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MOTIVATING EMPLOYEES AT THE WORK PLACE

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ABSTRACT

Employees acting toward company goals and having a strong desire to remain in the organization are very important for the success of accompany. In order to generate such organizational commitment of the employees, the knowledge about what motivates and them is essential.

The purpose of this study is to investigate and analyses the factor which motivate employees, under consideration of individual characteristic.

Literature researches as well as practical survey of questionnaires and Personal interviews were carried out in order to best serve the purpose of this study.

Skills, task identity, task significance, autonomy, feedback, environment, job security, and compensation are important factors for the motivation of employees.

Taking in to consideration the extent to which these factors are present at work and the employees satisfaction with his state, differences regarding all examined individual characteristic are recognizable. Moreover, the investigation of the importance attributed to these factors by the employees revealed no differences with regard to the individual haracteristics. expect for the years an employee has been working in the university.

In addition, several factors, this may because a higher motivation and job satisfaction in the selected company have been identified in terms of the 'individual characteristics.

Thereby, for all employees, the feedback represents the factor with the highest motivation potential.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	
ACKNOWLEDEMENTS	ii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	iii
LIST OF FIGURES	v
LIST OF TABLES	vi
INTRODUCTION	
CHAPTER ONE: BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY	4
1.1 Background	4
1.2 Objective of the study	6
CHAPTER TWO: FRAMES OF REFERENCE	7
2.1 What is motivation?	7
2.2 Motivation is described through several properties	10
2.3 Clearing Up Common Myths About Employee Motivation	12
2.4 Motivational theory	13
2.4.1 Employee motivation theory	13
2.4.2 Ice-breakers and warm-ups for motivation	14
2.4.3 Building confidence for motivation	14
2.4.4 Motivational team building	15
2.4.5 Motivational coaching and training motivation	15
2.4.6 Personal motivation styles and learning motivation	15
2.4.7 Continual development and motivation	15
2.4.8 Improving empathy and communications for motivation	16
2.4.9 Motivation and creativity	16
2.4.10 Motivation for problem-solving and decision-making	17
2.4.11 Physical activity is motivational	17
2.5 Theories	17
2.5.1 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs	19
2.5.1.1 Employees are frequently motivated	23
2.5.2 Factor Theory (Hertzberg)	24
2.5.3 Alderfer's ERG theory	25
2.5.4 Acquired Needs Theory (McClellan)	26
2.5.5 Cognitive Evaluation Theory	26
2.5.6 Equity Theory	27
2.5.7 Expectancy Theory (Vroom)	28
2.5.8 Reinforcement Theory	29
2.5.9 Douglas McGregor - theory x y	31
2.6 Positive and negative motivation	33
2.6.1 Personal Values and Negative Motivation	34
2.6.2 Personal Values and Positive Motivation	34

2.6.3 Change of Values	35
2.7 Primary motives	35
2.8 General motives	36
2.8.1 The curiosity, manipulation, and activity motives	36
2.9 Secondary motives	36
2.10 Keller's ARCS Model for Motivation	37
2.10.1 David McClelland's needs-based motivational model	39
2.11 Three key points about motivation	42
2.12 Employee motivation in the workplace	43
2.12.1 Motivation is the key to performance improvement	44
CHAPTER THREE: EMPIRICAL ANALYZING	49
3.1 Age	50
3.2 Gender	53
3.3 Marital status	54
3.4 Leading/non-leading position	55
3.5 Years in the company	56
3.6 Similarities in the group	58
3.7 External factors influencing the motivation of the employees	58
CHAPTER FOUR: PROBLEMS OF NEU	60
4.1 How can NEU management improve their Educational Staff?	60
CHAPTER FIVE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	63
5.1 The design	63
5.2 Collection of data	64
5.2.1 Secondary data	64
5.2.2 Primary data	65
5.3 Questionnaire about motivation and work	65
5.4 Creation of the questionnaire and carrying out the survey	66
5.5 Analysis of the questionnaire results	66
CHAPTER SIX: RESEARCH ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS	68
CONCLUSION	90
RECOMMENDATION	93
REFERENCES	95
Appendix A: Employee motivation questionnaire	96

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.5.1: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs	20
Figure 2.5.2: Factor Theory (Hertzberg)	24
Figure 2.5.6 Equity Theory	27
Figure 2.5.9 Douglas McGregor - theory x y	32
Figure 2.12 Employee motivation, the organization environments and productivity	44
Figure 6.1: Not being recognized for my expertise in a particular area	68
Figure 6.2: Working in a bureaucratic environment	69
Figure 6.3: Being expected to challenge bias and intolerance	70
Figure 6.4: A well paid job	71
Figure 6.5: Being able to live up to people's expectations	71
Figure 6.6: Having the freedom to try out my own ideas	72
Figure 6.7: The opportunity to get on quickly	73
Figure 6.8: Having a job that is more like fun than work	73
Figure 6.9: Not being able to earn bonuses	74
Figure 6.10: Not having much to do	75
Figure 6.11: Being expected to hide the truth	75
Figure 6.12: Having a day filled with engagements	76
Figure 6.13: Not being expected to come up with ideas for improvements	77
Figure 6.14: Not being accorded respect	78
Figure 6.15: Not having control over the pace of work	78
Figure 6.16: Not having to compete with colleagues to get my views heard	79
Figure 6.17: Not being recognized for the job I do	80
Figure 6.18: The risk of failing and having to change plans	80
Figure 6.19: Being able to work in accordance with my principles	81
Figure 6.20: Having a job that does not allow me to grow and develop	82
Figure 6.21: Being publicly recognized for my efforts	83
Figure 6.22: Not being able to advance to more senior positions	83
Figure 6.23: Being expected to inspire and guide people	84
Figure 6.24: The possibility of failing in front of colleagues	85
Figure 6.25: Being recognized for the contribution I make	85
Figure 6.26: Having to make decisions under pressure	86
Figure 6.27: Being a senior manager	87
Figure 6.28: Having a flexible boss	87
Figure 6.29: Pay linked to performance	88
Figure 6.30: Having to be sensitive to other people's views and concerns	89

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.5.8: Reinforcement Theory	30
Table 2.5.8 Fixed and Variable	31
Table 1: Not being recognized for my expertise in a particular area	68
Table 2: Working in a bureaucratic environment	69
Table 3: Being expected to challenge bias and intolerance	69
Table 4: A well paid job	70
Table 5: Being able to live up to people's expectations	71
Table 6: Having the freedom to try out my own ideas	72
Table 7: The opportunity to get on quickly	72
Table 8: Having a job that is more like fun than work	73
Table 9: Not being able to earn bonuses	74
Table 10: Not having much to do	74
Table 11: Being expected to hide the truth	75
Table 12: Having a day filled with engagements	76
Table 13: Not being expected to come up with ideas for improvements	77
Table 14: Not being accorded respect	77
Table 15: Not having control over the pace of work	78
Table 16: Not having to compete with colleagues to get my views heard	79
Table 17: Not being recognized for the job I do	79
Table 18: The risk of failing and having to change plans	80
Table 19: Being able to work in accordance with my principles	81
Table 20: Having a job that does not allow me to grow and develop	82
Table 21: Being publicly recognized for my efforts	82
Table 22: Not being able to advance to more senior positions	83
Table 23: Being expected to inspire and guided people	84
Table 24: The possibility of failing in front of colleagues	84
Table 25: Being recognized for the contribution I make	85
Table 26: Having to make decisions under pressure	86
Table 27: Being a senior manager	86
Table 28: Having a flexible boss	87
Table 29: Pay linked to performance	88
Table 30: Having to be sensitive to other people's views and concerns	88

INTRODUCTION

At one time, employees were considered just another input into the production of goods and services. What perhaps changed this way of thinking about employees was research, referred to as the Hawthorne Studies, conducted by Elton Mayo from 1924 to 1932 (Dickson, 1973). This study found employees are not motivated solely by money and employee behavior is linked to their attitudes (Dickson, 1973). The Hawthorne Studies began the human relations approach to management, whereby the needs and motivation of employees become the primary focus of managers (Bedeian, 1993).

Why do we need motivated employees? The answer is survival (Smith, 1994). Motivated employees are needed in our rapidly changing workplaces. Motivated employees help organizations survive. Motivated employees are more productive. To be effective, managers need to understand what motivates employees within the context of the roles they perform. Of all the functions a manager performs, motivating employees is arguably the most complex. This is due, in part, to the fact that what motivates employees changes constantly (Bowen & Radhakrishna, 1991).

For example, research suggests that as employees' income increases, money becomes less of a motivator (Kovach, 1987). Also, as employees get older, interesting work becomes more of a motivator.

That influence and is influenced Motivation is highly complex phenomenon by a large number of factors in the organizational environment .The study of motivation is concerned wit why individuals think and behave as they do (Mullin, 1999; Weiner, 1992; Wagner, 1999).

A great amount of definitions are presented by literature, points out that motivation is process that individual to act they do .motivation as a drive within the individual necessary to direct that persons actions and behavior towards the achievement of some goals ,and focuses ,certain needs and explanation.

Moreover, Westerman and Donoghue refer to motivation as;

"... asset of processes which energize a person's behavior and direct him or her towards attaining some goal ,or put more simply getting people to do willingly and well those things which have to done."

Generally, motivation deals with forces, which initiate, direct and sustain behavior towards the attainment of certain goals. Particularly, in terms of the organizational aspect, motivation focuses, on an individual's 'willingness to put efforts into his/her work, and on the amount of efforts, which are made in order to obtain incentives or a special form incentive.

The discussion of motivation in the literature refers to three aspects:

- (1)What is the arousal or organizing sources of the individual behavior?
- (2)What directs or channels such behavior?
- (3)The maintenance and sustain of this behavior

The first issue deals with driving forces inherent in the individual that leads to a certain behavior, and with environmental forces that often cause these drive.

The second feature involves the direction of behavior toward a goal. Furthermore, Porter and Steers (1991) refer to the third matter as force within the individual and environmental forces that provide the individual with feedback. This feedback either reinforces the individual to intensify his/her drive and the direction of his/her energy, or discourages the individual to pursue his/her course of action and redirects his/her efforts.

The motivational process represents a very general model of human behavior (Mullins, 1999) Steers (1991) argued that this model assumes that individual hold a number of needs, desires and expectation in varying strength. Based on these needs and expectation, people act or behave in a certain way that they believe will lead to the desired goal. Thereby, according to Steers and Porter (1991), the individual will be provided with

feedback about the impact of his/her behavior. That in turn may induce the individual to alter his/her present behavior, or may reassure the individual that his/her current course of acting is correct and may confirm the person in pursuing this course of action in order to achieve feedback.

The motivational process is not as simple and straightforward as it seems. It is far more complex.

The *first* aspect to the fact that motives cannot directly be observed and therefore a need to deduce them exists. However, the inference of motives from observed behavior is associated with difficulties traced back to at least five reasons.

These five reasons are:

- (1) Several motives may be expressed through any single action;
- (2) Motives may occur in disguised form;
- (3) Similar or identical action may represent several motives;
- (4) Different behavior may embody similar motives;
- (5) The model of expression of certain motives may be mitigated by personal and culture variation.

The second complication of the model deals with the fact that any person has a host of motives. These motives may change over time and conflict with each other.

Third, the selection of certain motives over others, as well as the intensity with which such motives are pursued, may differ from person to person.

In addition, they refer to the fourth complication, the fact that an attainment of certain needs, desires and expectations may prompt a person to direct his/her attention to other motives, or to intensify the pursuit of these motives.

CHAPTER ONE: BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1 Background

Work provides product and services, which represent the root for a company's success, but is also an important and highly central aspect in the lives of individuals due to several reasons.

First, persons receive some kind of reward, extrinsic (such as money) or intrinsic (satisfaction coming from the work), in exchange for their presentation. The individuals hold certain personal expectation in terms of form and amount of reward, which he/she should receive for the provided service. Thereby, the performance of a person as well as the decision to remain in the company is influenced by the extent to which such expectations are met.

Second, the work place opportunities for socialization with other people.

Third, the job is often a source of rank, or status, in the society in general. In other words, the work may provide a source of social differentiation.

Fourth, work has individual meaning for each person. This can range from a source of identity and self-esteem, to a source of frustration, boredom, and feeling of meaninglessness, caused by the nature of the task and the characteristic of the person.

As mentioned before, for some people work is source of great satisfaction; for many others it is the reasons for satisfaction. Regarding the fact that employees spend a large part of the day at work for 40 to 45 years, it is important those employees experience positive feeling toward their tasks. Otherwise, it would be a long time to be frustrated, dissatisfied and unhappy. Moreover, these negative feeling may affect the family or social life as well as the physical and emotional health of an individual.

Hertzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1999) pointed out that an employee, irrespective of if he/she is working in an office or a bench, will experience his/her tasks, as well as the workday totally differently if the attitudes toward the job are good or if they are bad. In addition, they argued that the employee's feeling toward their work have a significant influence on the success and failure of the company. For instance, during hard time the level of morale within the work force may determine whether a company will survive. In other word, motivated employees contribute to a company's survival.

Employees are a priceless resource that may contribute in several different ways to company activities, provided that the company gives them a suitable chance. In order to be successful, a company needs employees who act toward the goals of the organization and have a strong desire to remain in the company. Such constancy and commitment may be generated by motivation.

Furthermore, motivation is aimed to achieve increases in work productivity and job satisfaction (Schultz and Schultz, 1998). Particularly, the impact of motivation on the work performance and productivity fascinated attention towards motivation in the work environment. Highly motivated person tend to work harder and execute more effectively in their jobs than less motivated individuals. In addition, several studies showed that job satisfaction leads to better performance as well as to more customer orientation.

However, the accumulated research evidence suggests that the relation between job satisfaction and performance is quite weak.

The knowledge about needs and expectation of employees at work represented the basis for their motivation. Moreover, the structure of the work and the employee's degree of satisfaction with the job are important in order to increase the actual motivation and satisfaction with their work.

Thereby, the differences regarding what people want and perceive from their job are of significance. The strongest motivator is, according to, something that people value, but

lack. The knowledge about those strong motivators is of great value and may serve as starting point for the re-design of work, in order to increase an employee's motivation and satisfaction.

1.2 Objective of the Study

The purpose of this project is to investigate and analyze the factors which motivate employees, under consideration of individual characteristics. Human Resource Management and to understand the positive contribution. Makes the organization perfect.

The reason to choose this study is to show, how motivation affect the success of an organization by giving the related information to the business. In order to be successful, companies need to commitment of employees. That includes the commitment to act toward the goals of the company, as well as the commitment to stay in the organization. The achievement of organization commitment, however, is not easy since it may be influenced by personal and organization factors.

The knowledge about what motivates and satisfies people at work may be essential to generate such commitment. In other words, company has to be aware of what motivates and satisfies the employees at work in order to stimulate them to perform their job as best as possible and to remain in the company.

CHAPTER TWO: FRAMES OF REFERENCE

2.1 What is motivation?

Many contemporary authors have also defined the concept of motivation. Motivation has been defined as: the psychological process that gives behavior purpose and direction (Kreitner, 1995); a predisposition to behave in a purposive manner to achieve specific, unmet needs (Buford, Bedeian, & Lindner, 1995); an internal drive to satisfy an unsatisfied need (Higgins, 1994); and the will to achieve (Bedeian, 1993). For this paper, motivation is operationally defined as the inner force that drives individuals to accomplish personal and organizational goals

Motivation can be distinct as a concept used to portray the factors within an Individual which provoke, maintain and channel behavior towards a goal. Motivation is goal-directed behavior.

Many people incorrectly view motivation as a personal mannerism .some have it and others don't .in particle managers often label employees who seem to be deficient in motivation as lazy. Such a label assumes that individual is always lazy or is lacking in motivation .knowledge of motivation tells is this isn't true .motivation is the result of the interaction of the individual and the situation. Certainly individuals differ in their basic motivation drive.

Defining motivation as the processes that account for an individual's intensity, direction, and persistence of effort toward attaining a goal will be very correct statement, while general motivation is concerned with effort any goal. While it is easy to see the things that a person dose, but it is much harder to guess at why they are doing it. As an example, a hard - working employee may be working hard because she/he really enjoys working on that subject. She/he may be striving for promotion because she/he wants to impress her/his friends or because she/he wants a good job, so that the promotion themselves are really a step toward another goal. It is dangerous to assume that you know what is

motivating someone because you really can't "read their mind". As we developed our approach to analyzing organization, it became apparent to us that organization, like people, have different personalities and work in different rhythms. We were often surprised at how well some organization seem to work under incredibly difficult circumstances, while others are continually failing to perform under much more favorable conditions. For almost a century now, organizational analysts have pondered the issue of why some individuals are more motivated than others. A great deal can be learned from this literature about the types of working conditions that support or hinder how individuals in organization perform.

Only over the past 20 years has interest shifted from simply understanding the individual's role in organizational motivation, to some of the underlying personality aspects of the organization itself.

Although organizational motivation is manifested in a variety of ways, four primary concepts provide insight into the underlying personality of most organizations: history, mission, culture and incentives. The first concept is the history and life cycle of the organization. Organizations, like people, vary in the different stage of their organizational life. When they start up, there is often a state of optimistic euphoria, a belief that the resources brought together can do just about anything.

