

# MOTIVATION: PRESENTATION OF THEORIES AND CRITICS

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**Abstract:** Motivation is a very essential tool to keep employees focused on a particular activity or on effort or toward a particular direction. Understanding motivation and how it functions is very primordial, as well as it limits so as to guide managers on how to manage employees in terms of motivation. The main aim of this paper was to bring out the theories of motivation at a first place and then bring out a critic of these theories progressively. The theories were presented and the critic given and these critic bring an opening for new thoughts as per the theories of motivation.

**Keywords:** Motivation, Content Theories and Process-theories.

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

Anybody who is interested in understanding, predicting, or influencing human behaviour must start with the understanding of basic human motivation. Why do individuals behave the way they behave? The way people behave sometimes may be tied to their degree of motivation and satisfaction for their enterprises. So to know the ways how people can be motivated in an organisational setting is very important.

The survey of literature of motivational theories suggest that, theories of motivation are basically grouped either according to the 'nature of theories' or their 'chronological appearance.' As per this work, these theories will be grouped into Content-theories (Maslow's Needs Hierarchy, Two Factor theory of Herzberg's, Theory X and Theory Y, Alderfer's ERG theory, and Needs theory of McClelland's) and 'Process-theories' (Behaviour Modification, Cognitive Evaluation Theory, Job characteristics model, Goal Setting theory, Reinforcement theory, Expectancy theory, and Equity theory). In all the above cited theories we are going to point out the most prominent theories of motivation. We will acknowledge all this division of theories is across the literature.

## 2. CONTENT THEORIES

Content theories focus on identifying the needs, drives and incentives/goals and their prioritisation by persons to get satisfaction (Luthans, 2005). Experts have long prepared diverse set of psychological, social, biological and higher level needs of people. Most of the scholars categorise the aforementioned needs into basic, secondary and superior level worker's needs, which must to be achieved if the worker wants to be motivated and satisfied.

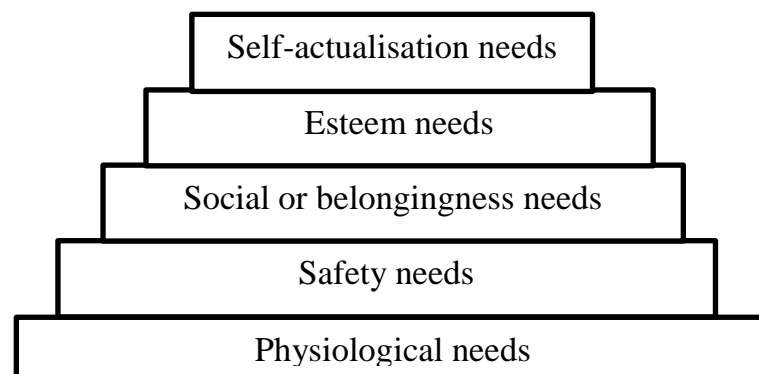
### 2.1. Maslow's Needs Hierarchy

This is the most widely mentioned theory of motivation. Abraham Maslow presupposed that individuals have complex sets of strong needs and an individual's behaviour at certain times is usually determined by their strongest need (Weirich & Koontz, 1999). Maslow developed his motivation model in 1943, after doing some clinical experience and he then formulated his hierarchical theory by asking the similar question, what is it that makes persons to behave the way they behave and made a list of answers from which he developed a pattern. He based his theory upon two assumptions. First, humans have various needs and they needs are diverse in nature going from the biological needs at the least level need;

which stands for survival, and to psychological needs at the upper extreme; which stands for growth. Secondly, the needs according to Maslow appeared in a chronological order so that the first level or lower level needs must be satisfied before a person will be motivated to satisfy a higher level need. Therefore an individual needs to activate the need level so as to be motivated and satisfied (Luthans, 2005).

Maslow saw human motivation as a hierarchy of five needs; (1) physiological needs (pay, rest periods, canteen, holidays), (2) safety needs (health and safety measures, security of employment, pension), (3) social or belongingness needs (formal or informal groups, organised social events, sports, affection), (4) esteem needs (power, title, status merit award, promotion), (5) self-actualisation needs (developing new skills, challenging work) (Maslow, 1943). These needs can be represented below.

**Figure 1: Maslow's hierarchy need pyramid**



**Source:** Adapted from GROVE A. S. le management multiplicateur (éd. Hommes et techniques), paris 1984

The needs in this pyramid are explained in details below;

**Physiological needs:** These needs are the basis of the hierarchy and have the highest importance as per motivation. These are basically the needs coming from biological or physiological tension and they are to keep life going and include the basic needs for food, water, shelter and sex. Sexual need and desire should not be confused with love, which falls at the third level. Once these primary needs are reached to the level needed for the sufficient and comfortable operation of a person, then the other levels of needs become primordial and becomes a motivators (Maslow, 1943).

