

Chapter – 2

Conceptual Framework and Literature Review

1.0 Motivation- A Concept

Motivation is a key to performance improvement. The people will do what they want to do or otherwise motivated to do. Ideally, motivation is the key to creating an environment where optimal performance is possible. Every person has his own set of motivations and personal incentives to work hard or not, as the case may be.

The concept of motivation refers to internal factors that impel action and to external factors that can act as inducements to action. The three aspects of action that motivation can affect are direction (choice), intensity (effort), and duration (persistence). As per Locke and Latham (Locke & Latham, Jul., 2004), motivation can affect not only the acquisition of people's skills and abilities but also how and to what extent they utilize their skills and abilities.

Motivation was defined by Higgins (Higgins, 1994) as an internal drive to answer unsatisfied needs. Nahavandi and Malekzadeh (Nahavandi & Malekzadeh, 1999) defined the motivation as a state of mind, desire, energy or interest that translates into action. This state of mind can be inferred to translate into the action of increased performance.

Landy (Landy, 1989) described the motivation in terms of complex combination of perceptions, aspirations and environmental interactions. Buford, Bedeian and Linder (Buford, Bedeian, & Linder, 1995) describe it as a predisposition to behave in a purposeful manner to achieve specific, unmet needs. Kreitner (Kreitner, 1995) has defined it as a psychological process that gives direction and purpose to a person's behavior.

More, Wegener and Miller (More, Wegner, & Miller, 2003) described motivation as something that energizes a person to take action and which is concerned with the choices, the person makes as part of his or her goal oriented behavior. A person's motivation to act, they reasoned depends on two things: the strength of the need and the person's belief that the action will satisfy the need.

As per Butkus and Green (Butkus & Green, 1999), motivation is derived from the word motivate, which means "*to move, push or persuade to act for satisfying a need*". The motivation is asset of processes concerned with a kind of force that energizes behaviour and directs it towards achieving some specific goals. Motivation is also generally expressed as goal directed behaviour.

1.1 Motivation in Organizational Context:

Motivation in the work context can be defined as an individual's degree of willingness to exert and maintain an effort towards organizational goals. Motivation is an internal psychological process. It is not possible to motivate

people directly, other than, to create an environment conducive to high degrees of motivation.

Further, motivation itself is not an observable phenomenon. It is only possible to observe either the results of the motivational process (such as improved performance) or perhaps some of the determinants of motivation. Work motivation is closely linked with the related concepts of organizational commitment, job satisfaction and self-efficacy.

Motivation was defined operationally by Lindner (Linder, 1998) as the inner force that drives individuals to accomplish personal and organizational goals. Whisenand and Rush (Whisenand & Rush, 1988) defined worker motivation as the psychological forces within a person that determine the direction of the person's behavior in an organization, a person's level of effort and a person's level of persistence in the face of obstacles. According to them, it is the willingness to do something and is conditioned by an action's ability to satisfy some need for the individual. A motivated employee is in a state of tension that remains until the object of the motivation is achieved. The greater the motivation the greater the degree of tension and the more activity required to relieve it.

According to Roberts (Roberts, May, 2005), roles of managers are to successfully guide employees towards the organizational agenda of achieving its objectives; therefore, it is very important for them to understand those psychological processes and undertakings that root cause the simulation, direction of destination, determination and persistence of voluntary actions.

From the aforesaid, following common characteristics of the motivation stand out which facilitate a clearer understanding of the motivation as a phenomenon:

- a. An internal need energizes and activates the human behaviour.
- b. Drive is the inner force that propels the behaviour in a specific direction.
- c. Goals are the incentives of pay offs that reinforces private satisfaction that, in turn, reinforces the perpetuation of needs.

With the above concepts in mind, a generalized definition of the motivation can be drawn out as under:

"Motivation is the need or drive, within an individual, that drives him or her toward goal oriented behaviour/ action. The extent of drive depends on the perceived level of satisfaction that can be achieved by the goal".

1.2 Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation:

1.2.1 Intrinsic Motivation:

Intrinsic Motivation (Broedling, Apr., 1977) reflects the desire to do something because it is enjoyable. If an individual is intrinsically motivated, he would not be worried about external rewards such as praise or awards. If one is

intrinsically motivated, the enjoyment, he experiences in performing an activity, would be sufficient for him to want to repeat the activity in the future.

Examples of Intrinsic Motivation:

Writing stories because one really enjoys writing them, reading a non-fiction book on space because one is curious about the topic and playing golf because one enjoys the game, are some examples of intrinsic motivation.

