MANAGEMENT AND MOTIVATION

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1. INTRODUCTION.

Unravelling the complexities of management and motivation is by no means a simple task. But by taking a look at some of the better known theories of both motivation and management, and applying motivational knowledge to an EFL¹ setting, we shall see that an understanding of motivation is extremely important in managerial practice.

2. DEFINING MOTIVATION AND MANAGEMENT.

The word motivation derives from the Latin root - *movis* - meaning movement, and as movement can be driven by a variety of forces, motivation will inevitably have a complex nature. It has been defined as follows:

*The study of motivation is the study of all those pushes and prods - biological, social, and psychological - that defeat our laziness and move us, either eagerly or reluctantly, to action.* (Miller, 1962)

Motivation explains the ‘why’ of behaviour, why people and/or animals consciously or subconsciously choose to do what they do - or do not do, in order to achieve some desired goal. Almost all human behaviour is, therefore, motivationally based. Management, on the other hand, implies the conscious controlling of others behaviour for the purpose of attaining an organization’s goals. Management is concerned with the professional administration of business concerns:

*The planning of work, organizing the distribution of activities and tasks, to other people, direction of subordinate staff and controlling the performance of other people’s work.* (Mullins, 1985:123).
3. THE IMPORTANCE OF MOTIVATION.


Most organizations have a structured hierarchy, from company presidents down to shop floor workers. The employers and employees, however, are hardly likely to share identical goals. With the former the driving force is usually company profits and levels of production, whilst with the latter it is generally more individualistic - i.e., financial security. The employer / employee relationship is, however, essentially symbiotic, for neither party can attain its respective goals without the other. There is a bi-directional process in play: managers need a workforce to attain company goals, and the workforce need the organization to provide them with jobs and incomes which will allow them to achieve their own idiosyncratic goals. One of the main managerial tasks is, therefore, to ensure that both employer and employee motivators are balanced to best effect. And as an organization's human resource is probably its most valued resource, the importance of this balancing of both parties goals is perhaps nulli secundus.

The effective manager is able to achieve employer / employee symbiosis if s/he is aware of the various motivational forces and their effects, and can then apply appropriate knowledge as the situation dictates. This is not, however, a simple process, for what motivates one person in one situation may well ‘demotivate’ another. Consequently, there is no magic formula which the manager can learn and subsequently apply.

3:2 Lack of Motivation.

Nevertheless, various studies have shown that unsuccessful motivation of employees is likely to result in numerous problems: increased absenteeism, sickness, slower - less efficient workers, and frustrated employees going on strike or staging other kinds of industrial action:

FIGURE 1. Employer / Employee Symbiosis.

ORGANIZATIONS \rightarrow INDIVIDUALS

GOALS \leftarrow GOALS
Motivation is an important aspect in the operation of a control system. Lack of positive motivation can lead to frustrated behaviour resulting in lack of commitment to the aims of the organization and poor job performance. (Mullins, 1996: 610).

So, if the manager is aware of the importance of motivation, and understands the process, this:

Should make for better decisions affecting people organizations, better decisions in the sense that they are taken with more knowledge of the implications and likely outcomes. (Handy, 1993:30).

4. THEORETICAL APPROACHES - THE PSYCHOLOGICAL CONNECTION.

4.1. The Motivators.

Various theories have been proposed in an attempt to explain motivation and its application to management, and most reflect the psychological consensus of their days. Psychoanalytic psychologists explain motives and motivation as man's unconscious wishes, Behaviourists base their theories on concepts of reinforcement, Humanistic psychologists are concerned with the relationship between self actualization and

**FIGURE 2. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Model (1954).**

INTRINSIC MOTIVATORS

Self Actualisation
Aesthetic
Cognitive
Esteem
Love
Safety
Physiological

EXTRINSIC MOTIVATORS

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behaviour, Neurobiological psychologists search for clues which will explain motivation in terms of neurological factors, whilst Cognitive psychologists see it all as relating to internal processes. Such a quagmire of theoretical approaches only serves to complicate matters for the manager in search of a hopeful human resource panacea. It also makes it difficult to categorically state the relevance/ effectiveness of each theory. But it does serve as a warning that there are probably a variety of motivational factors involved in successful management. And Maslow’s hierarchy of needs is a good means of pictorially representing many of these motivational factor categories.

