for achieving the goal and whatever may be the job assigned to the individual it matters and (e) **supportive and stimulative leadership**. All these determinants of morale are equivalent to that of job satisfaction which is a precursor of morale. However, the two differ as the term job satisfaction is used for an individual and morale for groups.

An enlightened management should be conscious of the **need** for assessing the morale of its employees by opinion poll or attitude survey from time to time. Low morale can be caused by factors beyond the control of the organisation. However, employee morale can be boosted up by (a) better methods of working in which employees or their representatives may have a bigger say, (b) utilisation of incentive schemes with the widest possible coverage, and (c) consultative and **participative** style of management.

What Demotivates or Demoralises the Employees? Well, there are some management practices which affect the morale and motivation or willingness of employees to give their best or work in the desired manner. Some of these practices are:

- a) **Under assignment:** If a skilled person is assigned an unskilled or routine job, it may cause frustration or job dissatisfaction and thus demotivation.
- b) **Over assignment:** If a good worker is overloaded to the point where he or she feels being exploited, this may make him or her lose interest in work. In big organisations, it is rather a common practice to pick up good workers as others cannot be trusted or **depended** upon.
- c) **Buckmastership:** Superiors or leaders avoiding hard work themselves and passing on the same to their subordinates, and then finding fault with them is a common management practice which may erode employee motivation.
- d) **Coercive** types of control or supervision which may give the employee a feeling that he or she is not being trusted may also **demotivate** or erode his or her interest in the work. Some control no doubt is essential but if it is too coercive resulting in frequent warnings or punishments, or withdrawal of facilities to chasten the employee, morale and motivation of the employee may go down.
- e) **Manipulative** behaviour of the management which may take the form of divide and rule policy or tactics, making promises which are not fulfilled, encouraging **groupism** and so on may also have a **demotivating** effect. When employees perceive such behaviour, they naturally cease to work and lose interest in the same.

15.7 JOB ENRICHMENT – MEANING, NATURE AND OBJECTIVES

Job enrichment is a term used often for the process of achieving and improving the "quality of work life". **Herzberg** describes job enrichment as **that type of improvement in the context of the job which may give a worker more of a challenge, more of a complete task, more responsibility, more opportunity for growth, and more chance to contribute his or her ideas**. The need for such an improvement in the job content is being stressed by the social and behavioural scientists. This is because excessive job specialisation introduced by scientific management and advancing modern technology has been dehumanising **the work** by making the workers job meaningless, routine

repetitive, removing all challenges from it and making the worker a part of the machine **culture**. As human capabilities are not being fully utilised under such conditions, it is creating frustration among the workers and alienating them from their jobs. The increasing alienation of workers from their jobs is creating a serious human relations problem. Some organisations have been trying to solve the problem of excessive job specialisation by periodic job rotation to provide variety, but this has not proved adequate to reduce work boredom and monotony.

In recent years, considerable research has been undertaken with respect to more unusual and seemingly risky **changes** in job content. Among these are job enlargement, job enrichment and semi-autonomous groups.

Job Enrichment and Job Enlargement: Both these changes involve redesigning of the job and have the objective of humanising work by introducing more variety in work, increasing responsibilities, and making work more interesting, challenging and motivating. **Job enlargement** implies **additions of more functions and increasing the variety of tasks and duties to reduce monotony**. But the additional responsibilities involved are of a horizontal nature, **Job enrichment** implies **an improvement in the quality and variety of work**, and the additional responsibilities are of a critical nature encompassing self-growth by introducing motivators. Again the **job enlargement** merely makes a job structurally bigger, while **job enrichment** provides the opportunity for the employees' psychological growth. The job enrichment approach to job designing is, therefore, more **often** recommended by the behaviourists.

15.8 HOW TO ENRICH JOBS?

Usually job enrichment is undertaken at the management initiative, often with the assistance of behavioural scientists as consultants for analysing the content of the job and designing a new job-structure. The management's initiative is aroused by its perception of workers' apathy and indifferent performance, high rate of absenteeism, and other symptoms which indicate that workers do not like the jobs they are doing.

There is no one way of enriching a job. The technology and the circumstances dictate which techniques or combination of techniques could be appropriate. According to **Tripathi**, some of the important **techniques** followed are:

- i) Rotation of tasks, broadening of qualifications of skills and responsibilities, enhancement of the intrinsic interest of the job and removing or lessening supervision.
- ii) **Increasing** responsibilities of individuals for their own work.
- iii) Giving **employees** more scope to vary the methods, sequence and pace of their work.
- iv) Giving a person or a work group a complete natural unit of work **i.e.** reducing task specialisation.
- v) Removing some controls from above while ensuring the individual or groups are clearly accountable for achieving targets or standards.
- vi) Allowing more say or influence in setting targets **and the** standard of performance.
- vii) Giving employees the control information that they need to monitor their own performance.
- viii) Encouraging the **participation** of employees in planning work, innovating new techniques and reviewing results.
- ix) **Introducing** new and more **difficult** tasks not previously handled.