While there are not consistent stages in an organization's life that parallel the human life span, there are stages that help to diagnose the organization and its culture. New or young organizations create their own unique patterns of behavior that are normally more informal than formal. In these organizations, roles and responsibilities are not delineated, few policy manuals exist, neither rules nor procedures are established, and there is an excitement normally associated with a new endeavor.

Motivation in these organizations at this early stage are driven in part by the experimental atmosphere that prevails. New entrepreneurial leaders often emerge, and there is a feeling that almost anything is possible. However, as these organizations mature, they begin to

develop structure and rules.

People are no longer free to make up their own ways of doing things. Rules and responsibilities are set. The excitement of newness fades and other motivational patterns emerge. As the context of the organization changes, it becomes imperative for the organization to change.

We talk about organizational restitution or renaissance. If organizations do not renew themselves they become ill, and in the private sector, at least, they die.

While the metaphor of the organizational life cycle doesn't strictly hold true, understanding the history of an organization gives insight into what the organization is. The organization's *raison d'être*, the characteristics of its founders, and understanding of its major milestones and organizational changes-all play an important role in shaping the personality of an organization and how it performs.

The second concept of motivation focuses on the real purpose of the organization: its mission. Every organization has a distinct real purpose that is manifested in its goals and objectives. In most definitions of the concept of "organization," there is an explicit goal orientation. Each organization creates, either implicitly or explicitly, a forward looking direction of what it wants to accomplish, a vision of where it wants to go, or what it wants to be. Some organizations are motivated by the opportunity to do good works or to provide service to citizens.

Many are motivated by helping those in need. Other organizations, such as research centers, may be driven by prestige-the desire to be regarded as the best in their field. In the private sector, motivation might mean having a bigger market share. Organizational analysts recognize the important role mission plays in shaping and creating an organization's personality, and as such consider it an important diagnostic consideration. Analyzing the mission of an organization offers insights into the organization itself.

Culture, the third concept, also provides a window to view organizational motivation. Organizational culture relates to the shared assumption, values and beliefs held by organizational members these factors are at work, however subliminally, within the organization's boundaries. The culture of an organization is rarely written down, but it is definitely communicated to members and stockholders in a variety of formal and informal ways. Analyzing organizational culture is critical in trying to understand the motivational forces that support or oppose change and improved performance.

Finally, the personality of an organization is shaped by its incentive system. For an organization to perform well, it must have mechanisms that encourage individuals and groups to work toward both its short - and long-term interests. These may include tangible benefits such as salary and bonuses, or less tangible incentives such as the freedom to pursue interests, or to participate in collaborative initiatives.

Over the years, many studies have attempted to better understand the needs of organizational members to develop improved or alternative reward structures. Understanding an organization's incentives system is the key to understanding its underlying personality.

These four motivational variables are not necessary independent of one another, nor are they necessarily the only factors that provide insight to the personality of an organization. Rather, they are simply important factors that help complete the picture of organizational performance and its underlying elements.

2.2 Motivation is described through several properties:

1. Motivation is composed of energy and direction. A person may or may not have enough motivation to engage in a given activity. For example, a person may be motivated enough to go and shop for food, but not enough to engage in a comprehensive exercise program.

2. Motives maybe overt, hidden, and multiple. Some motivations are publicly explicit (e.g., the desire to buy an energy efficient house), while others (e.g., the desire to look wealthy by buying a fancy car) are not. Individuals may also hold multiple motivations (e.g., buy a car and save money for retirement) which may conflict.

3. Many motivations are driven by the desire for tension reduction (e.g., eliminate thirst or hunger).

4. Motivations can be driven by both internal and external factors. That is, a person may want a painting either because he or she likes to (internal motivation) or because this will give her status among the artistic elite (external).

5. Motivations may have either a positive or negative balance - people may either be motivated to achieve something (e.g., get a promotion at work) or to avoid something (e.g., begin hospitalized without having adequate insurance).

6. Employees are motivated to achieve goals. Achieving these goals may require sustained activity overtime (e.g., exercising everyday for months or years) as opposed to taking some action once.

7. Employees maintain a balance between the desires for stability and variety. Most wants some variety (e.g., they don't want to eat the same meal everyday), but also want a certain stability (they don't want to try an entirely new food everyday).

8. Motivation reflects individual differences. Different employees are motivated to achieve different things, and it may be difficult to infer motivations from looking at actual behavior without understanding these differences in desired outcomes.

Each organization and the people within it are motivated to behave in ways that are predictable within that organization.

Organizations have different characteristics at different points in their history and may be motivated by different forces. Young organizations, for example, may be more open to change and re-engineering than more mature organizations. The mission of an organization can be a powerful guiding light, but it is important to determine whether the stated mission really moves people, whether it reflects what the people in the organization believe, or both.

Organizational structure, a complex and layered system of values and beliefs, is difficult to diagnose (with all its sub-themes, sub-cultures and underlying assumptions), but is a powerful contributor to motivation and, ultimately, to performance. People are motivated to do well by a variety of incentives, the greatest of which is not always monetary.

Every organization is driven by a unique combination of energy that comes from experience, a vision of the future, some sense of shared values, and anticipated rewards. Taken together, these factors constitute organizational motivation. Understanding what motivates an organization is really a powerful tool in assessing and improving its performance.

2.3 Clearing Up Common Myths About Employee Motivation

The topic of motivating employees is extremely important to managers and supervisors. Despite the importance of the topic, several myths persist -- especially among new managers and supervisors. Before looking at what management can do to support the motivation of employees, it's important first to clear up these common myths.

1. Myth #1 -- "I can motivate people"

Not really -- they have to motivate themselves. You can't motivate people anymore than you can empower them. Employees have to motivate and empower themselves. However, you can set up an environment where they best motivate and empower themselves. The key knows how to set up the environment for each of your employees.

2. Myth #2 -- "Money is a good motivator"

Not really. Certain things like money, a nice office and job security can help people from becoming less motivated, but they usually don't help people to become more motivated. A key goal is to understand the motivations of each of your employees.

3. Myth #3 -- "Fear is a damn good motivator"

Fear is a great motivator -- for a very short time. That's why a lot of yelling from the boss won't seem to "light a spark under employees" for a very long time.

4. Myth #4 -- "I know what motivates me, so I know what motivates my employees"

Not really. Different people are motivated by different things. I may be greatly motivated by earning time away from my job to spend more time my family. You might be motivated much more by recognition of a job well done. People are not motivated by the same things. Again, a key goal is to understand what motivates each of your employees.

5. Myth #5 -- "Increased job satisfaction means increased job performance"

Research shows this isn't necessarily true at all. Increased job satisfaction does not necessarily mean increased job performance. If the goals of the organization are not aligned with the goals of employees, then employees aren't effectively working toward the mission of the organization.

6. Myth #6 -- "I can't comprehend employee motivation -- it's a science"

Not true. There are some very basic steps you can take that will go a long way toward supporting your employees to motivate themselves toward increased performance in their job.

2.4 Motivational theory

2.4.1 Employee motivation theory - team building activities, workshops, inspirational quotes, and the power of positive experience

Alignment of aims, purpose and values between staff, teams and organization is the most fundamental aspect of motivation. The better the alignment and personal association with organizational aims, the better the platform for motivation. Where people find it difficult to align and associate with the organizational aims, then most motivational ideas and

activities will have a reduced level of success. Motivation is a complex area. It's different for each person.

Motivational receptiveness and potential in everyone changes from day to day, from situation to situation. Get the alignment and values right, and motivational methods work better. Motivational methods of any sort will not work if people and organisation are not aligned. People are motivated towards something they can relate to and something they can believe in. Times have changed. People want more. You should view the following motivational methods and ideas as structures, activities and building blocks, to be used when you have a solid foundation in place. The foundation is a cohesive alignment of people's needs and values with the aims and purpose of the organization. More about people-organization alignment and motivation.

2.4.2 Ice-breakers and warm-ups for motivation

When a group or team of people assemble for a conference, or training course, there is always a feeling of uncertainty and discomfort. Even if people know each other, they feel uncomfortable in the new strange situation, because it is different. Mankind has evolved partly because of this awareness to potential threats and fear of the unknown. Games and team building activities relax people, so that they can fully concentrate on the main purpose of the day, whatever it is, rather than spending the morning still wondering what everyone else is thinking. See the stress theory section for examples. Activities and games are great levellers - they break down the barriers, and therefore help develop rapport and relationships.

2.4.3 Building confidence for motivation

Learning something new and completely different liberates the mind. Facing a challenge, meeting it and mastering it helps build confidence.

2.4.4 Motivational team building

When you break down barriers, misunderstandings, prejudices, insecurities, divisions, territories and hierarchies - you begin to build teams. Get a group of people in a room having fun with juggling balls or spinning plates and barriers are immediately removed. Teams unite and work together when they identify a common purpose - whether the aim is the tallest tower made out of newspapers, or a game of rounders on the park. Competition in teams or groups creates teams and ignites team effort.

2.4.5 Motivational coaching and training motivation

Learning to juggle or some other new activity demonstrates how we learn, and how to coach others. Breaking new tasks down into stages, providing clear instructions, demonstration, practice, time and space to make mistakes, doing it one stage at a time all the essential training and coaching techniques can be shown, whether juggling is the vehicle or some other team-building idea, and the learning is clearer and more memorable because it is taken out of the work context, where previously people 'can't see the wood for the trees'. Games and activities provide a perfect vehicle for explaining the training and development process ('train the trainer' for example) to managers, team leaders and trainers.

2.4.6 Personal motivation styles and learning motivation

Everyone is different. Taking part in new games and activities outside of the work situation illustrates people's different strengths and working style preferences. Mutual respect develops when people see skills and attributes in others that they didn't know existed. Also, people work and learn in different ways, see the Kolb learning style model and Benziger thinking styles model for examples.

2.4.7 Continual development and motivation

Learning and taking part in a completely new activity or game like juggling demonstrates that learning is ongoing. The lessons never finish, unless people decide to stop learning.

Juggling the basic 'three ball cascade' pattern doesn't end there - it's just a start - as with all learning and development. Master juggler Enrico Rastelli practiced all the daylight hours juggling ten balls. Introducing people, staff or employees to new experiences opens their minds to new avenues of personal development, and emphasises the opportunity for continuous learning that is available to us all.

2.4.8 Improving empathy and communications for motivation

"Seek first to understand, and then to be understood." (Steven Covey). See the Seven Habits Of Highly Effective People summary and review.

To communicate we must understand the other person. Empathy and intuitive skills are right-side brain. Conventional classroom training or distance learning do nothing to address this vital area. Juggling and playing spontaneous or creative games definitely promote development and awareness in the right-side of the brain, which we use when we communicate and understand others. Team activities and games promote communications and better mutual understanding - essential for good organizational performance (see the Johari Window model and theory).

2.4.9 Motivation and creativity

Creativity and initiative are crucial capabilities for modern organizational effectiveness. Juggling and other games activities dispel the notion that actions must be according to convention, and that response can only be to stimulus. Successful organizations have staff that initiate, create, innovate, and find new ways to do things better, without being told. Using mind and body together in a completely new way encourages pro-active thought and lateral thinking, which opens people's minds, and develops creative and initiative capabilities. See the brainstorming process, which integrates well with team building activities and workshops. See also the workshops process and ideas.

2.4.10 Motivation for problem-solving and decision-making

Problem-solving is integral to decision-making - see the problem-solving and decision-making section. Learning to juggle or taking part in new challenging stimulating activities uses the intuitive brain to solve the problem, the same part that's vital for creatively solving work problems. People who can solve problems creatively can make decisions - and organizations need their staff and employees to have these abilities.

2.4.11 Physical activity is motivational

Team building activities like juggling, construction exercises, or outdoor games, get the body moving, which is good for general health and for an energetic approach to work. A minute of juggling three balls is 200 throws, the equivalent of pumping over 20 kilos. Physical activity also provides significant stress relief, and stress management is part of every organisation's duty of care towards its employees.

People concentrate and work better when they have had some light exercise and physical stimulus. Physical activity energises people and reduces stress and tension. See details on the stress section.

2.5 Theories

In general, motivation can be considered as either extrinsic (behavioral) or intrinsic (biological, cognitive, effective or spiritual).

It is considered several perspectives on behavior as a way to understand what motivates the employee. Each of these perspectives suggests different things as to what the manager should do and what can (and cant) be controlled. Each perspective tends to contain a "grain" of truth and what one should not be too dogmatic in emphasizing one over the others.

1. The *Rational Expectation* perspective is based on an economic way of looking that people think rationally and have perfect information, even though they know very

well that these assumptions are often unrealistic. However, despite the unrealistic assumptions made, economists often make relatively accurate reduction of a human behavior. (The cognitive perspective, however, is able to identify certain significant expectations to rational behavior, however).

2. The *Social Learning Perspective*, in contrast, allows for the curious learning e.g., learning obtained by watching others getting good or bad consequences for behavior. The models that may be observed and imitated include peers and family members as well as relevant others that may be observed in advertising. Certain people are more likely to be imitated than others e.g., those that are more similar to ourselves based on relevant factors such as age, social status, or ethnic groups.

Generally, observations are made of overt behavior, but some room is made for individual reasoning in learning from others. This perspective is clearly more realistic than that of the "Hard Core" view, but the strength of learning tends to be greater for that gained from own experience.

3. The *Biological approach* suggests that most behavior is determined by genetic or other biological basis. By this perspective, it is suggested that employees eat the food they eat in large part because the body craves these foods. Although craving for fatty foods seem quite maladaptive in today's society, it could have been adaptive earlier in human history where food was scarce and obtaining as many calories as possible helped insure survival. Clearly, this perspective is misleading when one takes it as the only explanation of behavior. For example, people in different culture learn to enjoy various kinds of food. The main implication of biological determinism is that the manager must adapt for example, food advertisement are more likely to be effective when people are hungry, and thus they might better be run in the late afternoon rather than in the late morning.

4. The *Psychoanalytic* perspective is based on the work on historical psychologists such as Sigmund Freud who suggests that (1) much behavior has a biological behavior which is (2) often sexual in nature, and (3) that early experience in childhood will have profound, but unconscious effect on later life.

5. The *Hard Core Behavioral* perspective is based on learning theories such as operant and classical conditioning. These theories suggest that employees must learn

from their own experiences e.g. in order to avoid getting sick from overeating, an employee must experience the stomach and other ailments resulting from a gluttony rather than merely observing other people who overate and get sick. This suggests, then, that it is important to reward good behavior (e.g., making brand) to the extent possible. Hard Core Behaviorists tend to look at observable behavior(e.g., making our brand or buying another) rather than trying to find out what is going on inside the heads of employees e.g., Hard Core Behaviorists don't like to mess with "mushy" things like attitudes.

6. The *Cognitive approach* emphasizes consumer thinking rather than mere behavior-here, the emphasis is on how people reason themselves to the consequences of their behavior. It is often more difficult to attempt to "get in to" an employee's head than it is to merely observe his/her behavior, and what we observe is more subjective.

2.5.1 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

The late Abraham Maslow suggested the intuitively appealing notion that humans must satisfy the most basic objectives before they can move onto "higher level" ones. Thus, an individual must satisfy physiological needs (such as food and liquid) before he or she will be able to expend energy on less fundamental objectives such as safety. Only when basic objectives have been met will a person move on to seek such objectives as love and belonging, and only a small minority of people make it as far as seeking self-actualization.

Maslow's Hierarchy is useful in understanding different needs of employees. However, one must be careful not to take it too literally, since people may occasionally "swing" between needs. For example, a homeless person who currently does not have shelter may seek that out even though he or she is hungry.