1.2.2 Extrinsic Motivation:

Extrinsic motivation (Broedling, Apr., 1977) reflects the desire to do something because of external rewards such as awards, money and praise. People, who are extrinsically motivated, may not enjoy certain activities, yet they may wish to engage in those activities just because they wish to receive some external rewards. Use of extrinsic motivators, such as clear expectations, feedback and rewards etc., for bringing about perceptible improvement in the performance of employees is widely recognized by the organizations.

Examples of extrinsic motivation:

A student, who likes singing but chooses engineering stream due to better career prospects, would be one example of extrinsic motivation. A person, who dislikes marketing stream as such, but accepts a post in the marketing field because of better emoluments, is another example of extrinsic motivation.

2.0 Evolution of Managerial Approaches to Organizational Motivation

Despite In spite of existence of large and complex organizations for centuries, systematic analysis of role of motivation in the organizations is a comparatively recent phenomenon. Before industrial revolution, major catalyst of motivation fear of punishment — physical, financial or social. As manufacturing processes advanced, large scale manufacturing industrial organizations started emerging and replacing the existing home industries. This phenomenon destroyed many of the existing social and organizational relationships.

Increased capital investment and increased degree of impersonalisation in superior-subordinate relationships brought about a social revolution in the industrial system. These new social forces brought about a need for a well-defined philosophy of human resource management. Many of the intrinsic motivational factors of the home industry system were replaced by comparatively more extrinsic factors. The end result of this social and organizational churning was evolution of traditional model of motivation.

2.1 Traditional Model of Motivation

This model is best characterized by writings of Fredrick 'W' Taylor. This approach (Taylor, 1911) to motivation rested on several very contemporary assumptions about the nature of human beings. Specifically, workers were viewed as being typically lazy, often dishonest, aimless, dull and most of all,

mercenary. Major task of a manager was thus supervising the workers to ensure that they met their production quotas and adhered to company rules. It is also referred to as scientific model of management.

As this model got increasingly adopted in the organizations, it led to several new problems. While the jobs became more and more routine, but specialized, the management started putting constraints on the incentive system, thereby limiting income of the workers. Fear of job insecurity started rising, providing an impetus to rise of unionism. The unparalleled growth and efficiency, that had occurred under this scientific management model, began to subside. In order to overcome such problems, some organizations started re-examining their motivational assumptions about employees and looking for new methods to increase production and maintain a steady workforce. One such revisionist approach to motivation at work is the human relation model.

2.2 Human Relations Model of Motivation

By the late 1920's, efforts were initiated to examine reasons for inadequacies of the traditional model in motivating the people. New assumptions for motivating workers were characterized by a strong social emphasis. It was argued that management had a responsibility to make employees feel useful and important on the job, to provide recognition, and generally to facilitate the satisfaction of workers' social needs. Attention was shifted away from the study of man-machine relations and toward a more thorough understanding of interpersonal and group relations at work.

It led to evolution of a number of motivational strategies. The management realized that it had a new responsibility to make workers feel important. Many organizations attempted to open up vertical communication channels so that employees would know more about the organization and would have greater opportunity to have their opinions heard by the management. The workers were increasingly allowed to take routine decisions concerning their own jobs. The basic goal of the management still remained to secure compliance of the managerial authority by the employees.

2.3 Human Resource Models of Motivation

Of late, the assumptions of the human relations model have also been challenged, not only for being an oversimplified and incomplete statement of human behavior at work, but also for being as manipulative as the earlier traditional model.

Human resource models generally view human beings as motivated by a complex set of interrelated factors. It is assumed that different employees often seek quite different goals in a job and have a diversity of talents to offer. Under these models, the employees are looked upon as reservoirs of potential talents and the management is now required to learn how best to tap such resources.

It is assumed that the individuals, who want to contribute on their jobs, do not necessarily have to be devoid of taste. Many of the current efforts at job enrichment and job redesign are aimed at increasing the

potential meaningfulness of the work by adding greater amounts of task variety, autonomy, responsibility etc. It is assumed that this increased self-control and direction allowed on the job, and the completion of more meaningful tasks, can, to a large extent, determine the level of satisfaction on the job.

In other words, it is generally assumed that good and meaningful performance leads to job satisfaction and not the reverse, as was assumed in the human relations model. Such a philosophy implies a great degree of participation by the employees in the decision-making process as well as an increased autonomy over the task accomplishment. Management's task is seen not so much as one of manipulating employees to accept managerial authority, but developing a partnership with the employees, with each member contributing optimally, according to his or her abilities and interests towards the organization's goal.