**Security and Safety needs:** Once the previous needs (physiological needs) are gratified, the next important level need becomes safety and security need. These needs are needs for self-attention contrary to the physiological needs, which are basic needs. Needs found here are those of stability, security and a well-structured and ordered environment. The safety and security needs acts as provisions against a reduction of satisfaction of first level needs as time goes on. It also involves protection against threats and danger of losing one's job with time. In civilised societies, a person should be protected from threats of violence or extremes in climate or fear of material safety, thus, the safety and security needs will be based on economic and job security, medical insurance and life insurance and other measures to safeguard the satisfaction of physiological needs with time which can be unpredictable (Maslow, 1943).

**Love and Social needs:** After the needs of safety are satisfied, then a sense to belong and to be accepted becomes essential in motivating behaviour. These are the needs for affection, love, friendship and social ties. We always want to be in an environment where we are respected, loved, understood, and wanted. That is one reason for "polarization" (union) where people of similar norms and beliefs tend to group together. "Love thy neighbour" has perhaps a profound meaning. When a person is working belongingness needs are often expressed in the quest to be accepted by co-workers and supervisor, and to participate or belong in a group (Maslow, 1943).

**Esteem needs:** Here the purpose is to receive recognition from peers, which is a feeling of self-confidence and self-worth in the Individual. It is the desire to have prestige, achievement, status and power. Self-respect is the internal recognition. Respect gotten from others is the external recognition and an appreciation of one's individuality as his contribution. This would result in self-confidence and prestige. People then would begin to think that they are useful and have some positive effect on their surrounding environment (Maslow, 1943).

**Self-actualisation needs:** This last need is the need to develop fully and to realise one's abilities and potentialities to the fullest extent possible, whatever these abilities and potentialities maybe. It is the last level of need in the hierarchy of need of Maslow and it becomes a motivator when all other needs have been gratified. At this level, the person wants to get challenging work assignments that allow the person to be creative and give opportunities for growth and advancement. This need is for inner-oriented. A self-actualised person is creative, independent, content, and spontaneous, has a good perception of the world and he is constantly striving to realise his full potential. Thus, "what a man 'can' be 'must' be" (Maslow, 1943).

The hierarchy of need of Maslow remains the most cited motivational theories and still remain very popular among managers. It however has some limitations. He was short sighted in that he based his work only on human needs in their job side. He failed to realise that employees motivation go beyond satisfying only their needs in their job side. He equally did not understand that organising educative talks to workers about retirement can raise their performance. These is simply because workers will become very satisfy with their company as their company gives them the impression that they are not just thinking of the present, but equally thinking of their welfare even after retirement. This will therefore make them put in their best make the company grow. Most companies nowadays do not turn to see this as an aspect of motivation to employee.

Maslow hierarchy was created from a personal perspective, that is, Maslow was from the United States of America, a highly individualistic nation. In individualistic societies, the needs and drives of those persons tend to be more self-centered than those persons in collectivist societies, they focus on self-improvement, and self-actualization is the highest level of self-improvement. Maslow's pyramid has several problems. One of them is that, once needs are met, they do not simply disappear. Rather, certain environmental cues can make them comeback.

## 2.2. Alderfer's ERG theory

Maslow's hierarchy of need theory was reworked by Clayton Alderfer of the Yale University to put it in line with empirical research. According to Alderfer, there exist three groups of core needs - Existence, Relatedness, and Growth coded as ERG theory. Alderfer's three core needs comprise of the five needs of Maslow's hierarchy of need. First of all, Alderfer has recognised that many needs can operate at one time, and second, if attaining a higher level need is difficult, then the desire to attain and satisfy a lower level need increases. In general, ERG theory represents a more valid version of Maslowian need hierarchy.

Robbins (2003) puts it this way: "ERG theories, argues, like Maslow's theory, that satisfied lower-order needs pushes a person to satisfy higher-order needs; but many needs can operate as motivators at one period and the inability to attain a higher-level need can make a person go back to a lower level need". The initials E, R and G could be seen as;

**Existence needs:** They needs here are roughly comparable to the first and second level needs (physiological and safety) of Maslow's model and are satisfied primarily by incentives. They include all physiological needs of Maslow's model and such safety needs which financial and physical conditions rather than interpersonal relations satisfy. These are needs for sustenance, shelter and psychological and physical safety from threats to people's existence and wellbeing.