- x) Assigning individuals or groups specific projects which give them more responsibility and help them to increase their expertise.
- xi) Making crisis decision in problem situations rather than relying on the boss.

As observed by Edwin B. Flippo the most critical core dimension of job enrichment is that of job autonomy. It is certainly the critical difference between job enrichment and job enlargement. The autonomy is created through a process of "vertical loading" that is, the worker is given self-management rights in multiple areas. In various programmes such additional responsibilities include setting one's own work schedule and work break, in establishing work methods, making one's own quality checks, varying the work break, in establishing work methods, changing duties with others, setting priorities as to work performed, making crisis decision in problem situations rather than relying on the boss and training less experienced workers.

A recent survey of 58 companies with job enrichment programmes has revealed that two-thirds felt that product quality had improved and half said that employee turn-over was down to an average of 18%. Over one-third reported decrease in absenteeism by 16%, and one-third indicated that employee satisfaction had improved with grievances dropping by 16%.

Despite the well-developed theories and many reports of programme success, one can say that job enrichment is not a panacea. When a large insurance company attempted to introduce job enrichment, 82% of the affected employees reported liking the jobs, but almost as many as 68% stated that the employees' morale was lower because they were not being paid in proportion to increased duties. Success of job enrichment process is influenced by employees' growth need. Those high in the need for achievement are more likely to respond to job enrichment opportunities, and employees with low achievement needs are often unaffected by these changes. A person with high achievement needs is one who feels a need to accomplish something important, to compete against a challenging standard of excellence and prefers to receive a clear feedback of results. Again, employees who are younger and more educated are more responsive to job enrichment. The fact that all employees are not alike in their growth needs is further indicated by another survey of some 1500 employees which reveals that collar employees ranked 'interesting work' as most important. On the other hand, blue-collar employees ranked 'interesting work' in the seventh position, after such items as security, pay, helpful co-workers, and clearly defined responsibilities. Hence, management should not assume that job enrichment would be a success with all employees.

Check Your Progress

- 1) Discuss the different types of motivation.
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- 2) Describe Maslow's need hierarchy.
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- 3) Mention the factors that improve motivation and morale.
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- 4) How can jobs be enriched?
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15.9 LET US SUM UP

Willingness to work is as important a component of one's performance as his or her ability to work, if not more. Motivation means not only willingness to work but also willingness to work in a desired manner which may help to attain organisational objective. The incentive can be meant to motivate employees to better performance. Importance of motivation as management function is obvious **from** the fact that it is an essential pre-requisite for the survival and growth of an **organisation**, which largely depends on the effective utilisation of the workforce. And it is not possible unless the workforce is motivated adequately. Every human problem has a motivational element. Apart from other characteristics, motivation is a situational and complex problem as it relates to human behaviour and attitude towards work, which is subject to change and so difficult to predict.

Employee motivation is intrinsic as well as extrinsic because it is affected by elements present both within and outside the job. This is confirmed by **motivation** theories formulated by social and behavioural scientists. Some of these theories indicate the factors including human needs, which influence employee motivation, particularly **Maslow's** and **Henberg's** theories of motivation which have been discussed in this Unit. However, in practice employees' attitude and behaviour at work are influenced considerably by organisational structure and its working and quality of work life. They are also influenced by personnel problems like recruitment, selection, promotion and transfers, wage and salary administration, handling of conflicts, grievances and disciplinary cases, and employee welfare.

The need for job enlargement and job enrichment has arisen from the increasing alienation or workers from their job monotony and boredom created by advancing modern technology and specialisation. The management tries to improve the jobs **horizontally** (job enlargement) or vertically (job enrichment) on perceiving workers' apathy or indifferent performance, high rate of absenteeism, and other symptoms indicating that the workers do not like their jobs even when they are rewarded adequately for the same. Important job enlargement and enrichment techniques used are: additional job functions, rotation of job tasks, broadening of qualifications or skills and responsibilities, increasing job autonomy by lessening or removing supervision, enhancement of the intrinsic interest of the job, etc. Experiments have been made to improve the quality of work life by enriching or enlarging the jobs with such good results as increased output, decreased absenteeism, dropping grievances, and increased employee satisfaction. However, the response of blue-collar employees and employees with low **growth** needs was not encouraging. Yet, both are used extensively in hospitality and tourism industry for a variety of reasons like: lack of availability of trained manpower in destination zones, to provide better customer **care**, seasonal nature of employment, small size of tourism firms, etc.

15.10 CLUES TO ANSWERS

Check Your Progress

- 1) Read Sec. 15.4.
- 2) See Sec. 15.18.
- 3) Base your answer on Sec. 15.7.
- 4) Read Sec. 15.8.

Some Activities

- 1) Identify your own motivators in order of priority.
- 2) Visit any tourism firm or hotel and assess the motivating or demotivating factors among the employees.