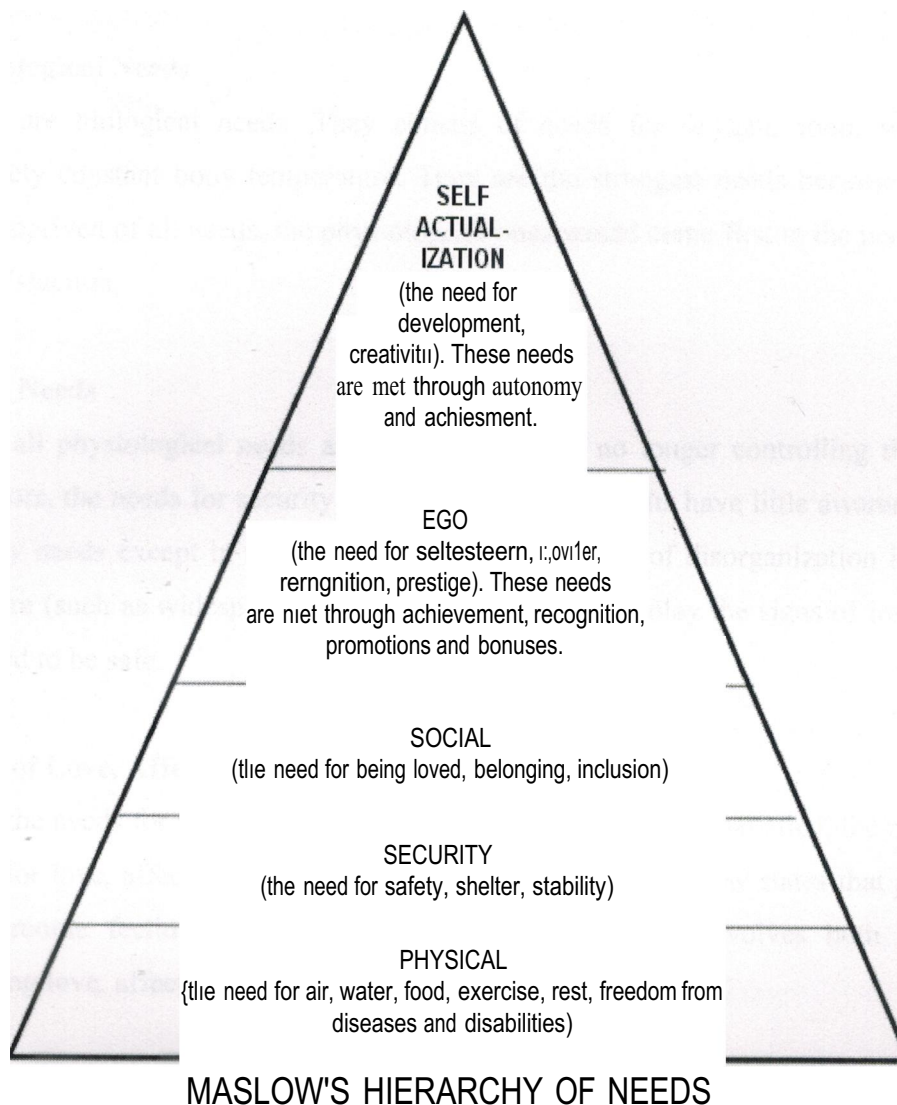


Figure 2.5.1: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Maslow has set up a hierarchy of five levels of basic needs. Beyond these needs, higher levels of needs exist. These include needs for understanding, esthetic appreciation and purely spiritual needs. In the levels of the five basic needs, the person does not feel the second need until the demands of the first have been satisfied, nor the third until the second has been satisfied, and so on. Maslow's basic needs are as follows:

Physiological Needs

These are biological needs. They consist of needs for oxygen, food, water, and a relatively constant body temperature. They are the strongest needs because if a person were deprived of all needs, the physiological ones would come first in the person's search for satisfaction.

Safety Needs

When all physiological needs are satisfied and are no longer controlling thoughts and behaviors, the needs for security can become active. Adults have little awareness of their security needs except in times of emergency or periods of disorganization in the social structure (such as widespread rioting). Children often display the signs of insecurity and the need to be safe.

Needs of Love, Affection and Belongingness

When the needs for safety and for physiological well-being are satisfied, the next class of needs for love, affection and belongingness can emerge. Maslow states that people seek to overcome feelings of loneliness and alienation. This involves both giving and receiving love, affection and the sense of belonging.

Needs for Esteem

When the first three classes of needs are satisfied, the needs for esteem can become dominant. These involve needs for both self-esteem and for the esteem a person gets from others. Humans have a need for a stable, firmly based, high level of self-respect, and respect from others. When these needs are satisfied, the person feels self-confident and valuable as a person in the world. When these needs are frustrated, the person feels inferior, weak, helpless and worthless.

Needs for Self-Actualization

When all of the foregoing needs are satisfied, then and only then are the needs for self-actualization activated. Maslow describes self-actualization as a person's need to be and

do that which the person was "born to do." "A musician must make music, an artist must paint, and a poet must write."

These needs make themselves felt in signs of restlessness. The person feels on edge, tense, lacking something, in short, restless. If a person is hungry, unsafe, not loved or accepted, or lacking self-esteem, it is very easy to know what the person is restless about. It is not always clear what a person wants when there is a need for self-actualization.

The hierarchic theory is often represented as a pyramid, with the larger, lower levels representing the lower needs, and the upper point representing the need for self-actualization. Maslow believes that the only reason that people would not move well in direction of self-actualization is because of hindrances placed in their way by society. He states that education is one of these hindrances. He recommends ways education can switch from its usual person-stunting tactics to person-growing approaches.

Maslow states that educators should respond to the potential an individual has for growing into a self-actualizing person of his/her own kind. Ten points that educators should address are listed:

1. We should teach people to be *authentic*, to be aware of their inner selves and to hear their inner-feeling voices.
2. We should teach people to *transcend their cultural conditioning* and become world citizens.
3. We should help people *discover their vocation in life*, their calling, fate or destiny. This is especially focused on finding the right career and the right mate.
4. We should teach people that *life is precious*, that there is joy to be experienced in life, and if people are open to seeing the good and joyous in all kinds of situations, it makes life worth living.
5. We must *accept the person* as he or she is and help the person learn their inner nature. From real knowledge of aptitudes and limitations we can know what to build upon, what potentials are really there?

6. We must see that the person's *basic needs are satisfied*. This includes safety, belongingness, and esteem needs.
7. We should *refreshes consciousness*, teaching the person to appreciate beauty and the other good things in nature and in living.
8. We should teach people that *controls are good*, and complete abandon is bad. It takes control to improve the quality of life in all areas.
9. We should teach people to transcend the trifling problems and *grapple with the serious problems in life*. These include the problems of injustice, of pain, suffering, and death.
10. We must teach people to be *good choosers*. They must be given practice in making good choices.

2.5.1.1 Employees are frequently motivated by multiple motives suggests a possibility that motives may conflict. Three main types of conflict exist:

1. *Approach - avoidance*. One alternative has both positive consequences (that one wished to seek out) and negative consequences (that one wants to avoid). For example, eating a large banana split is an enjoyable experience ("approach"), but it contains a lot of calories ("avoidance") and may make one feel ill later (another avoidance).
2. *Approach - approach*. An employee wants to do incompatible things at the same time. Another example is an employee who only has one week's vacation but wants equally to go to Hawaii and Greenland, but has time and money only for one of the two.
3. *Avoidance - avoidance*. An employee doesn't want to go for either of two alternatives, but must choose the lesser of two evils. For example, the drive doesn't want to buy car insurance, but doesn't want to get into an accident or get caught by the police without it. A "work ethic disadvantage" students doesn't want to study, but doesn't want to fail his/her courses.

2.5.2 Factor Theory (Herzberg)

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Two Factor Theory - Herzberg

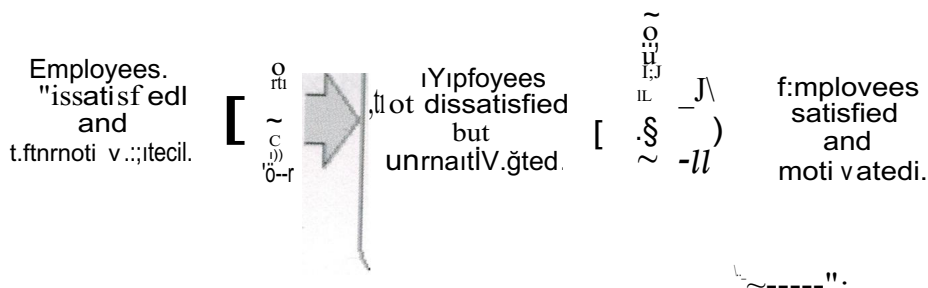


Figure 2.5.2: Factor Theory (Herzberg)

According to Herzberg, two kinds of factors affect motivation, and they do it in different ways:

- **Hygiene factors.** These are factors whose absence motivates, but whose presence has no perceived effect. They are things that when you take them away, people become dissatisfied and act to get them back. A very good example is heroin to a heroin addict. Long term addicts do not shoot up to get high; they shoot up to stop being sick -- to get normal. Other examples include decent working conditions, security, pay, benefits (like health insurance), company policies, interpersonal relationships. In general, these are extrinsic items low in the Maslow/Alderfer hierarchy.
- **Motivators.** These are factors whose presence motivates. Their absence does not cause any particular dissatisfaction, it just fails to motivate. Examples are all the things at the top of the Maslow hierarchy, and the intrinsic motivators.

So hygiene factors determine dissatisfaction, and motivators determine satisfaction. The two scales are independent, and you can be high on both.

If you think back to the class discussion on power, we talked about a baseline point on the well-being scale. Power involved a threat to reduce your well-being, causing dissatisfaction. Hence, power basically works by threatening to withhold hygiene factors. Influence was said to fundamentally be about promising improvements in well-being -- when you are influenced to do something, it is because you want to, not because you were threatened. Influence basically works by offering to provide motivators (in Herzberg's terms).

2.5.3 Alderfer's ERG theory

Alderfer classifies needs into three categories, also ordered hierarchically:

- growth needs (development of competence and realization of potential)
- relatedness needs (satisfactory relations with others)
- existence needs (physical well-being)

This is very similar to Maslow -- can be seen as just collapsing into three tiers. But maybe a bit more rational. For example, in Alderfer's model, sex does not need to be in the bottom category as it is in Maslow's model, since it is not crucial to (the individual's) existence. (Remember, this about individual motivation, not species' survival.) So by moving sex, this theory does not predict that people have to have sex before they can think about going to school, like Maslow's theory does.

Alderfer believed that as you start satisfying higher needs, they become more intense (e.g., the power you get the more you want power), like an addiction.

Do any of these theories have anything useful to say for managing businesses? Well, if true, they suggest that:

- Not everyone is motivated by the same things. It depends where you are in the hierarchy (think of it as a kind of personal development scale).

- The needs hierarchy probably mirrors the organizational hierarchy to a certain extent: top managers are more likely to motivate by self-actualization/growth needs than existence needs. (But try telling Bill Clinton that top executives are not motivated by sex and cheeseburgers ...).

2.5.4 Acquired Needs Theory (McClelland)

Some needs are acquired as a result of life experiences

- Need for achievement, accomplish something difficult. As kids encouraged to do things for themselves.
- Need for affiliation, form close personal relationships. As kids rewarded for making friends.
- Need for power, control others. As kids, able to get what they want through controlling others.

Again similar to maslow and alderfer.

These needs can be measured using the TAT (thematic apperception test), which is a projection-style test based on interpreting stories that people tell about a set of pictures.

2.5.5 Cognitive Evaluation Theory

This theory suggests that there are actually two motivation systems: intrinsic and extrinsic that correspond to two kinds of motivators:

- Intrinsic motivators: Achievement, responsibility and competence. Motivators that come from the actual performance of the task or job -- the intrinsic interest of the work.
- Extrinsic: pay, promotion, feedback, working conditions -- things that come from a person's environment, controlled by others.

One or the other of these may be a more powerful motivator for a given individual. Intrinsically motivated individuals perform for their own achievement and

satisfaction. If they come to believe that they are doing some job because of the pay or the working conditions or some other extrinsic reason, they begin to lose motivation.

The belief is that the presence of powerful extrinsic motivators can actually reduce a person's intrinsic motivation, particularly if the extrinsic motivators are perceived by the person to be controlled by people. In other words, a boss who is always dangling this reward or that stick will turn off the intrinsically motivated people.

2.5.6 Equity Theory

Suppose employee A gets a 20% raise and employee B gets a 10% raise. Will both be motivated as a result? Will A be twice as motivated? Will be B be negatively motivated?

Equity theory says that it is not the actual reward that motivates, but the perception, and the perception is based not on the reward in isolation, but in comparison with the efforts that went into getting it, and the rewards and efforts of others. If everyone got a 5% raise, B is likely to feel quite pleased with her raise, even if she worked harder than everyone else. But if A got an even higher raise, B perceives that she worked just as hard as A, she will be unhappy.

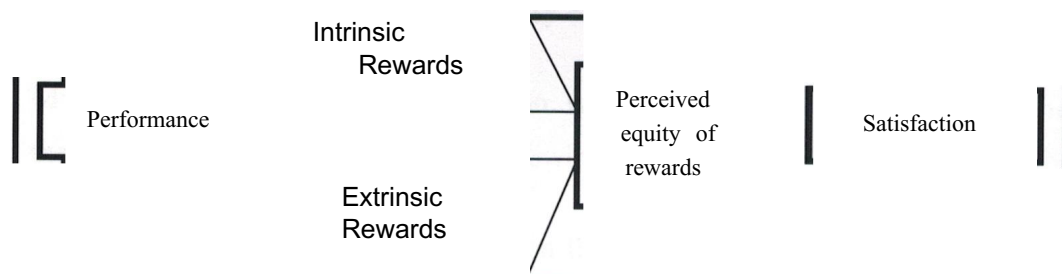


Figure 2.5.6 Equity Theory

In other words, people's motivation results from a ratio of ratios: a person compares the ratio of reward to effort with the comparable ratio of reward to effort that they think others are getting.

Of course, in terms of actually predicting how a person will react to a given motivator, this will get pretty complicated:

1. People do not have complete information about how others are rewarded. So they are going on perceptions, rumors, and inferences.
2. Some people are more sensitive to equity issues than others
3. Some people are willing to ignore short-term inequities as long as they expect things to work out in the long-term.

2.5.7 Expectancy Theory (Vroom)

This theory is meant to bring together many of the elements of previous theories. It combines the perceptual aspects of equity theory with the behavioral aspects of the other theories. Basically, it comes down to this "equation":

$$M=E*I*V$$

or

$$\text{motivation} = \text{expectancy} * \text{instrumentality} * \text{valence}$$

M (motivation) is the amount a person will be motivated by the situation they find themselves in. It is a function of the following.

E (expectancy) = The person's perception that effort will result in performance. In other words, the person's assessment of the degree to which effort actually correlates with performance.

I (instrumentality) = The person's perception that performance will be rewarded/punished. I.e., the person's assessment of how well the amount of reward

correlates with the quality of performance. (Note here that the model is phrased in terms of extrinsic motivation, in that it asks 'what are the chances I'm going to get rewarded if I do good job?'. But for intrinsic situations, we can think of this as asking 'how good will I feel if I can pull this off?').

$V(\text{valence})$ = The perceived strength of the reward or punishment that will result from the performance. If the reward is small, the motivation will be small, even if expectancy and instrumentality are both perfect (high).

2.5.8 Reinforcement Theory

Operant Conditioning is the term used by B.F. Skinner to describe the effects of the consequences of a particular behavior on the future occurrence of that behavior. There are four types operant conditioning: Positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement, Punishment, and Extinction. Both positive and negative reinforcement strengthen behavior while both punishment and extinction weaken behavior.

1. Positive reinforcement. Strengthening a behavior. This is the process of getting as a consequence of a behavior. Making a sale, getting a commission. You do a good job, you get bonus and a promotion.
2. Negative reinforcement. Strengthening a behavior. This is the process of having a stressor taken away as a consequence of a behavior. Long-term sanctions are removed from countries when their human rights records improve.
3. Extinction. Weakening of behavior. This is the process of getting nothing when do a behavior. So if person does extra effort, but gets no thanks for it, they stop doing it.
4. Punishment. Weakening a behavior. This is the process of getting a punishment as consequence of behavior. Example having your pay reduced.



Table 2.5.8: Reinforcement Theory

	Apply	Withhold
Reward	Positive reinforcement (raise above baseline)	Negative reinforcement (raise up to baseline)
Stressor	Punishment (bring down below baseline)	Extinction (stay at baseline)

The traditional reinforcement schedule is called a continuous reinforcement schedule. Each time the correct behavior is performed it gets reinforced.

Then there is what we call an intermittent reinforcement schedule. There fixed and variable categories.

The fixed Interval Schedule is where reinforcement is only given after a certain amount of time has elapsed. The Fixed Ratio Schedule is where the reinforcement is given only after a predetermined number of responses. This is often seen in behavior chains where a number of behaviors have to occur for reinforcement to occur.

The Variable Interval Schedule is where the reinforcement is given after varying amounts of time between each reinforcement.

The Variable Ratio Schedule is where the reinforcement is given after a varying number of correct responses. Fluctuating combinations of primary and secondary reinforcers fall under another terms in the variable ratio schedule.

Table 2.5.8 Fixed and Variable

	FIXED	VARIABLE
Interval	Give reward after first proper response following a specified time period (yearly rise) [short term]	Give reward after a certain amount of time w/ the amount changing before the next reward (unexpected bonus based on merit) [medium term]
Ratio	Punishment (subtract from baseline) (commissions or piecework pay) [medium term]	Give reward after a number of responses w/ that number changing before the next reward (team-based bonus) [long term]

2.5.9 Douglas McGregor - theory x y

McGregor's X-Y theory is a salutary and simple reminder of the natural rules for managing people, which under the pressure of day-to-day business are all too easily forgotten.

McGregor maintained that there are two fundamental approaches to managing people. Many managers tend towards theory x, and generally get poor results. Enlightened managers use theory y, which produces better performance and results, and allows people to grow and develop.