**Relatedness needs:** These needs are tied to Maslow's social and esteem needs. The satisfaction of these needs is done when individuals have good social interactions and relationship. It involves communication and the honest exchange-of feelings and thoughts with other members of the organisation.

**Growth needs:** These needs relate to the needs to develop and grow and attain a full potential that an individual is capable of reaching. They are identical to the self-actualisation need of Maslow. These needs are reached by a strong personal involvement in the environment of the organisation and by accepting new opportunities and challenges.

Maslow's hierarchy pyramid of needs, points out that a workers motivation is always dominated by one level need than the other (George & Jones, 2008). For example, once basic security needs are satisfied, social needs become more dominant. Unlike Maslow's theory, Alderfer's theory has a frustration-regression process that always takes place within a worker, the inability to satisfy a high level need causes frustration and makes the worker to go back to a lower level need.

The concept of frustration-regression is known to have a serious impact in time of changing situation on the motivation of an organisation. For example, if safety needs are absent, workers will regress to physiological needs which can lead the employee to more frustration.

### 2.3. The Two Factor Theory of Herzberg

This theory arose out of a research done on 200 accountants and engineers. The group was asked to recall events which gave them job dissatisfaction and job satisfaction. From analyses of their answers Herzberg concluded that job dissatisfaction and job satisfaction are caused by two diverse groups of factors, these he termed motivational factors and hygienic factors.

The debate on satisfaction of one's job started when Herzberg published his book "The Motivation to Work" (1959). His book was all about an interview done with accountants and engineers. The accountants and engineers were given the opportunity to describe any instance in their job side that made them to be exceptionally good. From those situations work dimensions was divided in to two elements, Motivators and Hygiene factors. All the factors made a worker to have exceptionally good feelings were termed motivators and satisfying factors; recognition, achievements, work itself, advancement, responsibility and growth. While recalling about the exceptionally bad events, they responded following the points, administration of the company and its policy, supervisory behaviour, relationships with subordinates, relationship with superiors, working environment, personal life, salary, status, and safety measures. Herzberg (1959) described the above as Hygiene factors and linked these events with external context of the job, and the motivators are dealing with internal mind state. He made a comparative study between his theories and the traditional approach in motivation that postulates that salary, supervision or company policy leads workers to increased job satisfaction. According to Herzberg job satisfaction is not gotten only via improving these 10 hygiene factors but by surpassing the six motivators. Herzberg (1959) said these factors do little to promote job satisfaction, but when absent will leads to job dissatisfaction, which caused him to term them dissatisfiers. These factors would be seen relate to the conditions which the worker operates rather than the actual work itself. Because of this, any improvement in a hygiene factor will have only temporary effects.

When motivators are absent it will not cause job satisfaction e.g. when workers were not offered recognition or any other motivator for their work this did not cause the dissatisfaction of work yet they are not going to be motivated. The concept next to job satisfaction is not job dissatisfaction but no job satisfaction, and similarly the opposite of job dissatisfaction is not job satisfaction, but no job dissatisfaction.

Herzberg was criticized by various researchers, as for Vroom in 1964, saying that the two factor theory was making individuals uncovering themselves and making them feel good by attributing positive events to internal factors and negative events to external events. As any other theory, the theory of Herzberg has some limitations. Following Herzberg view point, workers should be motivated by their job and not through discipline. He failed to see that enlightened company policy, effective supervision, high salaries, a friendly atmosphere and a comfortable workplace will stop people from complaining, but will not make them work harder. Employees no more want to be "driven", but to be "moved", not to be "ordered", but to be "shown the way" and not to be "paid" but to be "compensated".

### 2.4. Theory X & Y (Douglas McGregor, 1960)

After observing and understanding the manner in which managers handle the employees, McGregor suggested that, manager's view about the nature of humans is grounded on some assumptions and that managers will change their behaviour toward their employees according to these 'assumptions' about different employees (Robbins & Stephen, 1998). He brought out two different views about the nature of humans (Kinicki and Kreitner, 2003). Both perspectives have some critical assumptions concerning employees at work. According to theory X (considered as the negative view of humans);

- ✓ Human have an inborn dislike for work and avoid it if possible.
- ✓ Due to this behaviour, persons must be forced, directed, controlled, and threatened with some punishment for them to work.
- ✓ They are comfortable when directed, they don't want responsibility, they have little or no ambition, and they want security.

These assumptions, as seen above, are rather pessimistic view on how managers and supervisors viewed their employees. McGregor's concern was the development of an employee individually in the work environment. As said by Meeker (1982), it is McGregor, in theory Y, who brought an intellectual foundations that was diverse from the limited views on human behaviour underlying theory X. Theory Y holds that (considered as the positive view of humans);

- ✓ Physical and mental efforts in work are as natural as play and rest.