Several organizations have started experimenting in enriching the nature of the job. In fact, all the above three models have their own strengths and weaknesses. Empirical evidences can be offered in support of each of the above three approaches. Each model has its rightful place, depending upon the nature of an organization, its technology, its people, and most of all, its goals and priorities for the future.

2.4 Multivariate Conceptual Approach

If motivation concerns the factors which energize, direct and sustain human behaviour, then a comprehensive theory of motivation at work must address to, at least, three important sets of variables that constitute the work situation i.e. characteristics of the individual, behavioral implications of the required job tasks and impact of larger organizational environment.

2.4.1 Characteristics of the Individual

It has been found that difference in individuals can, at times, account for a good deal of the variance in effort and performance on a job. At least, three major categories of individual difference characteristics have been shown to affect the motivational process:

1. Interest
2. Attitudes
3. Needs

"Interests" refer to the direction of one's attention. It appears likely that the nature of an employee's interest would affect both manner and the extent to which external stimuli would affect his behaviors. Several studies have shown that an employee's motivation to participate is, to a large extent, determined by the degree of fit between his or her vocational interests and realities of the job. Thus, the interest may be considered one factor that individuals generally bring to the organization that, at least to some extent, can affect their behaviour at work.

In addition to the interests, "*attitudes or beliefs*" of an employee may also have an impact on their motivation to perform. Individuals, who are very dissatisfied with their jobs or with their supervisor, or any number of other things, may have little desire to put forth much effort. Individuals attempt to behave in a fashion consistent with their own self-image. The managers should make efforts to modify the self-image of the employees. If the employees felt pride in working for the organization for and they saw themselves as effective contributors to the organization's goals, they would be more likely to perform at a higher level.

The individual characteristic that has received the most widespread attention, in terms of motivation theory and research, is the concept of "*needs*". A "*need*" may be defined as an internal state of dis-equilibrium that caused individuals to pursue certain course of action, in an effort to regain the internal equilibrium. For example, individuals, who have a high need for achievement, might be motivated to engage in competitive acts with others, so they can 'win', thereby satisfying this need of theirs.

2.4.2 Characteristics of the Job Tasks

A The second set of variables to be considered, while reviewing the motivational process, involves the factors relating to the attributes of an individual's job tasks i.e. What an employee does at work? How much feedback is provided to him/her about the work done by him/her? Does the work offer intrinsic rewards? The nature of job characteristics has evolved as a major concern that must be taken into account when developing a

comprehensive theory of motivation at work. Herzberg's "Dual Factor" Theory of Motivation also has its roots in the nature of the task as it affects performance (Herzberg, 1962).

2.4.3 Characteristics of Work Environment

Work environment factors may be divided into two major categories, one associated with the immediate work environment and the other associated with the larger sub-set of organization-wide factors.

There are, at least, two major factors in the immediate work environment that may affect the work behavior. The first is the quality of peer group interactions. Peer-group influence may significantly influence the efforts of an individual employee. Secondly, the supervisors have considerable influence over the ability or freedom of employees to pursue their own personal goals on the job.

The organization-wide work environment variables include the factors which are common throughout the organization and are generally characteristic of the organization itself. These include the factors such as openness of communication, perceived relative emphasis on rewards versus punishment, degree of interdepartmental cooperation and so forth.

2.4.4 Interactive Effects

It is, therefore, evident now that a multitude of variables, throughout the organization, may have significant bearing on the motivation levels of its

employees. However, this simple enumeration of motivationally relevant factors fails to recognize mechanics of inter-variable interaction of these variables within a system framework to determine work behavior of the employees. The motivational models should be examined from a dynamic perspective.

An individual may have a strong desire to perform well on the job, but he or she may lack a clear understanding of his or her proper role. The employees may thus waste or misdirect effort and thereby fail to receive expected rewards. Similarly, an employee may truly want to perform at a high level, but may simply lack the requisite ability for a good performance on his or her particular job. Therefore, the interactive dynamics between the major sets of variables influences the resulting efforts and the performance.

Most theories of motivation look, to some extent, at the relationships among certain variables. Some theories have evolved incorporating a system's framework and use the concept of interactive effects as the basic unit of analysis. One of such theories is the Equity Theory. This Theory primarily deals with the dynamic relationship between individuals and the specific actions taken by the organization.

2.5 Motivation and Job Satisfaction

Elton Mayo and his coworkers, by Hawthorne experiment, became convinced (Mayo, 1933) that factors of a social nature affect the job satisfaction and the productivity. The implicit assumption was, of course, that a satisfied worker

produces more. The traditional model of job satisfaction is that it consists of a total body of feelings that an individual has about his job. The total body of feelings involves, in effect, weighing up the sum total of influences on the job, the nature of the job itself, the pay, promotion prospectus, the nature of supervision, and so on.