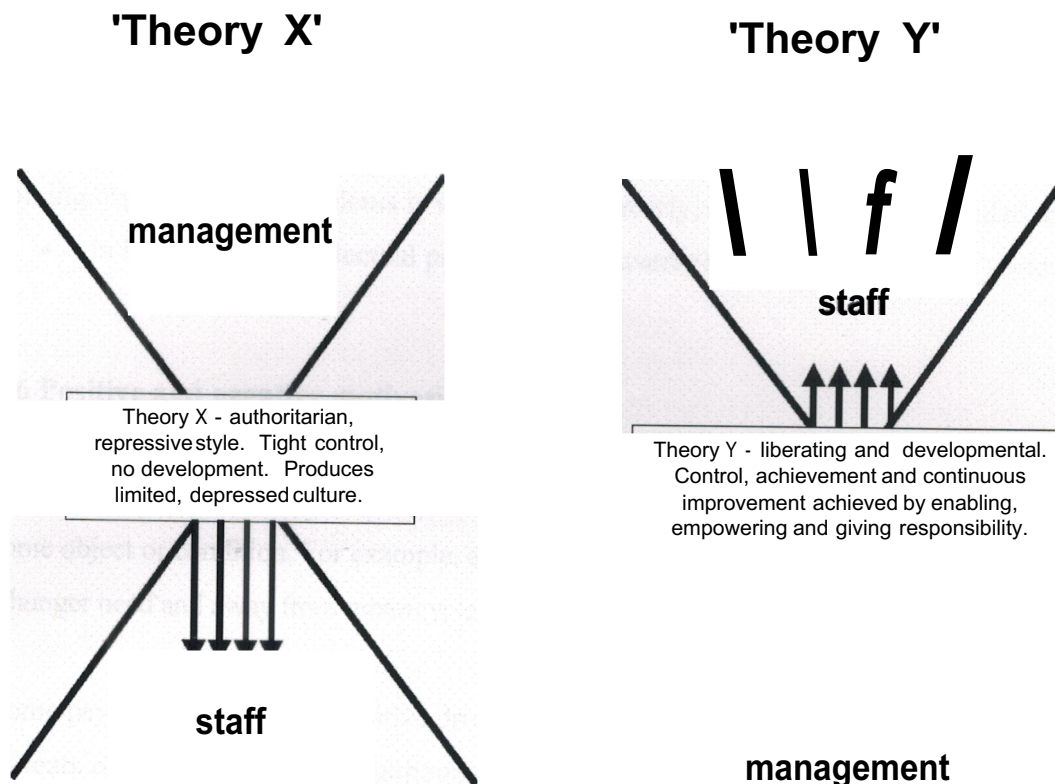


Figure 2.5.9 Douglas McGregor - theory x y

Theory x ('authoritarian management' style)

- The average person dislikes work and will avoid it he/she can.
- Therefore most people must be forced with the threat of punishment to work towards organizational objectives.
- The average person prefers to be directed; to avoid responsibility; is relatively unambitious, and wants security above all else.

Theory y ('participative management' style)

- Effort in work is as natural as work and play.
- People will apply self-control and self-direction in the pursuit of organizational objectives, without external control or the threat of punishment.

- Commitment to objectives is a function of rewards associated with their achievement.
- People usually accept and often seek responsibility.
- The capacity to use a high degree of imagination, ingenuity and creativity in solving organizational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.
- In industry the intellectual potential of the average person is only partly utilized.

2.6 Positive and negative motivation

Motivation can be positive or negative in direction. We may feel a driving force toward some object or condition. For example, a person may be impelled toward a restaurant to fulfill a hunger need and away from motorcycle transportation to fulfill a safety need.

Some psychologists refer to positive drives as needs, wants, or desire, and to negative drives as fears or aversion. However, although positive and negative motivational forces seem to differ dramatically in terms of physical (and sometimes emotional).

Activity, they are basically similar in that both serve to initiate and sustain human behavior.

Sometimes a distinction is made between positive and negative motivation. Positive motivation is a response which includes enjoyment and optimism about the tasks that you are involved in. Negative motivation involves undertaking tasks because there will be undesirable outcomes, eg. failing a subject, if tasks are not completed.

What seems to work best for most people is to understand that both positive and negative motivation are useful, and that sometimes students will need to search for motivation.

Goals, too, can be positive or negative. A positive goal is toward which behavior is directed and thus is often referred to as an approach object. A negative goal is one from which behavior is directed away and thus is sometimes referred to as an avoidance

object. Since both approach and avoidance goals can be considered objects of motivated behavior, most researchers refer to both simply as goals.

2.6.1 Personal Values and Negative Motivation

If we engage in a behavior frequently, we might conclude that we value this activity and the goal to which it is directed. This may in fact be true, but when we think about our actions, we may determine that we do not value the activity highly, do not enjoy it that much, and fail to understand why we keep doing it. For example, we may continue to party and watch TV a lot even though we see little value in these activities and derive little pleasure from them.

Negative motivation can explain why we continue to do things we do not value. We may not value the activity, but probably value the role it plays in helping us to escape or avoid something else. We may not really value partying, but instead value the fact that it keeps us from thinking about all the work we have to do. Similarly, watching TV may provide a distraction from doing something viewed as unpleasant (revising a paper perhaps).

In these instances, negative motivation has "practical value." Thus, understanding the practical value of our negative motivation can help us clarify our values (C), which sets the stage for managing our motivation.

2.6.2 Personal Values and Positive Motivation

It is possible to be dissatisfied with the values reflected in our actions even though they are positively motivated.

We may really enjoy an activity, see value in it, and be quite proficient at it, but wish we were not so highly motivated in this regard. Our dissatisfaction could stem from a suspicion that more worthwhile activities and goals could be occupying our time. If we knew what they were, we might be more highly motivated toward them than the ones we currently pursue.

At the risk of oversimplification, the solution to this problem lies in educating ourselves - learning what people have discovered to be of lasting value since they first reflected on

the meaning and purpose of life. In educating ourselves, we clarify our values, change old ones, and acquire new ones.

2.6.3 Change of Values

In the course of our lives, all of us will experience a lack or loss of motivation toward a goal that was once highly valued and desirable.

This can happen with anything we label "work," particularly if it becomes associated with negative thoughts and feelings. For example, we may be highly motivated to achieve at work, but if we become bored and disinterested, the motivation may shift from positive to negative. We then stay on the job not because we enjoy and value it, but because we value what it keeps away (unemployment or threats to our self-esteem, for example). If we wish to experience all the benefits of positive motivation, we need to rekindle excitement and interest by finding value in what we are doing.

2.7 Primary Motives

Psychologists do not totally agree on how to classify the various human motives, but they would acknowledge that some motives are unlearned and physiologically based. Such motives are variously called *physiological*, *biological*, *unlearned*, or *primary*. The last term is used here because it is more comprehensive than the others. The use of the term primary does not imply that group of motives always takes precedence over the general and secondary motives.

Although the precedence of primary motives is implying in some motivation theories, there are many situations in which general and secondary motives. Common examples are celibacy among priests and fasting for a religious, social, or political cause. In both cases, learned secondary motives are stronger than unlearned primary motives.

Two criteria must be met in order for a motive to be included in the primary classification: it must be unlearned, and it must be physiological based. Thus defined, the most commonly recognized primary motives include hunger, thirst, and sleep, avoidance of pain, sex, and maternal concern. Because people have the same basic physiological make-up, they will all

have essentially the same. This is not true of the learned secondary needs.

2.8 General Motives

A separate classification for general motives is not always given. Yet such a category seems necessary because there are a number of motives which lie in the gray area between the primary and secondary classification. To be included in the general category, a motive must be unlearned but not physiological based. While the primary needs seek to reduce the tension or stimulation, these general needs induce the person to increase the amount of stimulation. Thus, these needs are sometimes called (stimulus motives). Although not all psychologists would agree, the motives of curiosity, manipulation, activity, and affection seem best to meet the criteria for this classification. An understanding of these general motives is important to the study of human behavior - especially in organization behavior than primary motives.

2.8.1 The curiosity, manipulation, and activity motives

Early psychologists noted that the animals used in their experiments seemed to have an unlearned drive to explore, to manipulation objects, or just to be active. This was especially true of monkeys that were placed in an unfamiliar or novel situation. These observations and speculations about the existence of curiosity, manipulation, and activity motives in monkeys were later substantiated through experimentation. In this case, psychologists feel completely confident in generalizing the result of animal experiment to humans. It is general recognized that human curiosity, manipulation, and activity drives are quite intense; anyone who has reared or been around small children will quickly support this generalization.

2.9 Secondary Motives

Whereas the general drives seem relatively more important than the primary ones to the study of human behavior in organization, the secondary drives are unquestionable the most important. As a human society develops economically and becomes more complex, the primary drives, and to a lesser degree the general drives, gives way to the learned secondary drives in motivation behavior. With some glaring exceptions that have yet to be eradicated, the motives of hunger and thirst are not dominant among people living in the economically

developed western world.

This situation is obviously subject to change; for example, the population bomb or the green house effect may later certain human needs. But for learned secondary motives dominate. Secondary motives are closely tied learning concepts, in partially; the learning principle of reinforcements is conceptually and practically related to motivation. The relationship is obvious when reinforcements is divided into primary and secondary categories and is portrayed as incentives. Although some discussions regard reinforcements as simply a consequence serving to increase the motivation to perform the behavior again.

A motivation must be learned in order to be included in primary and secondary classification. Numerous important human motives meet this criterion.

2.10 Keller's ARCS Model for Motivation

John Keller synthesized existing research on psychological motivation and created the ARCS model (Keller, 1987). ARCS stands for Attention, Relevance, Confidence, and Satisfaction. This model is not intended to stand apart as a separate system for instructional design, but can be incorporated within Gagne's events of instruction.

Attention The first and single most important aspect of the ARCS model is gaining and keeping the learner's attention, which coincides with the first step in Gagne's model. Keller's strategies for attention include sensory stimuli (as discussed previously), inquiry arousal (thought provoking questions), and variability (variance in exercises and use of media).

Relevance Attention and motivation will not be maintained, however, unless the learner believes the training is relevant. Put simply, the training program should answer the critical question, "What's in it for me?" Benefits should be clearly stated. For a sales training program, the benefit might be to help representatives increase their sales and personal commissions. For a safety training program, the benefit might be to reduce the number of workers getting hurt. For a software training program, the benefit to users

could be to make them more productive or reduce their frustration with an application. A healthcare program might have the benefit that it can teach doctors how to treat certain patients.

Confidence The confidence aspect of the ARCS model is required so that students feel that they should put a good faith effort into the program. If they think they are incapable of achieving the objectives or that it will take too much time or effort, their motivation will decrease. In technology-based training programs, students should be given estimates of the time required to complete lessons or a measure of their progress through the program.

Satisfaction Finally, learners must obtain some type of satisfaction or reward from the learning experience. This can be in the form of entertainment or a sense of achievement. A self-assessment game, for example, might end with an animation sequence acknowledging the player's high score. A passing grade on a post-test might be rewarded with a completion certificate. Other forms of external rewards would include praise from a supervisor, a raise, or a promotion. Ultimately, though, the best way for learners to achieve satisfaction is for them to find their new skills immediately useful and beneficial on their job.

The success or failure of any e-learning initiative can be closely correlated to learner motivation. Remember the ARCS model when designing any program.

David C. McClelland's motivational needs theory American David Clarence McClelland (1917-98) achieved his doctorate in psychology at Yale in 1941 and became professor at Wesleyan University. He then taught and lectured, including a spell at Harvard from 1956, where with colleagues for twenty years he studied particularly motivation and the achievement need. He began his McBer consultancy in 1963, helping industry assess and train staff, and later taught at Boston University, from 1987 until his death. McClelland is chiefly known for his work on achievement motivation, but his research interests extended to personality and consciousness. David McClelland pioneered workplace motivational thinking, developing achievement-based motivational theory and models,

and promoted improvements in employee assessment methods, advocating competency-based assessments and tests, arguing them to be better than traditional IQ and personality-based tests. His ideas have since been widely adopted in many organisations, and relate closely to the theory of Frederick Herzberg.

David McClelland is most noted for describing three types of motivational need, which he identified in his 1988 book, Human Motivation:

- achievement motivation (n-ach)
- authority/power motivation (n-paw)
- affiliation motivation (n-affil)

2.10.1 David McClelland's needs-based motivational model

These needs are found to varying degrees in all workers and managers, and this mix of motivational needs characterises a person's or manager's style and behaviour, both in terms of being motivated, and in the management and motivation others.

The need for achievement (n-ach)

The n-ach person is 'achievement motivated' and therefore seeks achievement, attainment of realistic but challenging goals, and advancement in the job. There is a strong need for feedback as to achievement and progress, and a need for a sense of accomplishment.

The need for authority and power (n-paw)

The n-pow person is 'authority motivated'. This driver produces a need to be influential, effective and to make an impact. There is a strong need to lead and for their ideas to prevail. There is also motivation and need towards increasing personal status and prestige.

The need for affiliation (n-affil)

The n-affil person is 'affiliation motivated', and has a need for friendly relationships and is motivated towards interaction with other people. The affiliation driver produces motivation and need to be liked and held in popular regard. These people are team players.

McClelland said that most people possess and exhibit a combination of these characteristics. Some people exhibit a strong bias to a particular motivational need, and this motivational or needs 'mix' consequently affects their behaviour and working/managing style. McClelland suggested that a strong n-affil 'affiliation-motivation' undermines a manager's objectivity, because of their need to be liked, and that this affects a manager's decision-making capability. A strong n-pow 'authority-motivation' will produce a determined work ethic and commitment to the organisation, and while n-pow people are attracted to the leadership role, they may not possess the required flexibility and people-centred skills. McClelland argues that n-ach people with strong 'achievement motivation' make the best leaders, although there can be a tendency to demand too much of their staff in the belief that they are all similarly and *highly* achievement-focused and results driven, which of course most people are not.

McClelland's particular fascination was for achievement motivation, and this laboratory experiment illustrates one aspect of his theory about the affect of achievement on people's motivation. McClelland asserted via this experiment that while most people do not possess a strong achievement-based motivation, those who do, display a consistent behaviour in setting goals:

Volunteers were asked to throw rings over pegs rather like the fairground game; no distance was stipulated, and most people seemed to throw from arbitrary, random distances, sometimes close, sometimes farther away. However a small group of volunteers, whom McClelland suggested were strongly achievement-motivated, took some care to measure and test distances to produce an ideal challenge - not too easy, and not impossible. Interestingly a parallel exists in biology, known as the 'overload

principle', which is commonly applied to fitness and exercising, ie., in order to develop fitness and/or strength the exercise must be sufficiently demanding to increase existing levels, but not so demanding as to cause damage or strain. McClelland identified the same need for a 'balanced challenge' in the approach of achievement-motivated people.

McClelland contrasted achievement-motivated people with gamblers, and dispelled a common pre-conception that n-ach 'achievement-motivated' people are big risk takers. On the contrary - typically, achievement-motivated individuals set goals which they can influence with their effort and ability, and as such the goal is considered to be achievable. This determined results-driven approach is almost invariably present in the character make-up of all successful business people and entrepreneurs.

McClelland suggested other characteristics and attitudes of achievement-motivated people:

- Achievement is more important than material or financial reward.
- Achieving the aim or task gives greater personal satisfaction than receiving praise or recognition.
- Financial reward is regarded as a measurement of success, not an end in itself.
- Security is not prime motivator, nor is status.
- Feedback is essential, because it enables measurement of success, not for reasons of praise or recognition (the implication here is that feedback must be reliable, quantifiable and factual).
- Achievement-motivated people constantly seek improvements and ways of doing things better.
- Achievement-motivated people will logically favor jobs and responsibilities that naturally satisfy their needs, i.e. offer flexibility and opportunity to set and achieve goals, e.g., sales and business management, and entrepreneurial roles.

McClelland firmly believed that achievement-motivated people are generally the ones who make things happen and get results, and that this extends to getting results through the organisation of other people and resources, although as stated earlier, they often

demand too much of their staff because they prioritise achieving the goal above the many varied interests and needs of their people.

2.11 Three key points about motivation

Motivation is just one of several possible determinants of job performance. Just because someone performs well at a task does not mean that he or she is highly motivated. This person actually may be very skillful but not be putting forth much effort at all. If you are mathematical genius, for example, you may breeze through your calculus class without trying. By contrast, someone who performs poorly may be putting forth a great deal of effort but may be falling short of a desired goal because he or she lacks the skill needed to succeed. If you have ever tried to learn a new sport but found that you couldn't get the hang of it no matter how hard you tried, you know what we mean.

Motivation is multifaceted by this; we mean that people may have several different motives operation at once. Sometimes, these may conflict. For example, a word processing operator might be motivated to please his boss by being as productive as possible. However, being too productive may antagonize his coworkers, who fear that they are being made to look bad. The result is that the two motives may pull the individual in different direction, and the one that predominates is the one that's stronger in that situation. These examples clearly show that motivation is a complex and important concept in the field of organization behavior.

People are motivated by more than just money:

Surveys show Americans would continue working even if they didn't need the money. Although money certainly is important to people, they are motivated to attain many other goals on the job as well. Because technological advance have taken the drudgery out of many jobs, today's workers are motivated by the prospect of performing jobs that interesting and challenging not just jobs that pay well. They also seek jobs actively involve them in the success of the business and reward them.

2.12 Employee motivation in the workplace

The job of a manager in the workplace is to get things done through employees. To do this the manager should be able to motivate employees. But that's easier said than done! Motivation practice and theory are difficult subjects, touching on several disciplines.

In spite of enormous research, basic as well as applied, the subject of motivation is not clearly understood and more often than not *poorly practiced*. To understand motivation one must understand human nature itself. And there lies the problem!

Human nature can be very simple, yet very complex too. An understanding and appreciation of this is a prerequisite to effective employee motivation in the workplace and therefore effective management and leadership.

Our articles on motivation theory and practice concentrate on various theories regarding human nature in general and motivation in particular. Included are articles on the practical aspects of motivation in the workplace and the research that has been undertaken in this field, notably by Douglas McGregor (theory y), Frederick Herzberg (two factor motivation hygiene theory,) Abraham Maslow (theory z, hierarchy of needs), Elton Mayo (Hawthorne Experiments) Chris Argyris Rensis Likert and David McClelland (achievement motivation.)