- ✓ Producing effort does not relate only to external control and threat. Self-direction and self-control can be learned by people to achieve objectives.
- ✓ The size of the reward tied to achievement determines the level of commitment of a worker.
- ✓ Humans learn, accept responsibility and seek responsibility under proper conditions (Wehrich, H. & Koontz, 1999).

It can be seen that McGregor is influenced by Maslow's work (Carson, 2005; Meeker, 1982). Regarding the pyramid of Maslow, theory X suggest that lower-order needs dominate individuals while theory Y can be tied to the higher-order needs (Robbins, 2003). There exists a great difference regarding the end result between the two (Meeker, 1982). An individual goes through Maslow's pyramid when he/she satisfies each level of needs, the satisfying conclusion is self-actualisation. According to McGregor, this satisfaction is just serving as the cause of commitment to the objectives of an organisation. For McGregor, satisfaction here is just a means of acquiring control contrary to the traditional punishments tied to hierarchical control (Meeker, 1982).

What McGregor tried to dramatis through his theory X and Y is to bring out the extremes to draw the fencing within which the organisational man is usually seen to behave. It is factual that no organisational worker would really belong either to theory X or theory Y. In reality, workers share both traits. What will actually happen is that, workers swings from one property to the other with changes in his ways and motives in a changing environment.

Theory X style of management promotes a very distrustful and hostile atmosphere; in an authoritarian organisation there is need for many managers because there is a frequent need for control of worker, and the control modes are always a medium amount of threat and coercion. An employer who is always threatening can lead to dissatisfaction among worker and subordinates, or they employees might try to accuse one another so as to save themselves from the threats. In the contrary the use of force may lead to better rewards. It may cause a situation that workers will try to blackmail other workers efforts so as to make it easier for them to get the rewards.

The main belief of Theory Y, presupposes that, with the right environment and the right support, self-directed workers are going to do their jobs well. However, because every individual is different from one another, creating an environment which fits all does not sound very practical in the current era of organisations.

Theory X and Y is very difficult to be used with different persons. The fact that different theories are used to accommodate different type of workers does not mean that it will be a plus to the companies. In the end, the human labour of the company might be improved, but at the detriment of creating monetary loses as well as inefficient allocation of resources. For example, an enterprise chooses to use both theories together. In order for the organisation to retain employees' base on to Theory X, more workers will be hired and paid. The enterprise will also needs to create a comfortable environment for the workers that are self-motivated based on the theory Y concept. This will cost the enterprise a lot of money to manage both perspectives. Thus, it is more profitable for an enterprise to use just one theory and hire workers that can be consistently managed with one theory.

## **2.5. McClelland's ACQUIRED NEEDS THEORY**

McClelland in his publication the achievement society in 1961 (Ramlall, 2004) described his need theory focusing on three needs; need for achievement, need for power and need for affiliation as the major motives determining people's behaviour in their job. McClelland believes that man was not born with needs; rather they needs are learn from their culture. Managers are encouraged to discover these three needs in employees and themselves and should attempt to create working environment that is responsive to them. McClelland's focused his theory on the following three needs: need for achievement, need for power, and need for affiliation; he defines these three needs as below:

**Need for achievement:** Here the need to excel, to succeed and to achieve if felt by a person. In basic words, it represents the desire of a person to influence and control others and one's behaviour has impact on one's colleagues.

**Need of power:** A person feels the edge to make others react in a manner they would not have reacted otherwise. This need still reflects a person's desire to coach, encourage, teach or influence others to achieve. Two types of need of power was identified by McClelland; the negative and positive need. He explained the negative need as the need for individual power as expressed in the edge to dominate others, manipulating people for one's gratification. Whereas he said that the positive need is characterised of top management and leaders desire for institutional power, as expressed in need to solve problems that further organisation goals.

**Need for affiliation:** It represent the desire for friendship, close interpersonal relationship and warm relationship with others. People have the desire of recognition, they like to co-operate with people, to have friends, they avoid competition and they involve themselves in mutual understanding. In this need category, people take personal responsibility, they provide feedback and they take high level of risks.

The following needs to be done by managers as per McClelland's theory:

- ✓ Employees having elevated need to achieve; provide challenging tasks and grant personal responsibility
- ✓ Employees having high need for power; provide competitive and status-oriented situations, provide a work environment where by they can observe the ability to gain prestige and influence others
- ✓ Employees having elevated need for affiliation; cooperative situations should be provided rather than competitive ones and provide a job side that demands a high level of mutual understanding

Robbins et al (2009) criticized McClelland's theory stating that the theory has less practical effect than different theories. This is because McClelland said these needs are subconscious, that is, they needs may be high in a person without him knowing. Measuring them is not very easy.