2.5.1 Motivation and Productivity

The object of the management is to extract the optimum performance from its employees. The management policies should aim at satisfying the needs of the employees to attain the optimum performance. The management is always in search of better measures that can increase the morale of employees and their productivity.

If the employees in an organization are skilled, it may not imply that they would put in their best performance. In order to utilize their skills optimally, the management has to maximize the factors that impel them to put in their best efforts and minimize the factors that hold them back from putting in their best performance.

Prof R. S. Davar has derived following relationship between motivation and productivity (Davar, Davar , & Davar, 1980):

$$P = M (A+K)$$

Where, P = Performance, M = Motivation, A = Abilities,

K = Knowledge.

3.0 Theories of Motivation

Major Schools of Motivation Theories

There are following five major schools of motivation theories:

- a) Need Theory.
- b) Instrumentality Theory.
- c) Equity Theory.
- d) Reinforcement Theory.
- e) Goal setting Theory.

These and other theories of motivation can be classified as either 'Process' or 'Content' theories. Process or Cognitive theories tend to explain how motivation is caused, maintained and ceased, while Content or Need theories attempt to identify the specific factors which initiate, maintain and diminish motivation (Landy, 1989).

3.2 Content and Process Theories

3.2.1 Content or Need Theories

Content theories focus on the factors within a person that energise, direct, sustain and stop behaviour. They look at the specific needs that motivate people. Content theorists include Abraham Maslow, Clayton P. Alderfer, Federick Herzberg and David C. McClelland. Their theories have been helpful in discussing motivation, but not all have been verified through research.

3.2.2 Process or Cognitive Theories

Process theories provide a description and analysis of how behaviour is energised, directed, sustained and stopped. Four process theories are predominant: Reinforcement, Expectancy, Equity and Goal setting. Reinforcement and Goal setting theories have been supported by research studies and are viewed as the most helpful in application. Expectancy and Equity theories have become a part of compensation curricula and are considered in the design of compensation plans. Expectancy and Equity theories have not been as thoroughly researched as reinforcement and goal setting theories.

3.3 Content or Need Theories of Work Motivation

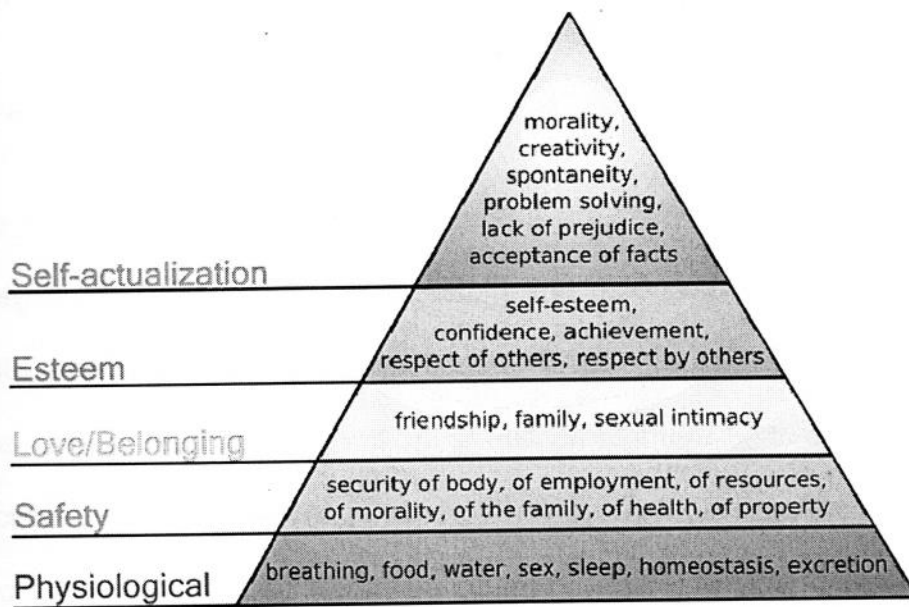
3.3.1 Need Hierarchy Theory

One of the most popular theories of motivation today is certainly Maslow's Hierarchy Theory. From the time of its introduction in the mid 1940's until the late 1950's, this theory (Maslow, 1943) remained primarily in the realm of clinical psychology. The Maslow's model consists of two fundamental premises. To begin with, the human being is viewed largely as a 'wanting' animal, motivated by a desire to satisfy certain specific types of needs. Maslow suggested that most individuals pursue with varying intensities the following needs in a pyramidal hierarchy:

- i. Physiological
- ii. Safety
- iii. Belongingness
- iv. Esteem
- v. Self-actualization.

