

Theories of Motivation

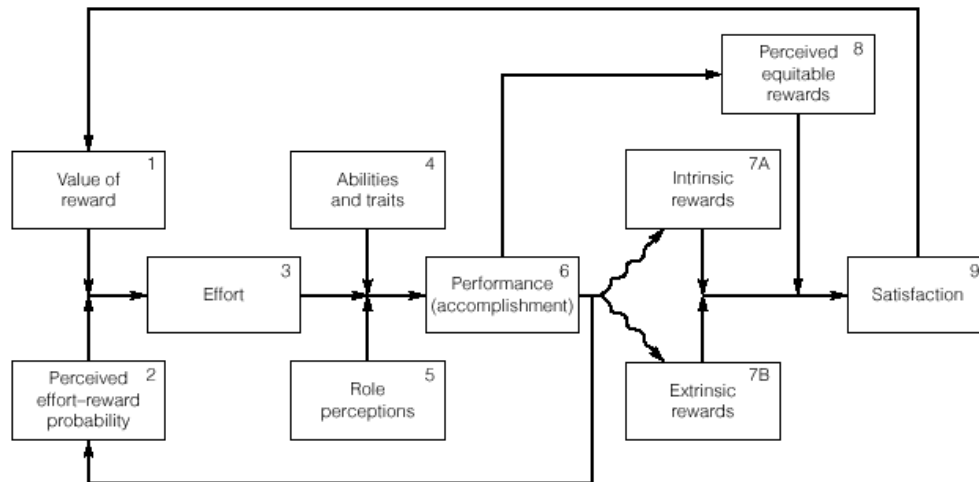
Content Theories

Many of the theories of motivation developed by behavioral scientists over the past 75 years use simple **content models** that describe how and why people are motivated to work. Four of the best-known content models are those developed by Frederick Herzberg (discussed in the text), Abraham Maslow, Douglas McGregor, and David McClelland.¹ Content theories provide for a static “snapshot” of how people are motivated to perform certain activities.

Process Theories

The second major thrust in motivation theories was the development of *process models*. Process theories and their models explain the dynamic process (as opposed to the static “snapshots” of content theories) of how people make choices under certain types of processes or situations in an effort to obtain desired rewards. The most influential theories were developed by Victor H. Vroom, Lyman Porter and Edward Lawler, Edward Locke, and Robert J. House.

Vroom proposed his preference-expectancy theory in 1964.² Vroom’s work formed the basis for one of the better known process theories, the Porter and Lawler model, which is one of the most widely accepted process models of motivation available today. Porter and Lawler extended Vroom’s work by examining more closely the traits and perceptions of the individual and the nature and impact of rewards on motivation. The Porter and Lawler model is a process model that explains the conditions and processes (contingencies) by which motivation to work takes place.³ A contingency model defines the variables of a process, the interactions between those variables, and the dynamic conditions under which those variables work.



Source: L. W. Porter and Edward E. Lawler, *Managerial Attitudes and Performance* (Burr Ridge, IL: Irwin, 1968); used with permission.

Figure 1 Porter and Lawler Model

The Porter and Lawler model is shown in Figure 1. The flow of this model indicates that effort (Box 3) is dependent on value of reward (Box 1) and perceived effort-reward probability (Box 2). Effort leads to performance (Box 6), which is affected by the abilities and traits (Box 4) and the role perceptions (Box 5) of the individual. Performance (Box 6), in turn, influences actual rewards—intrinsic (Box 7A) or extrinsic (Box 7B)—perceived equitable rewards (Box 8), and exerts a long-term influence (feedback) on perceived effort-reward probability. The rewards (Boxes 7A and 7B) and their perceived equity (Box 8) then influence satisfaction (Box 9), which has a long-term influence (feedback) on the value of reward (Box 1).

Components of the model are *expectancy* (which includes performance-outcome expectancy and effort-performance expectancy), *instrumentality* (the combination of abilities, traits, and role perceptions), and *valence* (preference for anticipated outcomes). Valence is represented by the value of reward. Expectancy is included in the perceived effort-reward probability and is also related to perceived equitable rewards. Instrumentality is the linking of effort to performance (accomplishment), moderated by abilities and traits and role perceptions. Successful performance then results in intrinsic rewards (a feeling of accomplishment) and extrinsic rewards (raises or bonuses). Given that rewards are equitable, employees experience satisfaction, which in turn contributes

to renewal of the motivation cycle. The model states that, depending on the actions of management, the expectations of employees, and the actual outcomes, a certain quantity and quality of employee motivation is present in an organization. Porter and Lawler's model, while more complex than content models, accounts for the process dynamics that content models lack.

Both opportunities and questions surround the issue of how certain aspects of motivation theories, such as goals and performance targets, may be applied in a TQ environment.⁴ Obviously, continuous improvement activities suggest that managers and workers set challenging goals and try to reach them. At the same time, if quality is a "race without a finish line," then no clear path of goal attainment can be determined. Without that clear path, managers cannot assist their workers in setting and reaching ever higher goals toward improvement.