However, McClelland's work has been criticized on many points, as how can the edge of achievement and other related motives can be imputed on a mature employee. McClelland contradicted that these needs can be taught and hence related achievement motives, etc. can spark up in a mature person. This contention does not hold in the literature of psychology. Again, McClelland argued that the need of a person can be altered through education and training. But psychologists contend that needs are acquired permanently.

### 3. PROCESS THEORY

These theories try to identify the link amongst the dynamic variables in cooperated in motivation and they ways needed to influence action and behaviour. These theories therefore provide a good understanding of the ambiguous nature of motivation. Theorists who hold to this view do not try to fit people into the single category, but rather accept human differences.

#### 3.1 Job Characteristic model

Hackman and Oldham started outlining this view in 1975; because of their model, thousands of research papers were inspired. The job characteristics model presumes that an employee has three psychological states which result in increased work performance, inherent motivation, and lower absenteeism and turnover. A productive, motivated and satisfied employee is one who (1) work performance is meaningful (2) has responsibility for job outcomes, and (3) is knowledgeable of the outcome of job performed. When an employee's achieves these three psychological states it serves as reinforcement and as a source of inherent motivation to continue doing the work well. Hackman and Oldham developed five core dimensions of job characteristics as below (Fincham and Peter, 1999);

**Skill variety:** It describes the level to which a job necessitates the use of different skills, abilities, or talents. Activities in a task will be distinct enough to need the use of different skills.

**Task identity:** It defines the degree to which an employee is able to complete a task from beginning to end.

**Task significance:** it is tied to the importance of a task; that is the level at which the task affects others around the environment of the organisation.

**Autonomy:** It refers to the level to which individuals are allowed discretion, independence and a level of control in their work; they can freely schedule their work and determine the procedures to be used. Autonomy represents level of freedom that workers can exercise in their work place (Stein, 1983).

**Feedback:** It is the act of providing direct and clear information about the effectiveness of the performance of individuals. Besides supervisory feedback, it also includes observing the results of employee's performance.

All the listed five job characteristics affect employees' performance differently. Therefore employees will experience the greatest motivation when all five characteristics are present, since it combines to produce the three psychological states (Bohlander, Scott and Arthur, 2002).

Further, motivation and satisfaction will increase when an employee experience these psychological states. Furthermore, behavioural outcomes, like work quality and attendance, may be improved. Thus, the theory does not involve just job satisfaction and job characteristics, it also involve work design principles, motivation and psychological studies. The attraction of such an ambitious model is amplified by its clear specification of concepts and relationships between them and readily available measuring instrument. Particularly well established are the links between job satisfaction and job characteristics below (Fincham and Peter, 1999).

The Job Characteristics Model was designed to evaluate and modify specific task within a job unit without considering the interrelation of that unit with different units in the enterprise. Hackman and Oldham recognised this and although they addressed this fact in their recommendations for implementation, implementing the model becomes pessimistic because job enrichment has often been incompatible with organisation's technology, control and personnel systems (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). They felt their model did consider work design in a company's context and acknowledged that changes in one part of the company necessitated changes in organisational systems as well. Underestimating the difficulty in carrying out changes in work design or the level which it changes surrounding environment has caused a failure in the implementation of the model (Job Characteristics Model).

In spite of the failures and criticism of the model, it remains the only intact, complete model with a measuring instrument, a sound theoretical basis and a completely described model.

### **3.2 Cognitive Evaluation Theory**

Intrinsic motivators like responsibility, achievement and competence have been considered by motivational theorists as different from good supervisor, pleasant working conditions, high pay and promotions which are extrinsic motivators. However, cognitive evaluation theory, which has been proposed in 1960s, suggests otherwise. It suggests that, when an organisation uses extrinsic pay rewards for high performance, the intrinsic rewards, that comes from workers who are doing what they love falls automatically. Robbins (2005) supported the above aforementioned and argue that "when an organisation uses extrinsic rewards to motivate high performance level, the intrinsic rewards, coming from employees who love what they are doing will fall". In simple words, when extrinsic motivation is given to a worker so that he can perform an interesting and important work, it causes him the reduction of his intrinsic interest.