Why study and apply employee motivation principles?

Quite apart from the benefit and moral value of an altruistic approach to treating colleagues as human beings and respecting human dignity in all its forms, research and observations show that well motivated employees are more productive and creative. The inverse also holds true. The schematic below indicates the potential contribution the practical application of the principles this paper has on reducing work content in the organization.

Employee Motivation, the Organizational Environment and Productivity

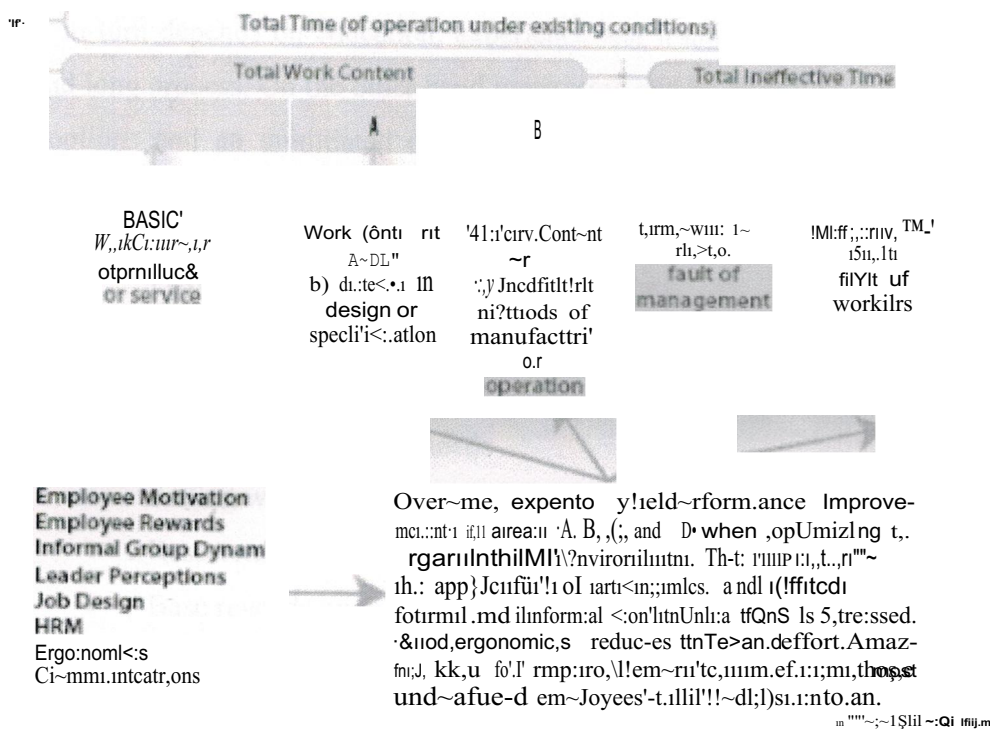


Figure 2.12 Employee motivation, the organization environments and productivity

2.12.1 Motivation is the key to performance improvement

There is an old saying you can take a horse to the water but you cannot force it to drink; it will drink only if it's thirsty - so with people. They will do what they want to do or otherwise motivated to do. Whether it is to excel on the workshop floor or in the 'ivory tower' they must be motivated or driven to it, either by themselves or through external stimulus.

Are they born with the self-motivation or drive? Yes and no. If no, they can be motivated, for motivation is a skill which can and must be learnt. This is essential for any business to survive and succeed.

Performance is considered to be a function of ability and motivation, thus:

- Job performance = f(ability)(motivation)

Ability in turn depends on education, experience and training and its improvement is a slow and long process. On the other hand motivation can be improved quickly. There are many options and an uninitiated manager may not even know where to start. As a guideline, there are broadly seven strategies for motivation.

- Positive reinforcement / high expectations
- Effective discipline and punishment
- Treating people fairly
- Satisfying employees needs
- Setting work related goals
- Restructuring jobs
- Base rewards on job performance

These are the basic strategies, though the mix in the final 'recipe' will vary from workplace situation to situation. Essentially, there is a gap between an individual's actual state and some desired state and the manager tries to reduce this gap.

Motivation is, in effect, a means to reduce and manipulate this gap. It is inducing others in a specific way towards goals specifically stated by the motivator. Naturally, these goals as also the motivation system must conform to the corporate policy of the organization. The motivational system must be tailored to the situation and to the organization.

In one of the most elaborate studies on employee motivation, involving 31,000 men and 13,000 women, the Minneapolis Gas Company sought to determine what their potential employee's desire most from a job. This study was carried out during a 20 year period from 1945 to 1965 and was quite revealing. The ratings for the various factors differed only slightly between men and women, but both groups considered security as the highest rated factor. The next three factors were;

- advancement

- type of work
- company - proud to work for

Surprisingly, factors such as pay, benefits and working conditions were given a low rating by both groups. So after all, and contrary to common belief, money is not the prime motivator. (Though this should not be regarded as a signal to reward employees poorly or unfairly.)

Application of employee motivation theory to the workplace

Management literature is replete with actual case histories of what does and what does not motivate people. Presented here is a tentative initial broad selection of the various practices that have been tried in order to draw lessons for the future.

'Stick' or 'carrot' approach?

The traditional Victorian style of strict discipline and punishment has not only failed to deliver the goods, but it has also left a mood of discontent amongst the working class. Punishment appears to have produced negative rather than positive results and has increased the hostility between 'them' (the management) and 'us' (the workers). In contrast to this, the 'carrot' approach, involving approval, praise and recognition of effort has markedly improved the work atmosphere, produced the 'goods' and given the workers enormous satisfaction.

Manager's motivation 'toolkit'

The manager's main task is to motivate his or her team, both individually and collectively so that they can deliver the 'goods' and also derive satisfaction from it.

This may appear somewhat contradictory, but it seems to work. The main tools in the manager's kitbag for motivating the team are:

- approval, praise and recognition
- trust, respect and high expectations

- loyalty, given that it may be received
- removing organizational barriers that stand in the way of individual and group performance (smooth business processes, systems, methods and resources - see outline team building program)
- job enrichment
- good communications
- financial incentives

These are arranged in order of importance and it is interesting to note that cash is way down the ladder of motivators. Let's look at a couple of examples taken from real life situations.

The Swedish shipbuilding company, Kockums, turned a 15 million dollar loss into a 100 million dollar profit in the course of ten years due entirely to a changed perception of the workforce brought about by better motivation. At Western Electric there was a dramatic improvement in output after the supervisors and managers started taking greater interest in their employees.

Don't coerce - persuade!

Persuasion is far more powerful than coercion, just as the pen is mightier than the sword. Managers have a much better chance of success if they use persuasion rather than coercion. The former builds morale, initiative and motivation, whilst the latter quite effectively kills such qualities. The three basic components in persuasion are:

- Suggest;
- Slay on the person's sentiments; and
- Appeal to logic.

Once convinced, the person is so motivated as to deliver the 'goods'. The manager will have achieved the goal quietly, gently and with the minimum of effort. It is, in effect, an effortless achievement.

There has been a considerable amount of research into persuasion / motivation in the field of advertising and marketing. The research is entirely of the applied type, which can and has been used to great practical advantage. Some of the findings in this field were first published in the fifties in a book with the title, *The Hidden Persuaders*, which became a bestseller.

More contemporary 'persuaders' used by advertising and marketing people include:

- Faster talk is found to be more effective, since it is remembered better.
- Brain emits fast beta waves when a person is really interested in a particular presentation. These waves can be detected by an instrument.
- Subliminal approach using short duration presentation, whereby the message is transmitted below the level of awareness.

Can these findings be used in actual work conditions? AT&T (The American Telephone and Telegraph Co.,) recognizing the importance of hidden needs, at one time succeeded in promoting long distance calls by use of the simple phrase: 'Reach out, reach out and touch someone'. Managers will need to adapt this persuasion / motivation technique to their own situation.

CHAPTER THREE: EMPIRICAL ANALYZING

This part of the project deals with the results of the questionnaire - the evaluation of the job situation and the satisfaction with certain job features, how much importance employees attach toward certain job features, and the evaluation of the benefits offered by the company. Moreover, the results of the interviews are presented in order to provide a better understanding of the questionnaire findings. Additionally, the empirical findings are analyzed in connection to the theoretical background. First, the examined factors are explained in order to make it easier for understanding the meaning of those terms.

- The factor skills contain to do many different things, to use a number of skills and talents to perform the work, and to have challenges in the work.
- Task identity means that a person does an entire piece of work from beginning to end.
- Task significance deals with the importance and meaningfulness of the work and its effects on other people's life.
- Autonomy refers to an individual's freedom and independence to schedule and organize his/her work.
- Feedback can be received directly from the work itself as well as from superiors, co-workers, and customers.
- The factor environment includes the relationship to co-workers, the co operation with other persons, and the work condition.
- Job security deals with the fear to lose the job.

The last factor compensation considers the salary and wages, as well as the benefits offered by the company. These benefits are the profit-sharing, subsidized lunch price and free coffee (food), sport activities paid by the company (sport), and free work clothes including the washing (work).

Skills, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback are job characteristics. They represent intrinsic motivation factors and can be related to the motivators in Herzberg's theory and the higher level needs in Maslow's hierarchy of needs. These motivators influence an employee's internal motivation and satisfaction with the job. Environment, job security, and compensation are factors, which concern the work context. Moreover, they are related to the hygiene factors in Herzberg's theory and the lower level needs in Maslow's hierarchy of needs.

These needs have, according to the before mentioned theories, to be fulfilled to a certain degree before higher level needs may occur to a higher extent. Furthermore, they do not lead to satisfaction with the work, but decrease the level of dissatisfaction of an employee and influence a person's willingness to take advantage of challenges in the work. Likewise, the importance of the environment was which identified social relations as the source of motivation.

The factors examined in this study are "arjaly~r~~ individual characteristics of the sample— age, gender, marital sf s, blue-collar/white-collar-er, leading/non-leading position, and the years in the company. In the following analysis some comparisons are presented.

3.1 Age

When the responses in terms of the work situation and satisfaction were analyzed according to three age groups, weak differences were found. In terms of skills, task identity, task significance, autonomy, feedback, and environment a tendency of increasing satisfaction with the job with increasing age of the employees can be noticed. Thereby, the differences regarding skills, task significance, and autonomy are weak.

These factors are of an intrinsic nature, inherent in the work itself. In other words, older people seem to receive more job satisfaction out of the intrinsic motivation factors than younger people who lack those internal motivators to a higher extent.

My interview partners argued that the weak differences might be due to the following. "Maybe older people have got a promotion within the company. They have more experiences and do more advanced things. For instance, in the factory young people start in the assembling with easy things and get more advanced things to do later on." "People get more responsibility and difficult tasks with the age.

The performance of more advanced things leads to more autonomy; more decisions have to be made". Another interviewee linked the age to the years in the company and pointed out, "when you are a couple of years in the company maybe you have been promoted, your skills are better used, and you feel more comfortable with what you are doing." Moreover, it was mentioned, "superiors rather talk to older people who have been longer here. The younger persons do not always get so much feedback than the older ones."

It can be stated that people experience their work as more meaningful (skill variety, task identity, and task significance), experience more responsibility for the outcomes of the work (autonomy), and have a higher knowledge of the actual results of the work activities (feedback) with increasing age. That leads in turn to a higher internal work motivation and satisfaction with the work, which increases in the age.

In terms of the importance attached to the job features examined in the questionnaire -skills, task identity, task significance, autonomy, feedback, environment, job security, and compensation - no strong or weak differences among the age groups could be noticed. In other words, younger and older people evaluated the job features similar.

However, there seems to be a tendency that the older people get the less importance do they attach to feedback. With regard to the feedback, the following remarks were given during the interviews. It was pointed out, "when you get older you know if you do a good job since you got more experiences.

You know if your performance is good or not by your self. Older persons do not need so

much feedback than younger people; they rely more on themselves." Another interviewee argued, "older people are used to get feedback and therefore do not attach so much importance to it, whereas younger people do not receive so much feedback."

The evaluation of the importance of the benefits offered by the company showed no differences among the age groups evaluated the benefits according to the following order: (1) profit, (2) work, (3) and (4) food and drinks.

Thereby, the profit and the work benefits are evaluated as very important.

Considering the whole, younger as well as older people evaluate certain job factors in the same way, but differ in their satisfaction with those job characteristics, in particular with the intrinsic factors, due to the extent that these features are present in their job.

An individual's motivation, job satisfaction, and job performance is determined by the comparative strength of economic rewards, intrinsic satisfaction and social relationships, as well as their satisfaction.

The comparison between the situation at work and the importance of the job shows that older people seem to be more motivated and perceive job satisfaction to a higher extent than younger people. Moreover, the comparison between the actual situation and what employees find important at work suggests differences in all age segments. The current situation and satisfaction with certain job factors was mostly rated lower than the importance of that job features.

That finding may serve as a starting point to think about what the reasons are and how to increase the job satisfaction. Therefore, more detailed information is given regarding the single age groups.

3.2 Gender

no men cleaner!

Women evaluated the job factors higher than men, except for task identity and feedback, which are evaluated higher by men. However, except for the environment which shows a weak difference, strong or weak differences cannot be stated.

Generally speaking, except for the environmental aspect, there seem to be no differences among men and women in terms of job satisfaction.

The difference regarding the environment (co-operation with other persons, good relationship to co-workers, and a good work environment) can, according to the interviewees, be due to the fact that the majority of women are working in offices, whereas most of the male persons are working in the production. Furthermore, it was pointed out that women are more satisfied with what they have and do not complain so much.

Considering the actual situation and the job characteristics, there are no differences in terms of skill variety, task identity, and task significance.

Therefore, it can be stated that men and women perceive their work as meaningful to the same extent.

In addition, in view of autonomy and feedback it can be said that men and women feel to the same extent that the work outcome depends on their own efforts and there is no difference regarding the knowledge of the work results.

Hence, there seem to be no differences in the motivation and satisfaction with the work regarding the gender.

Women always attached more importance to the respective job features than men did. However, strong or weak differences cannot be stated. During the interviews it was

argued that women like more freedom in their job than men do and are not used to deciding, whereas men are used to deciding.

Taking into consideration the comparative strength of the economic rewards, intrinsic satisfaction, and social relationships, and the extent to which they are fulfilled, no differences in the work motivation and satisfaction can be noticed in reference to the gender.

3.3 Marital status

The responses in terms of the situation at work and the satisfaction with work, analyzed regarding the marital status, showed that married people evaluated the job factors, even if only to a minor extent, higher than unmarried. However, strong and weak differences between married and unmarried persons regarding the work situation and the satisfaction with the work cannot be stated.

However, the interviewees gave some explanations for the higher evaluation of the job factors by married persons. "Married persons have a high responsibility for wife or husband and children. They have to be secure about their work and perceive a need to climb in the career, and feel more satisfied." Furthermore, it was pointed out, "Married people feel that they have to find the work interesting because they know that they cannot afford to be unemployed since they will not have so much money anymore."

Additionally, "they cannot quite their job and move somewhere, because they have maybe children and their wives or husbands work in that area as well." In contrast, "single persons have to think only about themselves, they are free to go and to do whatever they want."

Moreover, it was argued, "if you are married, have a family, a house of your own, have reached everything what you wanted to reach for the life you live outside the work you can take all the time you need to make your work more interesting". In

contrast, "young, unmarried persons often see their job just as a way to earn money, but not as the interesting part of the life. They always plan to do something, even if it is only to go out on the evening or what to do next week. They take their jobs not some serious than older persons."

With regard to the environment some interviewees argued, "Married persons might have another view about how to work together in a group than unmarried persons."

"When a person is married, has a family, lives together with someone that person has to deal all the time - give and take. Single person do not have to do that; they do not have to co-operate with anyone at home, and are maybe more selfish."

In respect to the comparison, no differences among the groups can be identified. In other words, married and unmarried persons lack the same factors. Both groups experience a strong difference regarding the feedback.

Thus, special attention should be given to the aspect of feedback. More feedback would provide the employees (married and unmarried persons) with more knowledge of the outcome of their work. That in turn will lead to an increase in the internal motivation, work effectiveness, and job satisfaction.

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position

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Leading persons evaluated all factors of the job higher than non-leading persons did. The differences between leading persons and non-leading persons may be due to a broader work area and a higher responsibility of leading persons, which in turn lead to the necessity to use a variety of skills and to perform a work from beginning to end. Furthermore, the work is experienced as interesting and meaningful, as important for other people, and offers a very high degree of autonomy.

According to my interviewees, leading persons have a larger work field, more responsibility, more freedom and independence, more variety in their job, use more skills, do things from beginning to end, have been working a long time in the company, and are paid better than non-leading persons.

The jobs of leading persons seem to offer a higher motivating potential than non-leading positions. However, the factor feedback still shows weak differences. Therefore, some attention should be given to that aspect in order to increase the knowledge of the actual outcomes-of the work. That in turn will lead to higher personal outcomes and work outcomes such as job satisfaction and work effectiveness. The same is true for the jobs of non-leading positions. Furthermore, in terms of non-leading positions, increases in the variety of skills and task significance would contribute to a higher experienced meaningfulness and therefore increase the internal motivation and satisfaction with the work. In addition, the consideration of the data given by non-leading persons reveals weak differences regarding the environmental aspect and compensation.

3.5 Years in the company

When the responses were analyzed with regard to the years people have been working in the company, some interesting findings can be seen.