From Maslow’s model we can see that there are both Intrinsic and Extrinsic motivators. The Intrinsic Motivators are the self-generated factors which influence human behaviour, and usually have a long term effect, i.e., interesting and/or challenging work. The Extrinsic Motivators, are the ‘external’ factors: “what is done to or for people” (Armstrong, 1995:153), in order to motivate them, i.e., rewards and punishments. Extrinsic motivators may well be powerful influencers but they are often rather short term in effect.

Most motivation / management theories concern themselves with at least one of the above categories.

4:2. The Five Basic Assumptions.

According to Schein there are five basic headings under which we can categorize most motivation / management theories:

A. RATIONAL - ECONOMIC MAN.

The first theories were based on the assumption that humans were motivated purely by financial factors, and that simply dangling a financial carrot in front of workers was the only motivator required, or at least the most successful. This can be seen in Taylor’s work on Scientific Management (1911) where efficient workers were to be rewarded financially.

B. SOCIAL MAN.

Following the Hawthorne studies (Mayo 1927–32), motivation was then seen to be more concerned with people and satisfying relationships. In Human Relations approaches to management workers were, therefore, considered not simply as
machines but as humans that required managerial support and sympathy. This was indeed a step in the right direction, but, by basically concentrating on the relationships between workers, management was still only dealing with the tip of the iceberg.

C. SELF - ACTUALIZING MAN.

Further expanding the parameters of human relations, it was then proposed that man actually seeks out challenge in order to find fulfilment. Humans were seen in a more autonomous light, and this inevitably led to more intricate theories of human behaviour, i.e., Maslow’s theory of human needs, and McGregor’s Theory Y.

D. COMPLEX MAN. & E. THE PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSUMPTION.

The promulgators of these theories recognized the variable nature of human needs and, therefore, emphasized the need for managerial awareness of Psychological Contracts - the “mutual expectations and satisfaction of needs arising from the people-organization relationship” (Mullins, 1996:13). They also recognized the need for individuals to attain their own ego ideals. Both the ‘Systems’ and ‘Contingency’ approaches to management are based on such theoretical stances.

There are numerous theories in existence, and many overlap in their areas of interest, making it perhaps inadvisable to draw clear distinctions and categories. But aligning the psychological concepts of motivation alongside the commensurate approaches to management is a useful guide in explaining the hows and whys of management. It allows us to see not only the variety of ways in which motivation has been considered, but also the significance of certain motivational theories in specific contexts. Such a table also provides us with a clear picture of the numerous concepts.

which management needs to consider. See Appendix A.

From the table in Appendix A we can see not only the five main assumptions underlying most motivation/management theories, but also that there has been a move from the Rational-economic man theories and scientific management practices which took no account of human needs, to those theories which do display concern and awareness of man's need for achievement, or Alderfer's ERG theory (1972) which is concerned with the subjective states of satisfaction and desire (see Armstrong, 1995: 157), as well as theories which recognize the importance and complex relationship of a variety of motivational factors, i.e., Adair's Contingency Theory which takes account of task, individual and group needs.

It is beyond our scope here to go into all the theories in detail, but the table does serve as an indicator of the broad scope of theories postulated and managerial practices possible.

4:3 Multiple Motivators.

The range of possible motivators certainly seems vast. But as Herzberg et al's theory (1957) indicates, some factors may well be 'motivators' whilst others are actually 'hygiene' factors: not positive motivators, as such, but factors that maintain the status quo by ensuring that dissatisfaction / 'demotivation' is kept at bay.

The premise behind Herzberg's theory is that both positive motivators and zero maintenance factors are involved in controlling human behaviour. Such factors will however vary, not only between individuals but also in different situations. In the current days of high unemployment and redundancies it may well be, for example, that job security is taking on a much more powerful motivational force than it once did.

See Appendix B for a list of Herzberg's 'hygiene' and 'motivator' factors.

It would, therefore, seem that it is actually the concurrent selection and application of knowledge from a variety of motivational theories and managerial interventions that is likely to prove most viable and effective. For it is increasingly evident that motivation has a very idiosyncratic nature, displaying a variety of both complex and particular factors.
5. THE COMPLEX, PARTICULAR NATURE OF MOTIVATION.