The cognitive evaluation theory, being part of self-determination theory, specifies in the social context factors that cause variability in intrinsic reward (Deci and Ryan, 1985). This theory predicted at first that monetary rewards would reduce inherent motivation (Deci, 1971). Later on, Deci, Cascio and Krusell (1975) mentioned that expected rewards would cause a larger decrease in inherent motivation than unexpected rewards would. Deci et al. in 1975 depict that if a person expects a reward while he is doing the activity, then it is obvious that he perceives that he is doing the activity for the reward. Conversely, if someone does not expect to receive the reward, is less obvious that he realises that the reason he is doing the activity is to have external reward (Deci et al., 1975). However, it is possible that when he gets unexpected rewards the individual relates this to actually working for rewards. Therefore, expected and unexpected rewards could lower intrinsic motivation, but the unexpected reward would decrease it the least and this is certain (Deci et al., 1975).

### **3.3 Goal-Setting Theory**

The theory was brought forth by Edwin Looke and Gary Latham who said it is natural for people to set and strive for goals. This theory suggested that workers could be motivated with goals which can be specific and challenging. The process of goal setting can be used only when workers understand and accept it, thus the right way for performance motivation is to set right objectives rightly.

Lock (1969) proposed that the major sources of work motivation are the intentions to work towards a goal. Although Lock argued, "Goal setting is more appropriately seen to be a motivational technique rather than as a theory of motivation", his theorising was faced as a useful approach to work performance and motivation. Furthermore, the theory states that when a goal is difficult, they will be a higher level of performance. Employees will always do their best when they get adequate information. The administration ought to give them feedback so as to progress toward business goals. Moreover, feedback aids to seek the differences between what has been done and what was to be done. Feedback serves as a guide. The administration must be able to measure self-generated feedback. By measuring this, managers can understand which employee is competent to do the difficult targets that the organisation needs to achieve. By giving the chance to workers to take part in decision making process and setting their own goals a possibility appears to try harder.

Looke and his collaborators made it clear that when developing employee's goals managers should be certain that these goals are not only specific, challenging and achievable but also should equally be as follows;

- Set the goal jointly with the employees
- The goal should be measurable
- The goal should have a target date for attainment
- Managers should equally be certain that they give feedback so as to make workers know their progress and they should not forget to reward for doing what was set out to do.

For goal setting to be effective, we should have in mind that, these goals must be accepted by the workers involved, implying that individuals must be committed to the attainment of the goals. If the goal-setting is established in a participative process, goals could be accepted easily. Goals are set jointly by supervisors and subordinates and it might also promote role clarity. Moreover, after setting the goal, it is important that workers are provided feedbacks to allow them track how they progress and how well they have accomplished the goals. Through feedbacks employees can know how well or bad they perform and adjust their efforts accordingly.

Ordóñez et al. (2009) made it clear that goal setting is not an 'over-the-counter' salve for increasing performance" and should have a "warning label". A salve by the American Heritage Dictionary is defined as (1992 edition) "1. Analgesic or medical ointment. 2. Something that soothes or heals. 3. Flattery or commendation." Goal setting theory has always been seen as performance motivational technique, not as a calming ointment and definitely not a panacea for every problem, if that is what Ordóñez et al. (2009) are implying by their metaphor. Furthermore, they describe goal setting as a "recommendation-strength drug" having such a high hazard that it requires "close supervision" Ordóñez et al. (2009). Also, it is the propensity for individuals to partake in unethical behaviour so as to attain a goal and subsequent reward (Ordóñez, et al., 2009).

### **3.4 Equity Theory**

This theory advocates that the perception of workers in a working circumstance in relation to how fairly they are evaluated or treated compared with others influences their degree of motivation (Adams, 1965). Equity theory, as seen by Walster, Berscheid & Walster (1973) shows how a person perceives fairness in respect to social relationships. The equity theory postulates that in a situation of social exchange, individuals try to sought out the quantity of gained input from the social exchange compared to output during a social exchange, a person identifies the amount of input gained from a relationship compared to the output, in addition to the amount of effort another person's puts forth. Inspired from Adam's theory, Huseman, Hatfield & Miles (1987) further presumed that if a worker thinks that there exist an inequity between two social groups or individuals, the involved worker will be distressed or dissatisfied, reason being that the worker's input and the output are different. Examples of inputs include: time, effort, personal sacrifice, ability, adaptability, flexibility, determination, tolerance, hard work, enthusiasm, trust in superiors, supportive colleagues and skills. Output (outcomes) conversely, refers to the negative and positive consequences that a person (employee) feels after participation in a work relationship with others. Examples of outputs include employee benefits, esteem, job security, salary, expenses, recognition, reputation, sense of achievement, responsibilities, praise, and stimuli and so on.