After more than 10 years a sharp increase in the satisfaction of employees can be recognized in terms of using a variety of skills, task identity, and the meaningfulness and interest of the job. This can be explained according to the interviewees by the fact that "when a person is longer in the company his/her skills are more used. This is true all over the company including the factory. Usually the employees do not stay at the same job over 20 years, at least most of them.

For instance some of the employees from the factory have a job in the office now." "With increasing years in the company the persons get more tasks, are able to do more

things by themselves, and may perceive his/her job as more meaningful and interesting." Furthermore, "the company normally selects people inside the organization when a person is needed for a new job.

"Moreover, "employees often listen to a person who is working a long time in the company since that person has more experience." Additionally, "employees gain more knowledge about the company with the years working here, and see the company and the work in another way."

Moreover, it was mentioned that the longer a person is in the company the higher up that person is in the organization and therefore has more challenges and responsibility in the work performance.

Another interesting fact is the high increase in job security after 5 years and its persistence. This can be due to the fact that during the last years a lot of persons were employed, and to the Swedish law, which states that the person last employed has to be fired first in the case that reductions in the personnel have to be made.

Furthermore, the development of the company and its steadily increasing success might have contributed to the high level of job security perceived by the employees as well.

In terms of the environment it was argued that a person working a long time in the company, for instance more than 10 years, is working hard and has maybe little time to talk to his/her co-workers about other things than work. Moreover, it was mentioned that persons who have been in the company for more than 10 years maybe leave soon and therefore consider the environmental aspects as not so important anymore. In addition, it was pointed out that people who are a long time in the company know most of the people, and feel comfortable with their environment and therefore do not attribute as much importance to it as persons who have not been there such a long time. Furthermore, it was argued that people at middle age and over have more experiences and work on their own

to a high extent.

Therefore, they do not need feedback from other persons all the time, and do not need to discuss things (depends on the kind of work). The evaluation of the benefits shows no differences except for the food. Persons have been working in the company from 2 to 5 years evaluated the food benefit, to a weak extent, higher than persons working in the company less than 2 and from more than 5 to 10 years.

3.6 Similarities among the groups

In general, the comparison of the data in terms of the work situation and the satisfaction with the work permits the following order of the aspects: (1) job security, (2) environment, (3) compensation, (4) autonomy, (5) task significance, (6) skills and task identity, and (7) feedback.

3.7 External factors influencing the motivation of the employees

During the interviews I received the following information. "Most of the employees are from this area and have lived here all their life. If people are born in this area and start working here, they do not move later on."

"Persons who have a house here do not move easily. They have their family mostly in the Island. Most people stay in this area when they live here". "There is a bigger risk that people from other cities who are working here change the job, because they are more flexible." The unemployment rate is quite high today, therefore, it might be not so easy to find a new job in North Cyprus. If people work here they rather stay here instead of looking for another job. You know what you have, what your work is, how the persons are you work together with.

All these aspects may contribute to the organizational commitment, in particular to the behavioral commitment. That means the facts mentioned above contribute to an

individual's desire to stay in the company instead of looking around for another employer. Thereby, the payment level, benefits, work condition, and job security in comparison to other employers, low mobility, amount of employers, and the economic situation are of importance.

CHAPTER FUOR: PROBLEMS OF NEU

7

4.1 How can NEU management improve their Educational Staff?

In order to be successful, every organization needs the commitment of employees. That includes the commitment to act toward the goals of the organization, as well as the commitment to stay in the organization.

Highly committed persons expend considerable efforts toward the achievement of organization's goals and values and may represent a corporate strategic advantage especially in a rapidly changing world. The achievement of organizational commitment, however, is not easy since it may be influenced by personal and organizational factors (Schultz and Schultz, 1998).

The knowledge about what motivates and satisfies people at work may be essential to generate such commitment. In other words, an organization has to be aware of what motivates and satisfies the employees at work in order to stimulate them to perform their job as best as possible and to remain in the organization.

The knowledge about similarities and differences in the motivation of employees may make it easier for the organization to motivate them and to generate organizational commitment. Thereby, the consideration of individual characteristics such as age, gender, work area, and years a person has been working in the organization may provide useful information.

General personal features, which can be easily used to distinguish persons from each other, are considered as individual characteristics in this study.

These characteristics do not represent very individual traits such as endurance and ambition. They can be recognized easily, and their destination requires no research or personal assessment. A group of employees sharing the same individual features ma have

the same needs and expectations toward work and may be satisfied in the same way.

Information about the extent to which certain factors of motivation and job satisfaction are present at work and information about the importance, which is attributed to those factors by the employees, may offer valuable clues to the field of motivation. A comparison of this data may reveal factors whose enhancement may cause higher motivation and job satisfaction of the work force.

The following questions will guide NEU to research process in order to gain a deeper knowledge about the motivation of its employees.

What are the most critical factors for motivation and job satisfaction 'in NEU?

To what extent are these factors present in NEU?

How important are these factors for the employees?

The last two issues will be examined regarding certain individual characteristics - age, gender, marital status, work area, position (leading /non-leading position), and the years a person has been working in the university. Furthermore, I will identify factors which are valued, but also lacked at the same time by the employees. The environmental aspect was rated as very important.

The interviewees mentioned that it is important to have a good relationship with co-workers, to be able to talk about something else other than work sometimes, to have fun together and not just to work. In addition, it was argued that the employees depend mostly on their co-workers and spend more time with them at work than with their families.

Therefore, it is important to feel comfortable with work colleagues no matter which type of work. Since people spend so many hours a day and so many days of their lives at work, the work conditions are important in order to feel comfortable. In addition, they

also mentioned that the condition of classrooms, lackness of heating system in the winter and summer affects their motivation too.

The importance of the environmental aspect is pointed out in the literature as well; for instance Maslow (1943, 1954), Herzberg (1966), and Hackman and Oldman (1980) attributed importance to it. Furthermore, the Hawthorne studies emphasized the environment, in particular the social relations, as very important for the motivation of employees.

The comparison of the benefits offered by the university suggests that ranked as very important, whereas food (lunch and free coffee or tea) seemed to be only moderately important for the employees. The benefits can be ranked as follows (1) work, (2) Environment of university, and (3) Food and Drinks.

These benefits satisfy the lower level needs according to Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Thereby, work and food serve the psychological needs, whereas the work serves to feel belonging to company as well. Environmental of NEU serves to feeling safe and comfort during their working time. In addition, the employees suggested some other benefits like Language lessons, Different education concerning the work, Opportunity to have more literature books which serves to Self - Actualizing.

A person who is satisfied with his/her work may show a higher commitment to put efforts toward the achievement of the organization's goals and will not easily change job. However, people differ; they distinguish themselves from each other regarding their needs, backgrounds, expectations, and individual characteristics. In other words, what may satisfy one employee may be different from what will satisfy another, at least in terms of the satisfaction degree. Moreover, some needs may change over time, getting stronger or weaker. This knowledge of those factors may be of great value for the NEU in order to increase the employee's motivation.

CHAPTER FIVE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 The design

This chapter describes the steps and methods that are used during the investigation of the proposed study. The first step in doing this research was the formulation of the problem and the creation of the research questions.

The research is an exploratory study, where data were collected through observation and questionnaires, trying to identify the variables that affect the dependant variable the motivation of the lecturers of NEU.

NEU lecturers where questionnaires were been gathered once between December 2005 and February 2006. Convenience samples were taken for 20 lecturers differing between their employment statuses because of the large population of the NEU lecturers. The questionnaire about motivation and work was created, based on the knowledge of the theoretical research; mainly was a combination of a nominal scale and interval scale. At this time, I also started to write the research report.

Thereby, several decisions such as the form of the questions, the language used in the questionnaire, as well as the procedure in performing the main questionnaire has to be made. After that, I gathered secondary data in the form of books and articles in order to improve my understanding of the research problem. The questionnaire was given the lecturers and one week later the questionnaires were collected and analyzing the data started.

These results were used for carrying out interviews with several lecturers in order to get a deeper understanding of the questionnaire results. After carrying out the interviews, a period of writing down the results of the main questionnaire and interviews in connection with the theoretical framework followed within some graphs

for the independent variables. During the entire time between determining the methodology and the end of writing down the analysis the frames of reference was created. Finally, the research report was completed by adding the conclusion and the closing comments.

5.2 Collection of data

The collection of data represents a prerequisite for carrying out a research and can be derived from a number of different sources. These sources are classified into secondary and primary data.

Secondary data is material that has been gathered previously, and primary data consists of new material collected by the researcher for the purpose at hand by the use of questionnaires, interviews, and participant observation.

5.2.1 Secondary data

Secondary data, in comparison with primary data holds the advantage that it is cheap and most of the time easy to access. However, it may also entail a large amount of flawed and/or inappropriate data. According to the literature, the researcher should first focus on secondary data in the process of data collection. Although a problem is not completely solved by secondary data, it contributes to a better statement of the problem under investigation. It offers improved methods or data.

I have used several forms of secondary data in my research. These include books, articles and course literature with useful information for this study. Thereby, I received not only an indication of the content as well as an idea of their quality, but I also gained a deeper understanding of the presented research problem. This secondary data was used for writing the theoretical framework and the background.

5.2.2 Primary data

Once secondary data has been examined, primary data can be selected by communication or observation. Communication involves the asking of questions to respondents in an oral or written form by the use of questionnaires. Communication may be served by mail questionnaires and interviews conducted either in person or over the telephone.

Observation means that the researcher observes particular situations in order to record facts, actions, or behaviors that may be of interest for solving the research problem. The selection of primary data by Communication is faster and cheaper than observation, and holds the advantage of versatility. Observational data is more objective and accurate due to the fact that the collected information is not influenced by a person's memory, mood, or reluctance to provide the desired data. The combination of several methods allows the researcher to consider the units under study from several directions and to enhance the understanding. The methodology employed in this research consisted of a questionnaire and the use of sample interviews. For instance, the questionnaire gathers only data about issues, which are a part of it, and may neglect other important things. This weakness might be condensate by the use of interviews additionally to the questionnaire. The use of observations was not considered since the extent to which an individual perceives satisfaction with his/her job features as well as the importance, which is attached to certain job features by this person, may be difficult to observe, particularly, in such a short time span that was available to accomplish this study.

5.3 Questionnaire about motivation and work

The primary advantage of questionnaires is the opportunity to reach a high number of respondents. Moreover, there is no interviewer bias and the costs are relatively low.

In addition, respondents may be more willing to provide information about

In addition, respondents may be more willing to provide information about certain issues, have time to answer questions, and may answer the questions at times that are convenient. On the other hand, it may consume a lot of time when waiting for answers, non response rates may be high, existing bias due to non response, especially where response is slow and certain types of questions cannot be asked.

Furthermore, misinterpretations and misrepresentations are common with questionnaires. However, provided that the survey is carried out properly, the results are reliable and represent a wider population .

5.4 Creation of the questionnaire and carrying out of the survey

The questionnaire about motivation and work was based on a job description and was addressed to every employee of in our University. The questionnaire comprised of four pages.

The questionnaire paper was given to all employees of the University. To return the questionnaire, some are returned at the same time, some are asked me to come after 2 days. The entire procedure, as well as the fact that no names and codes were written on the questionnaire, was designed to give the respondents an increased feeling of trust and to persuade them that the answers will be kept anonymously.

In order to ensure a good quality of the data in terms of representation and size of the sample, the questionnaire was distributed to 20 employees of the University, 20 questionnaires is returned.

5.5 Analysis of the questionnaire results

The questions dealt with the actual situation at work, and also considered the satisfaction

with the respective job features.

CHAPTER SIX: RESEARCH ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

In this chapter, the questionnaires which were distributed to the respondent will be analyzed and the research findings will be presented as the order of the questionnaire's questions.

The field study was conducted on NEU campus on 20 conveniently selected lecturers. The respondents are mainly from Faculty of Engineering, and Faculty of Architecture, Faculty of English and many others.

Based on the questionnaire the results are as follows:

Table 1: Not being recognized for my expertise in a particular area

Greatly reduce	Tends to reduce	No effect	Tends to increase	Greatly increases
6	7	3	2	2

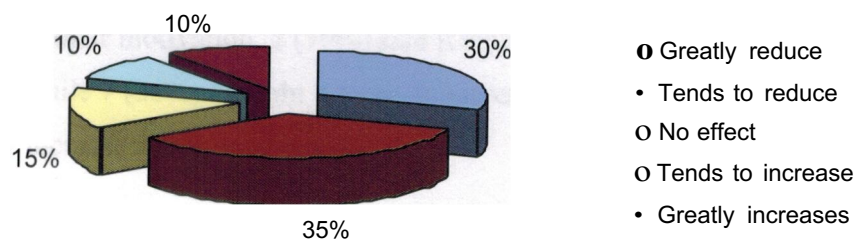


Figure 6.1: Not being recognized for my expertise in a particular area

Out of 20 respondents 6 (30%) thought that not being recognized for their expertise in a particular area greatly reduced their motivation while 7 (35%) thought that it tends to reduce motivation and 3 (15%) had no effect, 2 (10%) though it tends to increase and

greatly increases motivation.

Table 2: Working in a bureaucratic environment

Greatly reduce	Tends to reduce	No effect	Tends to increase	Greatly increases
3	2	5	7	3

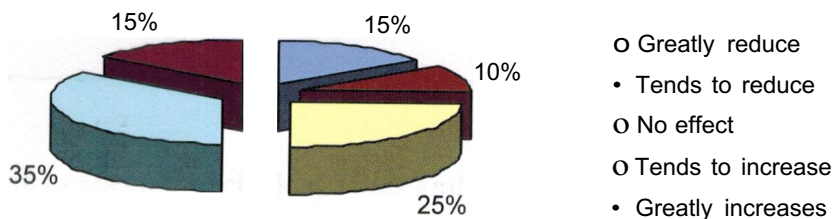


Figure 6.2: Working in a bureaucratic environment

From a total of 20 lecturers 3 (15%) said that working in a bureaucratic environment greatly reduced their motivation, 2 (10%) said it tends to reduce their motivation, 5 (25%) had no effect while 7 (35%) thought it tends to increase their motivation and 3 (15%) said that it greatly increased their motivation.

Table 3: Being expected to challenge bias and intolerance

Greatly reduce	Tends to reduce	No effect	Tends to increase	Greatly increases
7	5	4	3	1

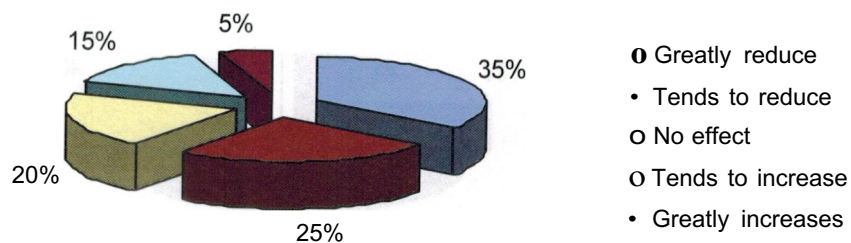


Figure 6.3: Being expected to challenge bias and intolerance

Surveying 20 respondents 7 (35%) said it greatly reduce their motivation when being expected to challenge bias and intolerance, 5 (25%) said it tends to reduce their motivation, 4 (20%) had no effect while 3 (15%) thought it tends to increase their motivation and 1 (5%) said it greatly increased motivation

Table 4: A well paid job

Greatly reduce	Tends to reduce	No effect	Tends to increase	Greatly increases
0	2	3	8	7

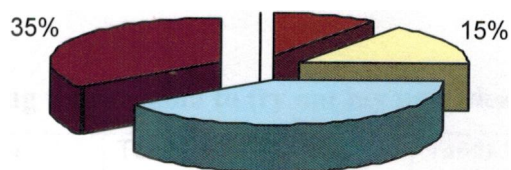
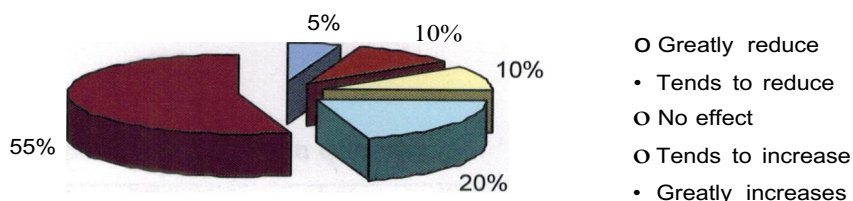


Figure 6.4: A well paid job

Out of 20 respondents no one thought that it greatly reduced their motivation when paid a higher wage, 2 (10%) though it tended to reduce their motivation, 3 (15%) had no effect when paid a higher wage while 8 (40%) said it tends to increase their motivation and 7 (35%) said it greatly increased their motivation.

Table 5: Being able to live up to people's expectations

Greatly reduce	Tends to reduce	No effect	Tends to increase	Greatly increases
1	2	2	4	11



- Greatly reduce
- Tends to reduce
- No effect
- Tends to increase
- Greatly increases

Figure 6.5: Being able to live up to people's expectations

Out of 20 respondents 1 (5%) thought that being able to live up to people's expectations greatly reduced their motivation while 2 (10%) thought that it tends to reduce motivation and 2 (10%) had no effect, 4 (20%) though it tends to increase and 11 (55%) said it greatly increases motivation.