Regardless of whichever psychological or sociological stance the manager adopts, it is crucial that s/he is aware of the idiosyncratic nature of motivation. Handy succinctly points out, in his book 'Understanding Organizations' (1993), that motivation is not only complex it also has particular characteristics as concerns both individuals and situations. In other words, managers need to consider motivation in a broad light, and decide upon practices best suited to specific environments.

Expanding upon Handy’s concept of ‘E’ elements\(^8\) we can see that the manager needs to be aware not only of the Idiosyncratic Environments which affect the Salience of needs, the Expectancy of attaining needs and Instrumentality factors, but also how the latter factors, in turn, affect the Idiosyncrasies of the ‘E’ factors (energy, excitement, enthusiasm, emotion, and expenditure of time, money and passion), which, because of our need to stabilize our environment (homeostasis), will eventually result in motivated behaviour.

This is similar to Vroom’s Motivation Calculus\(^9\), wherein if one factor amounts to zero the entire motivational force will result in nought. This has far reaching implications for the manager who, to ensure the smooth running of an organization, has to take extreme care not to negate the value of any single motivational and/or environmental factor. For example, in the selection of group members, an essential part of establishing human relations, a homogeneous group may well lead to higher

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**FIGURE 4.** Idiosyncratic ‘E’.

Key: \(x = \) multiply.

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Salience of Needs

Expectancy

IDIOSYNCRATIC ENVIRONMENT

Instrumentality

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<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Energy</th>
<th>X</th>
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<tr>
<td>Excitement</td>
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<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>Enthusiasm</td>
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<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>Emotion</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Expenditure of Money</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expenditure of Passion</td>
<td>X</td>
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= Homeostasis

Motivational Force
satisfaction levels, but a heterogeneous group, despite a degree of conflict, may well achieve higher production levels\textsuperscript{10}. Similarly in some of the recent theories which stress the motivational force of Equity - fairness in respect to others, we can see that although financial rewards may still succeed in motivating employees they will only be successful, in the long term, if equity is considered to be in play.

I would, therefore, question the effectiveness of the recently popular PRP\textsuperscript{11} schemes, for in organizations, such as Educational establishments, where performance is very difficult to measure, it is practically impossible to implement any such scheme in an equitable manner and, therefore, doubtful that motivation of the workforce could be maintained by such a measure.

So how, considering such complexities, can motivational knowledge be applied to management?

6. APPLYING MOTIVATION TO MANAGEMENT.

A broad knowledge of motivation should make managers more aware of the need to be familiar with different Role, Power, and Task cultures, and how they affect one another\textsuperscript{12}. Management needs to be aware that not all motivational factors will necessarily be controllable, and some factors only controllable to a certain degree. In addition, management should also be aware that the internal processes are so idiosyncratic that precise managerial predictions are almost always impossible. However, the more knowledgeable the manager is concerning motivational forces, the more educated and effective his / her predictions are likely to be.

Motivation is a dynamic process, so a combination of concepts often proves most effective in management. The managerial task will, therefore, be multifold, and this can be seen in Armstrong's book 'Personnel Management Practice' (1995) where he lists not only ten key messages for management, but also various Motivation Strategies\textsuperscript{13}, for he believes these, appropriately applied, form the basis of effective management (See Appendix C).

Armstrong details each point in turn and indicates how each might be quintessential to managerial practice. But his main point is that managers should be aware of how different motivators and processes of motivation can further a number of the organization's aims.
7. APPLYING MOTIVATIONAL KNOWLEDGE TO AN EFL SETTING.

There are a number of peculiarities to EFL settings, and these should be accom-
modated into any managerial approach. Most schools teaching foreign languages, for
example, can be categorized as 'service' industries, or quite simply in their own right
as part of the 'education' industry. In such a setting, both performance and product
take on rather different perspectives compared to in an industrial / commodities
setting.

Many schools are also inextricably linked to social, economic and political cultures,
so they will be subject to a number of both internal and external forces, many of which
conflict. In addition, teaching staff generally represent a highly educated workforce,
well aware of the value of motivational forces; they are, therefore, highly likely to be
critical of any inept managerial practices.

It may also be the case that the managers will have to balance two or more systems
of management, one for the teachers and another for the ancillary staff, whilst at the
same time also be aware of the students' needs. The EFL manager's task will,
therefore, not be an easy one. However, Armstrong's strategies can still be applied.

7:1. Motivation Strategies in EFL.


In an EFL setting motivation can be assessed and measured indirectly through
attitude surveys, and / or keeping tabs on absenteeism, staff turnover rates, and the
various issues and grievances raised.