The major concern in equity theory is about payment in organisations. In all areas of the organisation, the performance and the contribution of employees should always be rewarded by their pay. If an employee feels underpaid, he would be dissatisfied and therefore becomes hostile towards his enterprise and co-workers which may ultimately result to inadequate motivation and low performance. Equity is multidimensional in nature. For example, it does not just dependent on our input-to-output alone. It also relies on people's comparison between own input-output outcome and the outcome of others. Since equity is all about perception, workers create perceptions on what constitute a fair balance between what they give in and what they get by matching their condition with other 'referents' in their same industry (Stephen and Ayaga, 2014).

Adams suggested that if employees think that they are not rewarded accordingly it will activate the following.

- Their inputs will reduce
- They employees look for all possibilities to change their output or the reward they receive
- They equity will be distorted



- They are going to vacate the situation.

To make equity theory on motivation more effective, Adams then comes up with three practical lessons;

- The employees participation are what count, that notwithstanding how fair managers think the organisations policy, procedures and reward system are, each employees perception of these elements is what count.
- The participation of employees is beneficiary to managers when they take part in vital decisions.
- When workers are able to take resolutions concerning their welfare, it increases the belief that their organisations treat them equitably.

The implication of equity for an entity is that, when motivating workers it is essential to safeguard a state of fairness in their efforts by establishing mechanisms to solve perceived unfairness. Or else organisations may face demotivation, reduced performance, high absenteeism and turnover.

The assumptions and practical application of the theory has been Criticised. The simplicity of the model has always been questioned by scholars, saying that many psychological and demographic factors are determinants of the opinion of equity and the relation with others. Furthermore, a multitude of work that is tied with the basic assumptions of the model was tested in a laboratory setting, and thus the applicability becomes questionable in the situation of a real-world. (Huseman, Hatfield & Miles, 1987). It has been agued by many that fairness/unfairness may be perceived not just in relation to particular efforts and results of a relationship, but also in relation to the predominant organisation that defines those efforts and results. Thus, in an organisation, the compensation between employees may be perceived as faire, but the entire compensation programme may be viewed as unfair (Carrell and Dittrich, 1978).

### 3.5. Expectancy Theory

Victor Vroom introduced this theory in 1964 and he proposed that two things motivated individuals; the extent to which they want something and the extent to which they think they can get it. In other words supposing they have choices; the choice people will obviously choose will be the one that will assure them to have the highest reward if possible. According to Vroom what is to be done by people can be done when they want to do it (Ramlall, 2004).

The job satisfaction theory of Vroom (1964) viewed at the relations between individuals and job variables; however, Vroom added the element of workers' expectations in his model. The bases of this model goes thus, if employees put in more inputs and do their job better at work, they will get compensation accordingly. The difference that exists between actual outcome and expected compensation generates dissatisfaction. If less is received than expected, then dissatisfaction may occur. On the other hand, too much compensation can make employees to have a feeling of guilt and dissatisfaction. Compensation must not be monetary, but pay is typically the most visible and most easily modified element of outcome. The significance of salary goes beyond the value of money and the ability to obtain physical items, and Gruneberg (1979) also holds that salary is a sign of individual achievement, organisational status, and recognition.

Employee motivation as per this model includes the link between the employee's input, the employee's performance and the desirability of the results (pay and recognition) of the employee's performance. This relationship is been affected by three elements: that is valence, instrumentality and expectancy generally seen as VIE. This is explained as follows:

**Valence:** Vroom in 1964 defined Valance as the affective (emotional) directions individuals have with regards to outcomes. If performances are not appreciated and employees' outcomes are met as a result of high input, motivation will be low. Similarly, employees become more motivated to put in more inputs if they value the reward offered for the special input. For example if a worker loves football and he expert that hard work in his enterprise is recognised with free tickets to watch football matches, then he probably becomes more motivated to put in more efforts (Nilay, 2004).

**Instrumentality:** Instrumentality is concerned with if the performance will bring anticipated results. It covers the link amongst performance and reward. This is called performance for reward expectancy. For example, if commercial agent believes that in making more sales, their employer will give more bonus, thus having a high performance for reward expectancy. This will make workers to put in more efforts to achieve more sales that will earn them more reward (Nilay, 2004).

**Expectancy:** It is the feeling an employees has that when he puts effort in a task, the effort will lead to high performance. It also refers to the belief that for a specific level of performance to be achieved a specific level of effort should be invested. For expectancy to be high, the individual must possess the ability, past experiences and necessary machinery,

tools and opportunity to perform (Samson and Daft 2002). If a task is given to an employee and the employee thinks that the task could be accomplished before its expected time lapse, then the expectation of the employee as well the employee motivation will be high. Conversely, if an employee doesn't have the ability to reach high performance, the expectancy and motivation of the employee will be low (Nilay, 2004).