Table 6: Having the freedom to try out my own ideas

Greatly reduce	Tends to reduce	No effect	Tends to increase	Greatly increases
2	3	1	5	9

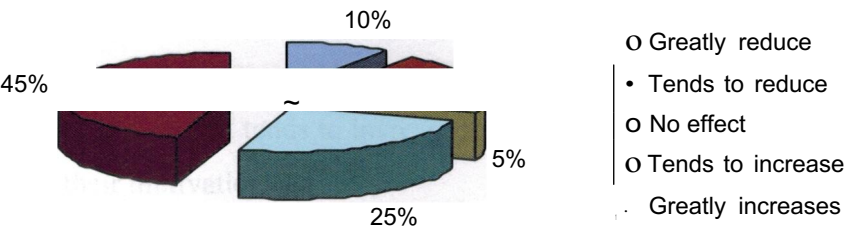


Figure 6.6: Having the freedom to try out my own ideas

When surveying 20 selected lectures 2 (10%) said it greatly reduced their motivation, 3 (15%) said it tends to reduce, 1 (5%) said it did not have any effect while 5 (25%) thought it tends to increase their motivation and 9 (45%) said it greatly increased their motivation.

Table 7: The opportunity to get on quickly

Greatly reduce	Tends to reduce	No effect	Tends to increase	Greatly increases
3	4	0	7	6

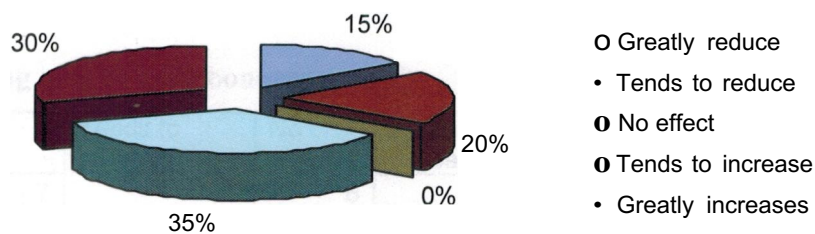


Figure 6.7: The opportunity to get on quickly

From a total of 20 lecturers 3 (15%) said that the opportunity to get on quickly greatly reduced their motivation, 4 (20%) said it tends to reduce their motivation, none had no effect while 7 (35%) thought it tends to increase their motivation and 6 (30%) said that it greatly increased their motivation.

Table 8: Having a job that is more like fun than work

Greatly reduce	Tends to reduce	No effect	Tends to increase	Greatly increases
2	1	5	6	6

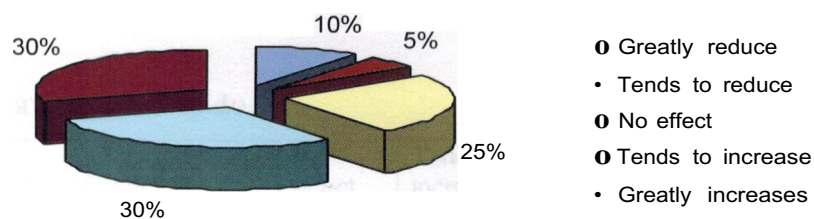


Figure 6.8: Having a job that is more like fun than work

When surveying 20 respondents 2 (10%) thought it greatly reduced their motivation, 1 (5%) said it tends to reduce motivation, 5 (25%) said it did not effect their motivation, 6 (30%) said it tends to increase and greatly increases their motivation.

Table 9: Not being able to earn bonuses

Greatly reduce	Tends to reduce	No effect	Tends to increase	Greatly increases
7	5	6	2	0

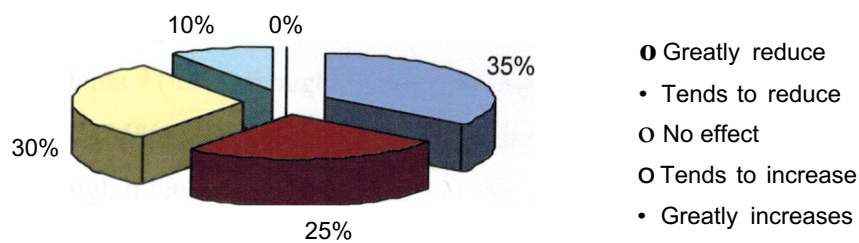


Figure 6.9: Not being able to earn bonuses

When surveying 20 respondents 7 (35%) thought it greatly reduced their motivation, 5 (25%) said it tends to reduce motivation, 6 (30%) said it did not effect their motivation, 2 (10%) said it tends to increase and none thought greatly increases their motivation.

Table 10: Not having much to do

Greatly reduce	Tends to reduce	No effect	Tends to increase	Greatly increases
9	7	0	1	3

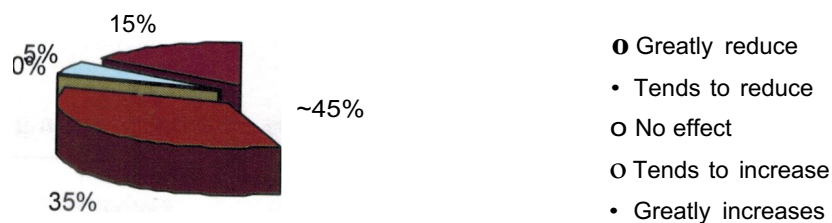


Figure 6.10: Not having much to do

Out of 20 respondents 9 (45%) thought that not having much to do greatly reduced their motivation while 7 (35%) thought that it tends to reduce motivation and no one had no effect, 1 (5%) though it tends to increase and 3 (15%) said it greatly increases motivation.

Table 11: Being expected to hide the truth

Greatly reduce	Tends to reduce	No effect	Tends to increase	Greatly increases
12	6	2	0	0

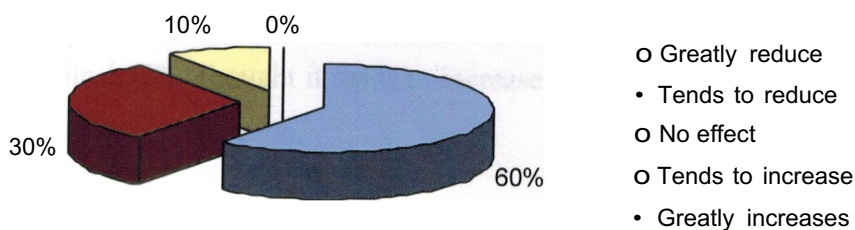


Figure 6.11: Being expected to hide the truth

From a total of 20 lecturers 12 (60%) said that being expected to hide the truth quickly greatly reduced their motivation, 6 (30%) said it tends to reduce their motivation, 2 (10%) had no effect while none thought it tends to increase their motivation and that it greatly increased their motivation.

Table 12: Having a day filled with engagements

Greatly reduce	Tends to reduce	No effect	Tends to increase	Greatly increases
3	5	8	1	3

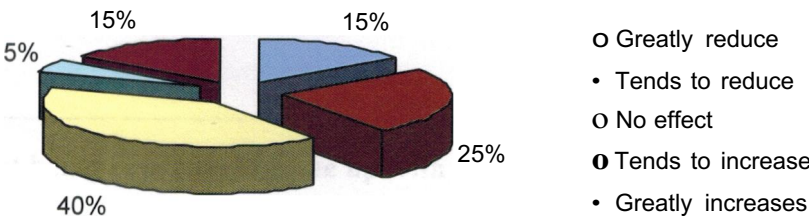


Figure 6.12: Having a day filled with engagements

From a total of 20 lecturers 3 (15%) said that having a day filled with engagements greatly reduced their motivation, 5 (25%) said it tends to reduce their motivation, 8 (40%) had no effect while 1 (5%) thought it tends to increase their motivation and 3 (15%) that it greatly increased their motivation.

Table 13: Not being expected to come up with ideas for improvements

Greatly reduce	Tends to reduce	No effect	Tends to increase	Greatly increases
7	3	3	4	3

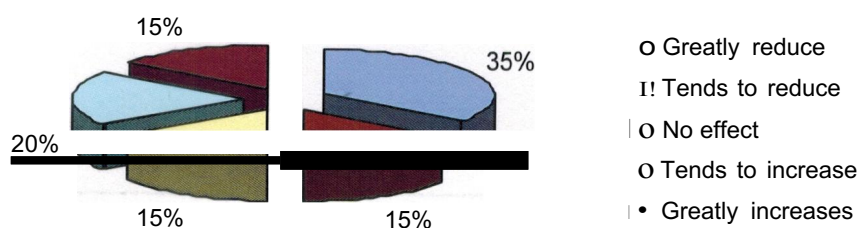


Figure 6.13: Not being expected to come up with ideas for improvements

From a total of 20 lecturers 7 (35%) said that not being expected to come up with ideas for improvements greatly reduced their motivation, 3 (15%) said it tends to reduce their motivation, 3 (15%) had no effect while 4 (20%) thought it tends to increase their motivation and 3 (15%) that it greatly increased their motivation.

Table 14: Not being accorded respect

Greatly reduce	Tends to reduce	No effect	Tends to increase	Greatly increases
8	9	3	0	0

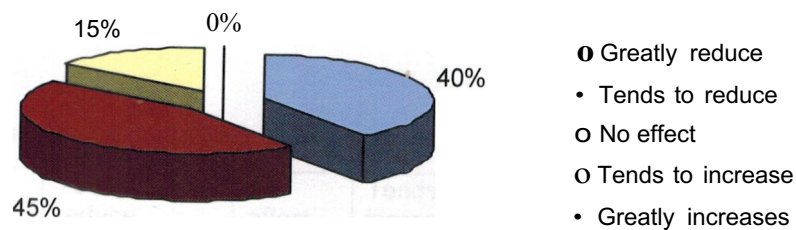


Figure 6.14: Not being accorded respect

From a total of 20 lecturers 8 (40%) said that not being accorded respect greatly reduced their motivation, 9 (45%) said it tends to reduce their motivation, 3 (15%) had no effect while none thought it tends to increase their motivation and none that it greatly increased their motivation.

Table 15: Not having control over the pace of work

Greatly reduce	Tends to reduce	No effect	Tends to increase	Greatly increases
9	6	4	1	0

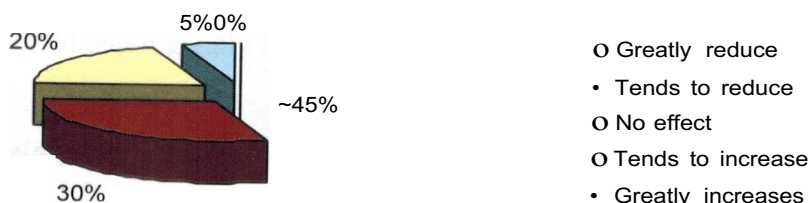


Figure 6.15: Not having control over the pace of work

From a total of 20 lecturers 9 (45%) said that Not having control over the pace of work greatly reduced their motivation, 6 (30%) said it tends to reduce their motivation, 4(20%) 1 (5%) had effect while none thought it tends to increase their motivation and none that it greatly increased their motivation.

Table16: Not having to compete with colleagues to get my views heard

Greatly reduce	Tends to reduce	No effect	Tends to increase	Greatly increases
6	8	3	2	1

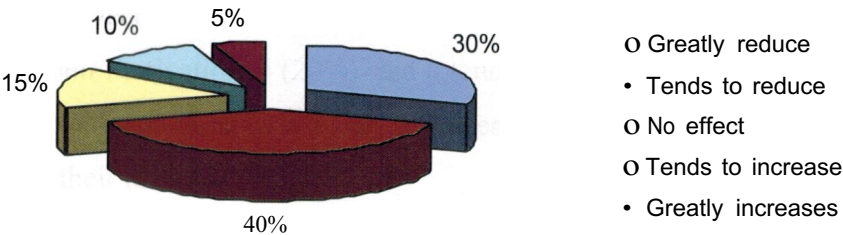


Figure 6.16: Not having to compete with colleagues to get my views heard

From a total of 20 lecturers 6 (30%) said that Not having to compete with colleagues to get my views heard greatly reduced their motivation, 8 (40%) said it tends to reduce their motivation, 3 (15%) had no effect while 2 (10%) thought it tends to increase their motivation and 1(5%) that it greatly increased their motivation.

Table 17: Not being recognized for the job I do

Greatly reduce	Tends to reduce	No effect	Tends to increase	Greatly increases
12	4	4	0	0

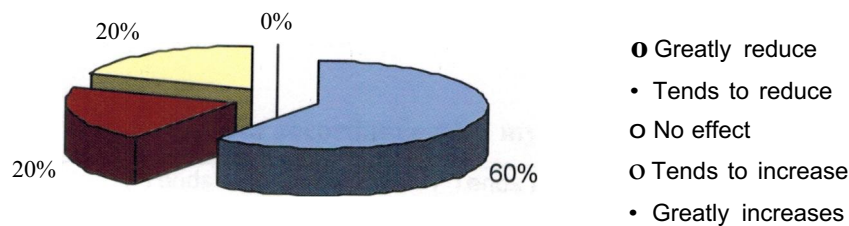


Figure 6.17: Not being recognized for the job I do

From a total of 20 lecturers 12 (60%) said that not being recognized for the job I do greatly reduced their motivation, 4 (20%) said it tends to reduce their motivation, 4 (20%) had no effect while none thought it tends to increase their motivation and none that it greatly increased their motivation.

Table 18: The risk of failing and having to change plans

Greatly reduce	Tends to reduce	No effect	Tends to increase	Greatly increases
6	9	5	0	0

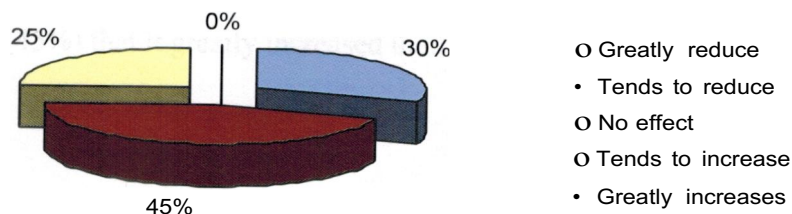


Figure 6.18: The risk of failing and having to change plans

From a total of 20 lecturers 6 (30%) said that the risk of failing and having to change plans greatly reduced their motivation, 9 (45%) said it tends to reduce their motivation, 5 (25%) had no effect while none thought it tends to increase their motivation and none that it greatly increased their motivation.

Table 19: Being able to work in accordance with my principles

Greatly reduce	Tends to reduce	No effect	Tends to increase	Greatly increases
2	3	5	1	9

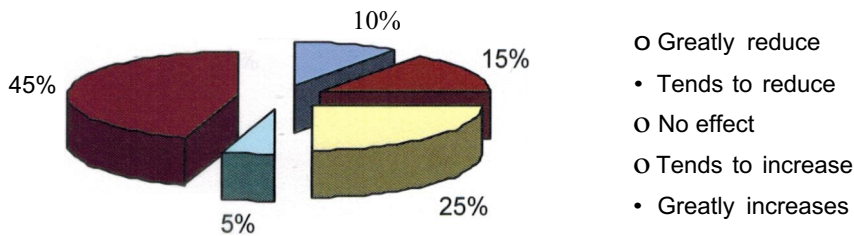


Figure 6.19: Being able to work in accordance with my principles

From a total of 20 lecturers 2 (10%) said that Being able to work in accordance with my principles greatly reduced their motivation, 3 (15%) said it tends to reduce their motivation, 5 (25%) had no effect while 1 (5%) thought it tends to increase their motivation and 9(45%) that it greatly increased their motivation.

Table 20: Having a job that does not allow me to grow and develop

Greatly reduce	Tends to reduce	No effect	Tends to increase	Greatly increases
8	5	4	2	1

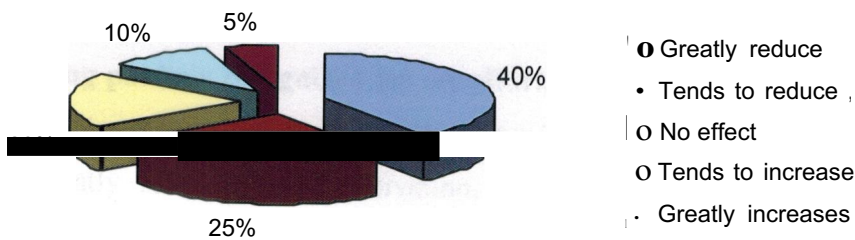


Figure 6.20: Having a job that does not allow me to grow and develop

From a total of 20 lecturers 8 (40%) said that having a job that does not allow me to grow and develop greatly reduced their motivation, 5 (25%) said it tends to reduce their motivation, 4 (20%) had no effect while 2 (10%) thought it tends to increase their motivation and 1 (5%) that it greatly increased their motivation.

Table 21: Being publicly recognized for my efforts

Greatly reduce	Tends to reduce	No effect	Tends to increase	Greatly increases
2	0	2	9	7

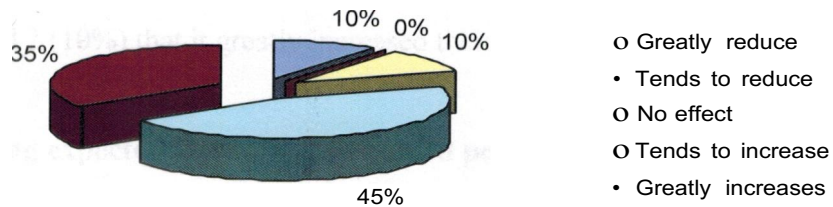


Figure 6.21: Being publicly recognized for my efforts

From a total of 20 lecturers 2 (10%) said that having a job that does not allow me to grow and develop greatly reduced their motivation, none said it tends to reduce their motivation, 2 (10%) had no effect while 9 (45%) thought it tends to increase their motivation and 7 (35%) that it greatly increased their motivation.