To this end the manager must provide situations in which staff can express feelings,
i.e. weekly or monthly staff meetings where participation is encouraged and valued.
But what is measured must then be acted upon. An ongoing example of teachers'
grievances not being acted upon to an acceptable degree, can be seen in British
inner-city schools where motivational problems, resulting from stress related environ-
ments, have led to a high drop out level of teachers. Managerial / government
intervention has based most of its response to the problem on the rather outdated
scientific management practice of increased pay packets, which, hardly surprisingly,
has not 're-motivated' the teachers.
2. **Ensure workers feel valued.**

   To ensure that both the teachers and ancillary staff feel valued it is important to involve them, and to trust and empower them. Of course recognition can be tied to financial rewards, but it is often the non-financial rewards which have a more lasting effect, i.e. praise and feedback. In this respect, as mentioned earlier, equity is also important, for without fair treatment employees are not likely to feel valued.

3. **Developing behavioural commitment.**

   Again this can be achieved by encouraging participation. Staff meetings are, not only a floor upon which to air grievances, they are a forum where both the individual and the group have a chance to work together and be involved in the making of joint decisions concerning central issues, such as the setting of overall objectives, curriculum design and the formatting of schedules.

4. **Developing a motivation fostering climate.**

   This is by no means a simple task, but one which will be greatly aided by management being familiar with the varying aspects and influences of motivational forces, and by managers who themselves set a good role model. And as teachers are a prime example of the new 'knowledgeable workforce', the manager must be extremely competent in controlling such features.

5. **Improving leadership skills.**

   In large EFL establishments there may be various grades of teaching staff, in smaller schools there may be none. But, whichever the situation, it is still important to involve staff and allow them to fulfil their own aspirations or achievement needs.

   Management should ensure that appropriate provision is made for staff who wish to keep up with current movements in educational fields, whether this be through in-house training, workshops, or sabbaticals. In addition, management should also help staff develop awareness of the social and/or business aspects which may be related to their job and the organization.

6. **Job Design.**

   In EFL management it is also important to ensure that the needs of students,
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teachers, ancillary staff and management can all be balanced acceptably. Again this generally involves consideration of both intrinsic and extrinsic motivators. In a conversation class, for example, a small number of students may be less profitable, and, therefore, less attractive to management, but may be much more acceptable to both the teachers and students. And when drawing up contracts it is important that non-teaching (but nevertheless working) hours be accorded recognition, for a teacher's 'E' factors are, after all, quite finite/exhaustible resources.

7. Performance management.

In respect to performance management it is essential that managers be aware of the importance of contract as opposed to command. The Psychological Contract (4:2D/ E), for example, will have to be recognized, as in goal setting, feedback and reinforcement. Again this can be aided by management encouraging employee participation in decision making.

8. Reward management.

In the world of teaching, rewards have often been clearly defined, with qualifications and length of service usually leading to higher increments and pay. In the EFL setting, however, teaching contracts are often short and/or part-time in nature, and provision of benefits, such as health care and pensions, may well be lacking. Management may, therefore, have to offer higher salaries, free flight tickets, and tax incentives to make up for this lack of familiar rewards and benefits. And as EFL establishments are dotted all around the globe it is also extremely important that managers be aware of cultural diversity in reward systems, and clearly define their systems from the outset, thus avoiding problems such as those encountered by westerners experiencing the gender/age system of Japan.


In Japan, in addition to life-time employment, company commitment is partially achieved through the use of a bonus system which is directly linked to company success and profits. In an EFL setting the teaching staff are more likely to be interested in teaching well than in company profits, so there may well be a conflict of interests. It is, therefore, all the more important that EFL managers ensure that a
variety of hygiene and motivational factors are kept balanced.

8. CONCLUSION.

Until empirical evidence can throw more light on specific theoretical applicability we should proceed with caution. We have seen that motivation has a decidedly non quiescent quality, with various factors i.e., the 'motivation' and 'hygiene' factors seemingly playing crucial roles in the employer/employee symbiotic relationship.

In addition, the application of motivational theory to managerial practice seems fraught with complexities, and there does not appear to be any single theoretical stance which provides any magic managerial panacea, for there is, as yet: "no theory or model of management which provides a complete explanation of how an organization works". (White et al, 1995:29).