The debate between process and content theories of motivation centers on which theory is a more accurate representation of human motivation. Obviously, they represent two views of the same reality. The content approach provides a simple, static representation of components of motivation. The process approach focuses on the dynamic interaction between the components of effort, ability, rewards, and performance as perceived by individuals in the work environment. Understanding both content and process views can aid managers as they attempt to design work to enhance motivation for quality.

Environmentally-Based and Other Motivation Theories

New theories of motivation are being developed and may have implications for motivating employees to make quality products and quality decisions. Some of the categories for these theories include environmentally-based theories (such as Skinner's operant conditioning⁵), Adams' equity theory,⁶ and social learning/self-efficacy theories.⁷ The latter category holds promise because these theories attempt to integrate earlier approaches to controlling behavior and actions by managing the immediate environment with the more individualistic theories that say that people will exercise self-control and will have self-confidence in their abilities to perform well on the job, if given the chance.

Goleman's "emotional intelligence" theory⁸ is one of the newest social learning/self-efficacy theories now under development.

It is impossible to completely divorce leadership from motivation. Leaders establish the motivational climate, so they must also respond when or if the climate becomes de-motivating. One of the newest and most publicized of the emerging leadership and motivation theories is called the **Emotional Intelligence Theory**⁹. Goleman defined five components of emotionally intelligent leaders: 1) Self-Awareness, 2) Self-Regulation, 3) Motivation, 4) Empathy, and 5) Social Skill. His premise is that there has been too much reliance on the rational side of leadership in leadership research studies and training done over the years. While his theory is focused on leader behavior, it has implications for the recipients of the behavior, the followers. Goleman argues that expectations for emotional intelligence are generally not captured in performance evaluation systems, but that the self-management (components 1 through 3) and interpersonal skills (components 4 and 5) represented by the five components are as essential for executive-level leaders as "traditional" intelligence (measured by IQ tests) and technical competence. The significance of emotional intelligence for effective total quality lies in translating the "vision" of an integrated leadership system and long-range planning process into action. Without credible self-management, represented by the first three components, it will be difficult for subordinates within the organization to "buy into" the vision of the leader. Since we are arguing that teams, especially self-managed ones, potentially are composed only of leaders, an understanding of emotional intelligence has far broader implications than the behavior of "formal" organizational leadership. Without mature empathy and social skills, represented by the last two components of Goleman's model, it will be difficult for the employee-leaders to work effectively with customers, suppliers, and others outside the organization in order to build rapport needed for long-term enterprise effectiveness, which is critical for a TQ focused organization.

In his recent book¹⁰, Goleman and his colleagues summarized research that had been done on aspects of emotional intelligence. They stated the impact that leadership can have in this way:

When leaders drive emotions positively ... they bring out everyone's best. We call this effective resonance. When they drive emotions negatively ... leaders spawn dissonance, undermining the emotional foundations that let people shine. Whether an organization withers or flourishes depends to a remarkable extent on leaders' effectiveness in this primal emotional dimension.

In an article leading up to the theory tested by the research in their book¹¹, Goleman developed six leadership styles: coercive, authoritative, affiliative, democratic, pace-setting, and coaching. It was pointed out that none of these styles work in every situation, so the manager must be able to switch between them, to the extent possible, and as the situation demands. Interestingly, the style that would seem most applicable to quality management and improvement situations, the pace-setting style, has some serious negative implications, as well as having positive advantages. The pace-setting style is described as one where the leader holds up very high performance standards to his or her team members, and also “walks the talk.” The downside risk of this approach is that employees tire of the constant demands brought on by the culture of high performance, and morale often takes a nosedive after some successes, or when the leader moves on. This might explain what happened in the Xerox story (see case in Chapter 5).

Applying Motivation Theories to TQ

As an example of how the Porter and Lawler model might apply in TQ, suppose that a bank decides to install a statistical process control system in its check-clearing department. It performs the activities of planning the new system, organizing the workforce, and training employees to use the new system. The bank even trains clerical workers in the details of recording information clearly and accurately. However, the bank emphasizes the detection of errors, the penalties for being caught making an error, and the advantages to the bank in reducing the costs necessitated by having to correct errors. No positive reinforcement is built into the system for making improvements in the process, reducing errors, or recording and using information. A few weeks after the system is installed, turnover and absentee rates have increased, new types of errors are being made, old error rates are increasing, and morale in the department is generally low.

For this situation, the Herzberg content model would indicate that the motivating factors of status and the work (content) itself are missing. The Porter and Lawler process

model could be used to trace out the flaws in the motivating process. The model shows that the bank's system has a deficiency in perceived effort-reward probability and, perhaps, value of reward as well. Thus, if employees do not perceive a high effort-reward probability or do not see a high value in the rewards that are given, they will not apply their best efforts to the task. Their abilities and traits will not be exercised to the fullest, and their perceptions of their role in the firm will be either negative or confused. These factors combine to result in low performance, which, in turn, will have a negative impact on extrinsic (tangible) rewards and intrinsic (intangible) rewards and on the perception of equitable (fair) rewards and overall satisfaction with accomplishment of the task. The negative cycle and its consequences are renewed each time the task is performed. To turn the situation around, companies must introduce an upward rather than a downward spiral of motivation by providing a positive combination of expectancy, effort, and accomplishment.