The new suggestion of Lawler's theory is not in contrary to Vroom's model. Lawler simply suggested that the expectancy theory has evolved since it was created in 1964, thus the model needs some modifications to fit with time. The model of Lawler is based on 4 assertions. First, individuals always have a preference on outcomes whenever there are numerous outcomes. Second, individuals always believe that the desired outcome will be attained by their action(s). Third, individual's behaviour generates desired results. Finally, the desired results and expectations of employees will be generated by the employees' actions.

The practicability of the model has been questioned and the model is highly difficult and complex to be understood. As pointed out by Lyman, Lawler and Heckman; the model is just a model and nothing else. It is always difficult for individuals to list their expected results for anticipated behaviour, unless it is asked to be done. The predictive potential of this theory is still largely untested as remarked by Hamner and Organ. A well developed and structured test has not yet been done to approve the model.

### **3.6. Reinforcement theories**

This theory suggests that perceived negative or positive consequences determine the behaviour of people (Baron et al., 2002). The reinforcement theory is based on the 'Law of Effect' idea, suggested by Thorndike (1911), and later developed by Woodworth (1918) and Hull (1943). The drive theory of Hull expanded on this notion and postulated that input is a mathematical artefact of drive multiplied by habits and that habit was derived from behaviour reinforcement.

This reinforcement model is associated to B.F Skinner and others, it is also known as behaviour modification, and it suggests that an individual's behaviour can be modified by forces in the environment. The Law effect is the simple supposition underlying the modification of behaviour, which postulates that behaviour that is positively reinforced tends to be frequent. Anything that makes certain behaviour to be recurrent refers to reinforcement. The following four tools of reinforcement are; positive reinforcement, avoidance learning, punishment and extinction (Samson and Daft, 2002). In all the cases, reinforcement is attained by applying or avoiding a pleasant or unpleasant event following a person's behaviour.

Positive reinforcement is gratifying an individual with a pleasant consequence following desired behaviour or applying a positive consequence to encourage desirable behaviour. An example is immediate recognition of a worker arriving on time or doing extra work. Offering employees a pleasant output for their behaviour would increase the likelihood of that behaviour occurring again. This pleasant output might be monetary as well as non-monetary incentives.

Negative reinforcement could still be called avoiding learning, is the elimination of unpleasant behaviour. Employees learn to behave in the preferred manner as they would avoid unpleasant situations for example a manager who is always nagging a sales person might say "well done for exceeding your quota" and he stops nagging the sales person. There is the existence of no praise, but the manager stops the undesirable statement. Another example can be that a supervisor can stop criticising or warning a worker so that he/she does not show the incorrect behaviour any more.

Extinction is when positive reward is withheld so that an undesirable behaviour is less likely to occur in the future. If a worker is not receiving praise, the worker might begin to grasp that his behaviour is not producing the expected results or is undesirable. The behaviour would gradually disappear if it is not continually reinforced.

The opposite of avoiding learning is punishment. It refers to the application of a negative consequence to stop or change undesirable behaviour. It typically occurs following undesirable behaviour. For example a manager might reduce an employee's salary that is always late at work. The manager might expect that negative outcome would serve as punishment and reduce the likelihood of the behaviour recurring. Punishment is often criticised as an improper way to indicate the correct behaviour.

The difficulty of identifying punishments or rewards is the main lapse of the reinforcement model (Booth-Butterfield, 1996). The model has to take into account the uniqueness of each human which is very difficult to be done. As it is always said, "one man's food is another man's poison". For example, an employee may be deficient in self-esteem, praises and recognition from the manager could act as reward. The presence of just one reward system will not solve the former

situation. The praises and recognition given to the above employees will become desirable after the employee must have boosted his/her self-esteem. Now, the manager will have to get a different reward to maintain the motivation fresh.

### 3. CONCLUSION

The essence of this paper was to present the theories of motivation and its critics. This was done by presenting the theories of motivation in two folds; that is content theories and process theories. These theories were presented one after the other with the critic of each theory respectively. The understanding of these theories will go a long way to help managers, heads of organisations and owners of enterprises to know what type of motivation is needed for their employees and how to administer these different motivations as per the type of employees that they may have in their organisation. On the other hand, the critics of the different theories will go a long way to give an understanding of the limits of the different theories as presented. Therein, it will give a new way of thinking and then give new reflections on the concept of motivation.

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