However, we have also seen that motivational awareness can have far reaching consequences in management. And if a manager has an extremely broad knowledge of motivation, and can appropriately apply his/her knowledge as and when the situation dictates, then s/he stands a good chance of avoiding many worker - motivationally related problems(3:2).

The manager who is aware of the importance of motivation can, not only keep employees content, but also improve the attainment of the organization's goals.

It should, therefore, be part and parcel of the managerial task to stay as well-informed as possible.

Motivation may well be complex, but it is, nevertheless, quintessential to effective management.

1 EFL refers to 'English as a Foreign Language'.
2 An in-depth account of all the approaches referred to can be found in Gross's book 'Psychology' (1993).
3 The Physiological Needs include: food, sleep, sex, etc.; the Safety Needs include: a relatively stable environment and freedom from threats; the Love Needs include: affectionate relations and status within a group etc.; the Esteem Needs include: self respect, esteem for self and others etc.; and the Self-actualization Needs include those needs concerned with self fulfilment.
4 Taylor believed that the efficient worker was one who could achieve pre-determined rates of 'production'.
5 For an in-depth look at these major theories, and others, please refer to the literature that can be found in the bibliography.
6 A full account of Herzberg's Motivation and Hygiene factors can also be found in Cole, 1993:35.
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7 Please refer to Handy, 1993:35.
8 For an in-depth account of 'E' elements, please refer to Handy, 1993:40-44.
9 The Motivation Calculus is an equation which shows how Valence and Expectancy determine a person's motivation for a given form of behaviour. It reads
   \[ \Sigma E.v \] (See Mullins, 1996:502).
10 Please refer to Handy, 1993:159.
11 PRP refers to Performance Related Pay Schemes. See Armstrong, 1995:661.
12 Role, Power and Task cultures are explained in Handy, 1993:236.
13 Motivation Strategies are strategies which create and improve the working environment, policies and practices, and lead to improved performance.
14 See, for example, McClelland's theory of man's innate need to achieve (refer to bibliography).
15 By 'Company Commitment' I am referring to - employee dedication to employer goals.
APPENDIX A. ALIGNING MOTIVATIONAL THEORIES WITH MANAGERIAL APPROACHES.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PSYCHOLOGICAL STANCE</th>
<th>CONCERN</th>
<th>MOTIVATOR</th>
<th>APPLICATION TO MANAGEMENT</th>
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<tr>
<td>THE PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSUMPTION.</td>
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APPENDIX B. HERZBERG'S HYGIENE & MOTIVATOR FACTORS.

Nb. Motivators can have negative aspects eg. Lack of achievement can lead to dissatisfaction, and Hygiene factors can have positive aspects eg. salary can be a source of satisfaction. (Adapted from Cole's depiction of Herzberg et al's Motivation & Hygiene factors, Cole, 1993: 35).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FACTORS LEADING TO</th>
<th>FACTORS LEADING TO</th>
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<tr>
<td>EXTREME DISSATISFACTION</td>
<td>EXTREME SATISFACTION</td>
</tr>
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<td>HYGIENE FACTORS</td>
<td>MOTIVATORS</td>
</tr>
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</table>

- Achievement
- Recognition
- Work itself
- Responsibility
- Advancement
- Growth

- Company policy & administration
- Supervision
- Relationship with supervisor
- Work conditions
- Salary
- Relationship with peers
- Personal life
- Relationship with subordinates
- Status
- Security
APPENDIX C.

(i) THE TEN KEY MESSAGES OF MOTIVATION.

1. There are both Extrinsic and Intrinsic motivating factors.
2. Needs and wants are significant.
3. Goals will influence a person's motivation.
4. Expectations will influence a person's motivation.
5. Awareness of self-efficacy is required.
6. Awareness of Behavioural theory will aid management, but it is not an end in itself.
7. Awareness of Social learning theory will aid management.
8. Awareness of Attribution theory will aid management.
9. Role modelling is important.
10. Personal orientations and reactions will influence a person's motivation.


(ii) MOTIVATION STRATEGIES.

1. Measuring motivation to provide an indication of areas where motivational practices need to be improved.
2. Ensuring, as far as possible, that employees feel they are valued.
3. Developing behavioural commitment.
4. Developing an organization climate which will foster motivation.
5. Improving leadership skills.
7. Performance Management.
8. Reward Management.

(Armstrong, 1995: 169.).
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