In this example, the value of the reward (Box 1 in the Porter and Lawler model in Figure 1), and the perceived effort-reward probability (Box 2) work in conjunction with intrinsic rewards, extrinsic rewards, and perceived equitable rewards (Boxes 7A, 7B, and 8) to produce motivated effort (Box 3), performance (Box 6), and satisfaction (Box 9). Thus, the attention to the details of job design can have a significant impact on the quality level in a work setting.

Bowditch and Buono suggested that an integrated theory of motivation, such as that under development with social learning/self efficacy theories, could be developed by considering the types of behavior in a group of people that are of interest to management.¹² Since not all motivation theories are equally good in predicting a wide range of behavior, managers may need to consider situational factors and to apply the correct motivational tools to the specific situation in order to improve results (as suggested in Goleman's emotional intelligence model.) Table 1 shows a set of common management situations, with examples relating to TQ, and gives suggestions for the type of motivation theory that could be applied to understand individual motivation and to shape it to meet individual and organizational goals.

Table 1 Applying Motivation Theories to TQ

Situation	TQ Example	Applicable Motivation Theories
Choice of employees	Decisions to join employee involvement groups	Expectancy
Prediction of choices	Management desires employee "buy-in" for reengineering	Equity, goal-setting
Effort exerted on a task	Group members' responses in performing a process improvement project	Reinforcement, equity
Work satisfaction	Responses to a survey on how well employees are responding to empowerment initiatives encouraged by management	Need, equity
On-the-job performance	Reduction of customer complaints in a hospital billing department, due to reduction of errors	Reinforcement, equity, goal-setting
Withdrawal from the job	Absenteeism, turnover	Reinforcement, equity, or expectancy (often related to rewards/goals)

¹ See, for example, Abraham Maslow, "A Theory of Human Motivation," *Psychological Review* 50, no. 4 (July 1943), 370–396; Abraham Maslow, *Motivation and Personality* (New York: Harper & Row, 1954); F. Herzberg, B. Mausner, and B. Snyderman, *The Motivation to Work*, 2d. ed. (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1959); Douglas McGregor, *The Human Side of Enterprise* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1960); and D. C. McClelland, *Assessing Human Motivation* (Morristown, NJ: General Learning Press, 1971).

² Victor H. Vroom, *Work and Motivation* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1964).

³ L. W. Porter and Edward E. Lawler, *Managerial Attitudes and Performance* (Homewood, IL: Richard D. Irwin, 1968).

⁴ James W. Dean, Jr., and James R. Evans, *Total Quality: Management Organization and Strategy*, 2nd ed. (Cincinnati, OH: South-Western College Publishing, 2000), 270-271.

⁵ B. F. Skinner, *Science and Human Behavior* (New York: The Free Press, 1953). See also *Beyond Freedom and Dignity* (New York: Bantam Books, 1971).

⁶ J. S. Adams, "Toward an Understanding of Equity," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* 67 (1963), 422–436. See also J. S. Adams and W. E. Rosenbaum, "The Relationship of Worker Productivity and Cognitive Dissonance About Wage Inequities," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 55, no. 1 (1971), 161–164.

⁷ A. Bandura, *Social Learning Theory* (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1977). See also Marilyn Gist and Terence R. Mitchell, "Self-Efficacy: A Theoretical Analysis of Its Determinants and Malleability," *Academy of Management Review* 17, no. 2, (1992), 183–211; and R. Kreitner and F. Luthans, "A Social Learning Approach to Behavioral Management: Radical Behaviorists 'Mellowing Out'," *Organizational*

Dynamics 13, no. 2 (1984), 47–65. Also see R. A. Snyder and Ronald R. Williams, “Self Theory: An Integrative Theory of Work Motivation,” *Journal of Occupational Psychology* 55 (1982), 257–267.

⁸ Daniel Goleman. “What Makes a Leader?” *Harvard Business Review*, November/December, 1998, 93-102. and Daniel Goleman. *Working With Emotional Intelligence* (New York: Bantam Books, 1998).

⁹ Daniel Goleman. “What Makes a Leader?” *Harvard Business Review*, November/December, 1998, 93-102. and Daniel Goleman. *Working With Emotional Intelligence* (New York: Bantam Books, 1998).

¹⁰ Daniel Goleman, Richard Boyatzis, and Annie McKee. *Primal Leadership: Realizing the Power of Emotional Intelligence*. (Boston: Harvard Business School Publishing), 2002.

¹¹ Daniel Goleman. “Leadership that Gets Results” *Harvard Business Review*, March/April, 2000, 78-90.

¹² Bowditch and Buono, 73–74, see note 82.