Table 22: Not being able to advance to more senior positions

Greatly reduce	Tends to reduce	No effect	Tends to increase	Greatly increases
5	7	5	1	2

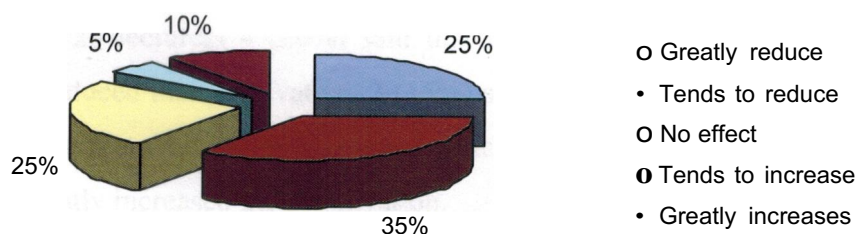


Figure 6.22: Not being able to advance to more senior positions

From a total of 20 lecturers 5 (25%) said that Not being able to advance to more senior positions greatly reduced their motivation, 7 (35%) said it tends to reduce their motivation, 5 (25%) had no effect while 1 (5%) thought it tends to increase their motivation and 2 (10%) that it greatly increased their motivation.

Table 23: Being expected to inspire and guided people

Greatly reduce	Tends to reduce	No effect	Tends to increase	Greatly increases
4	3	5	4	4

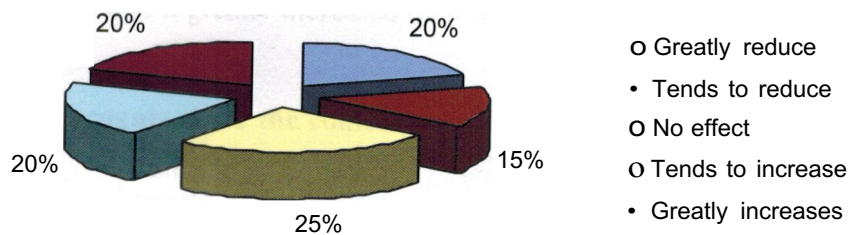


Figure 6.23: Being expected to inspire and guided people

From a total of 20 lecturers 4 (20%) said that Being expected to inspire and guided people greatly reduced their motivation, 3 (15%) said it tends to reduce their motivation, 5 (25%) had no effect while 4 (20%) thought it tends to increase their motivation and 4 (20%) that it greatly increased their motivation.

Table 24: The possibility of failing in front of colleagues

Greatly reduce	Tends to reduce	No effect	Tends to increase	Greatly increases
6	8	4	2	0

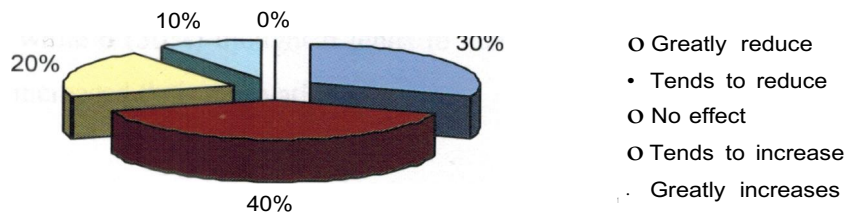


Figure 6.24: The possibility of failing in front of colleagues

From a total of 20 lecturers 6 (30%) said that The possibility of failing in front of colleagues greatly reduced their motivation, 8 (40%) said it tends to reduce their motivation, 4 (20%) had no effect while 2 (10%) thought it tends to increase their motivation and none that it greatly increased their motivation.

Table 25: Being recognized for the contribution I make

Greatly reduce	Tends to reduce	No effect	Tends to increase	Greatly increases
0	0	2	6	12

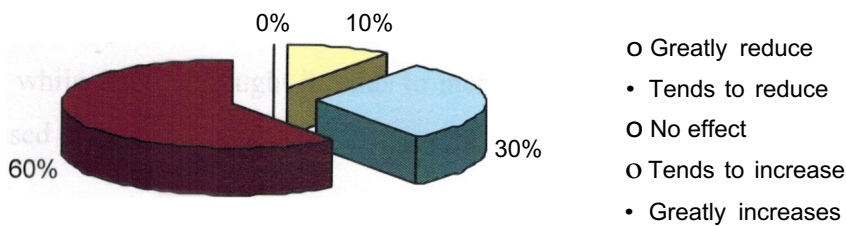


Figure 6.25: Being recognized for the contribution I make

From a total of 20 lecturers none said that Being recognized for the contribution I make greatly reduced their motivation, none said it tends to reduce their motivation, 2 (10%) had no effect while 6 (30%) thought it tends to increase their motivation and 12 (60%) that it greatly increased their motivation.

Table 26: Having to make decisions under pressure

Greatly reduce	Tends to reduce	No effect	Tends to increase	Greatly increases
4	9	6	1	0

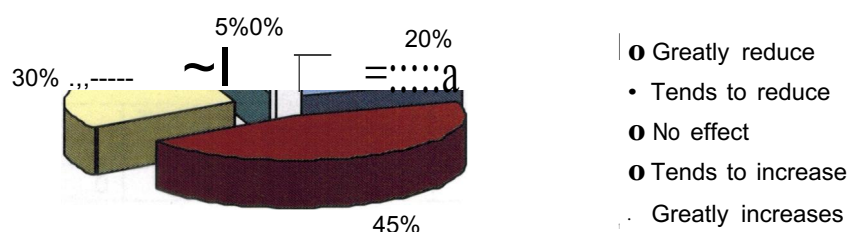


Figure 6.26: Having to make decisions under pressure

From a total of 20 lecturers 4(20%) said that having to make decisions under pressure greatly reduced their motivation, 9 (45%) said it tends to reduce their motivation, 6 (30%) had no effect while 1 (5%) thought it tends to increase their motivation and none that it greatly increased their motivation.

Table 27: Being a senior manager

Greatly reduce	Tends to reduce	No effect	Tends to increase	Greatly increases
1	0	5	4	10

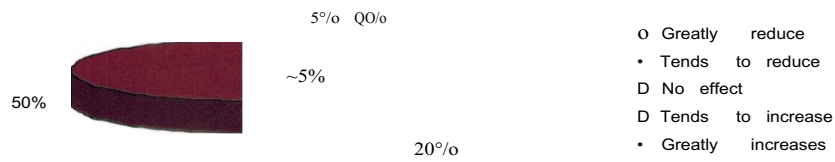


Figure 6.27: Being a senior manager

From a total of 20 lecturers 1 (5%) said that Being a senior manager greatly reduced their motivation, none said it tends to reduce their motivation, 5 (25%) had no effect while 4 (20%) thought it tends to increase their motivation and 10 (50%) that it greatly increased their motivation.

Table 28: Having a flexible boss

Greatly reduce	Tends to reduce	No effect	Tends to increase	Greatly increases
0	0	2	4	14

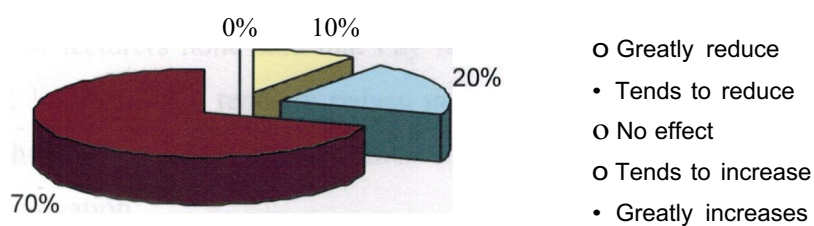


Figure 6.28: Having a flexible boss

From a total of 20 lecturers none said that having a flexible boss greatly reduced their motivation, none said it tends to reduce their motivation, 2 (10%) had no effect while 4 (20%) thought it tends to increase their motivation and 14 (70%) that it greatly increased their motivation.

Table 29: Pay linked to performance

Greatly reduce	Tends to reduce	No effect	Tends to increase	Greatly increases
0	1	3	7	9

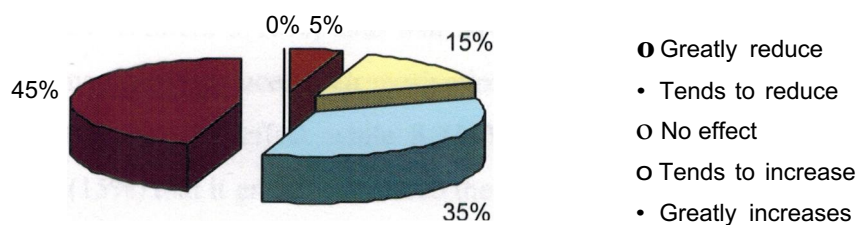


Figure 6.29: Pay linked to performance

From a total of 20 lecturers none said that Pay linked to performance greatly reduced their motivation, 1 (5%) said it tends to reduce their motivation, 3 (15%) had no effect while 7 (35%) thought it tends to increase their motivation and 9 (45%) that it greatly increased their motivation.

Table 30: Having to be sensitive to other people's views and concerns

Greatly reduce	Tends to reduce	No effect	Tends to increase	Greatly increases
3	5	6	3	3

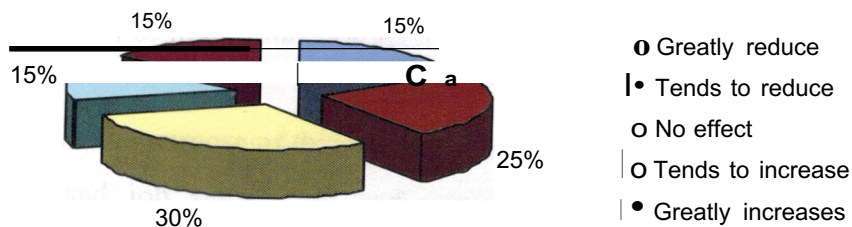


Figure 6.30: Having to be sensitive to other people's views and concerns

From a total of 20 lecturers 3(15%) said that having to be sensitive to other people's views and concerns greatly reduced their motivation, 5 (25%) said it tends to reduce their motivation, 6 (30%) had no effect while 3 (15%) thought it tends to increase their motivation and 3 (15%) that it greatly increased their motivation.

CONCLUSION

His main findings of the investigation and analysis of the motivation of employees under consideration of individual characteristics are presented.

In order to fulfill the purpose of this study, I studied the existing literature in the field of motivation and job satisfaction and carried out questionnaires and personal interviews. According to my literature research, skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, feedback, "environment, job security, and compensation are the most critical factors for the motivation of employees and their satisfaction with the job.

These factors represented the basis for the empirical research. Evaluation of the actual work situation and the employee's satisfaction is resulted that there seems to be an increasing tendency in the use of skills, task identity, task significance, autonomy, feedback, and environment with increasing age of the employees. The differences in skills, task significance, and autonomy are thereby of a weak nature.

That may be caused by the fact that with increasing age most of the employees do more advanced things and more difficult tasks, and receive more responsibility due to more experiences.

Moreover, the age groups show no differences in terms of job security and compensation considering the gender, except for the environment, no differences among men and woman can be stated. In addition, there are no differences in the evaluation of the work situation and the satisfaction with the work regarding the marital status. Furthermore, the responses showed a clear tendency that higher ranked teachers perceive all factors to a higher extent and are more satisfied with them than lower ranked teachers.

Thereby, skills, task identity, task significance, and autonomy suggest weak differences

between both groups. These differences are due to the work itself. The work of higher ranked teachers often offers more challenges, more responsibility, and more variety in the use of skills. And doing a whole work from beginning to end compared to lower ranked teachers. Leading persons perceived job factors to a higher extent at work than non-leading persons did. These differences are of a weak nature and are due to a broader work area and more responsibility of leading persons. Regarding the years in the university, skills, task identity, and task significance show no differences from up to 2 years to 10 years in the company. However, after more than 10 years a sharp increase regarding those factors is noticeable. The fact that the skills of a person are more used and the person receives more tasks, when staying longer in the same organization may be an explanation for that.

Moreover, people who have been working a long time in the university are higher up in the organization and have more challenges in their work. The consideration of autonomy, feedback, environment, and compensation shows no differences among the groups. In addition, Job security suggests a noticeable increase after 5 years, and persists at that high level. Considering individual characteristics, it may be noted here that each subgroup evaluated the presence of feedback at work as low in comparison to the other factors. However, referring to the analyses, the feedback presents a high motivating potential. Therefore, special attention should be given to that factor. Job security was evaluated as highest, and often higher perceived at work than importance was attached to it. The reasons for that is the success of the university, and the fact that information about the actual situation of the university are given regularly to the employees.

The comparison of the data concerning gender, marital status, lower ranked - high ranked, leading/non-leading position revealed no differences. Furthermore, there are no differences among the age groups concerning the importance attributed to the factors examined in that study. However, there seems to be a tendency that older people do not attach as much importance to the feedback as younger people do. That can be explained with the increasing experiences as well. Regarding the years in the university

no differences except for the use of a variety of skills and the environmental aspect are evident. The following facts may explain those results. For instance, the employees may have achieved some kind of maturity in their job. They know their work very well and maybe some of them do not like to receive more tasks, and to learn new things. Another reason could be that those people may have more challenging jobs and thus attach not as much importance to the use of a variety of skills anymore. The differences regarding the environment may be due to the fact that those people have more experiences, and work more on their own, and may have a less need for feedback provided in discussions with other persons the time.

Moreover, the difference may be caused by the fact that people who are a long time in the university know most of the employees, and feel comfortable with their environment and therefore do not attach as much importance to the environmental aspect in comparison to persons who have not been working so long in the university. Another reason could be that some of the employees will retire in a couple of years, and therefore consider the environmental aspect as not as important anymore. Taking into consideration individual characteristics, task identity and autonomy were evaluated by each subgroup as not as important as the other job factors, whereas the environmental aspect was rated as very important.

The reasons for that may be that people are aware that many tasks are not possible to maintain by one person and that work may also be of interest and meaningfulness without a high degree of task significance. In addition, the environment is highly important since people spend a lot of time at work and like to have good relationships with their colleagues, to speak about something else other than work, to feel comfortable, and to feel that their health is not at risk in any way. The employees, regardless of the respective subgroup, evaluated the importance of the benefits offered by the company as similar.

RECOMMENDATION

Motivation is a continual process and needs to be sustained and developed as individual and organizational factors change over time. It may be of interest to have a continuous view of what motivates the employees and provides them with satisfaction. Furthermore, it may be interesting to compare the received results with similar surveys done in the same industry. Unfortunately, such data is not accessible, therefore, it may be recommended to jlo a new survey every second year in order to determine the degree of job satisfaction and to figure out the factors, which are valued and lacked by the respective subgroups.

A comparison of the surveys may provide the company with useful information about the success/failure of changes regarding the work and the development in the job satisfaction of the employees. The results of this research offer a starting point to think about the actual work conditions and their changes in order to provide a basis for a higher motivation of employees. Not only differences and similarities in the work motivation and satisfaction of employees regarding certain individual characteristics, but also the reasons for that are examined in this study.

Moreover, factors that have to be enhanced at work in order to increase the motivation and therefore the commitment toward the company are figured out and presented. For the purpose of these studies I feel that I could not have adopted another methodology. The use of quantitative as well as qualitative methods enabled me to investigate the problem under research in more depth and to increase the quality and the value of the research and its results. Thereby, the collection of the quantitative data and their analysis by the use of the mean count for objectivity and reliability of the research. The results of this study are not only of value for the university where the survey was carried out but they also contribute in my opinion to previous studies done in the class of motivation and work. However, the investigation was only

performed in our university, I believe that, similarities and differences regarding certain individual characteristics are shown and this knowledge can be used to motivate a group of employees, sharing the same individual characteristic, in the same way.

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Appendix A: Employee motivation questionnaire

Employee Motivation Questionnaire

Greatly
Reduces

Tends to
Reduce

Has no Effect

Tends to
Increase

Greatly
Increases

Assess how far each of the following affects your motivation.

1. Not being recognized for my expertise in a particular area
2. Working in a bureaucratic environment
3. Being expected to challenge bias and intolerance
4. A well-paid job
5. Being able to live up to people's expectations
6. Having the freedom to try out my own ideas
7. The opportunity to get on quickly
8. Having a job that is more like fun than work

9. Not being able to earn bonuses
10. Not having much to do
11. Being expected to hide the truth
12. Having a day filled with engagements
13. Not being expected to come up with ideas for improvements
14. Not being accorded respect
15. Not having control over the pace of work
16. Not having to compete with colleagues to get my views heard
17. Not being recognized for the job I do
18. The risk of failing and having to change my plans

19. Being able to work in accordance with my principles
20. Having a job that does not allow me to grow and develop
21. Being publicly recognized for my efforts
22. Not being able to advance to more senior positions
23. Being expected to inspire and guide people
24. The possibility of failing in front of colleagues
25. Being recognized for the contribution I make
26. Having to make decisions under pressure
27. Being a senior manager
28. Having a flexible boss
29. Pay linked to performance

30. Having to be sensitive to other people's views and concerns