Maslow's theory argues that once the needs lower in the pyramid are satisfied, the individual moves up the hierarchy, by one level at a time, and attempts to satisfy the next higher need.

Figure 2.1: Five Levels of Maslow's Hierarchy Theory



i. Physiological Needs

The physiological needs are usually taken as the starting point for motivation theory.. The physiological needs are the most predominant of all the needs.

The needs of hunger, thirst, sleep and sex are examples. If all the physiological needs are not satisfied, then the individual is dominated by the physiological needs. All other needs may become simply dormant or be pushed into the background.

ii. Safety Needs

If the physiological needs are relatively well gratified, then there emerges a new set of needs, categorized as the safety needs. Maslow stressed on emotional as well as physical safety. The whole organism may become a safety seeking mechanism. Once the safety needs are satisfied, they no longer motivate the individual.

iii. Love/Belongingness Needs

If both the physiological and the safety needs are fairly well gratified, then there emerges the next set of love, affection and belongingness needs. The person will hunger for affectionate relations with people in general, namely for a place in his group, and he will drive, with great intensity, to achieve this goal. Practically, all theorists of psycho-pathology have characterized non-fulfilment of the love needs as the basic cause of maladjustment. Love is not synonymous with sex. Sex may be treated as a purely physiological need.

iv. Esteem Needs

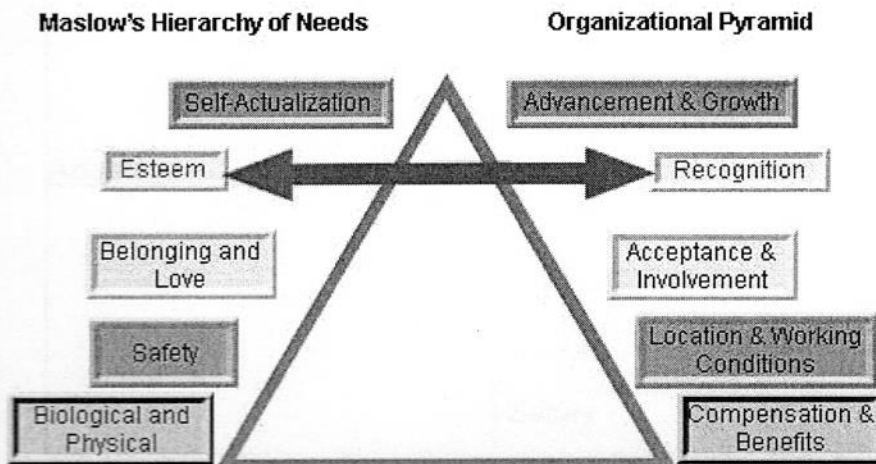
Every individual has a need or desire for a stable and firmly based high evaluation of themselves for self-respect or self-esteem and for the esteem of

others. These needs may be classified into two subsidiary sets. The first set includes the desires for strength, for achievement, for adequacy, for confidence and for independence & freedom. The second set includes the desires for reputation or prestige, recognition, attention, importance and appreciation. The satisfaction of the self-esteem needs leads to feelings of self-confidence, worth, strength, capability and adequacy of being useful and necessary in the world. But, the non-fulfilment of these needs produces feelings of inferiority, weakness and helplessness.

v. Need of Self-Actualization

This set of needs represents the culmination of all the lower, intermediate and higher needs of humans. This tendency might be phrased as the desire to become to become everything that one is capable of becoming. The clear emergence of these needs rests upon the prior satisfaction of the physiological, safety, love and esteem needs.

Figure- 2.2: Maslow's Hierarchy Theory in Organizational Framework



3.3.2 Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of Motivation

This model was presented by Dr. Frederick Herzberg. This model is known as the two-factor theory or the dual factor theory or the motivation-hygiene theory. This theory is based on the fact that the growth or motivating factors, which are intrinsic to the job, are achievement, recognition for achievement, the work itself, responsibility and growth or advancement. The hygiene factors, which are extrinsic to the job, include company policy and administration, supervision, interpersonal relationships, working conditions, salary, status and security (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959).

Dr. Frederick Herzberg included the following factors in his motivation-hygiene theory:

The Motivation-Hygiene Theory:

Presence = "Satisfiers"	-Achievement
	-Recognition
	-Value of works
	-Growth
	-Advancement
	-Benefits
Absence = "Dis-Satisfiers"	--Working conditions
	--Company policy
	-Interpersonal relations
	-Security.
	-Salary

i. Job content

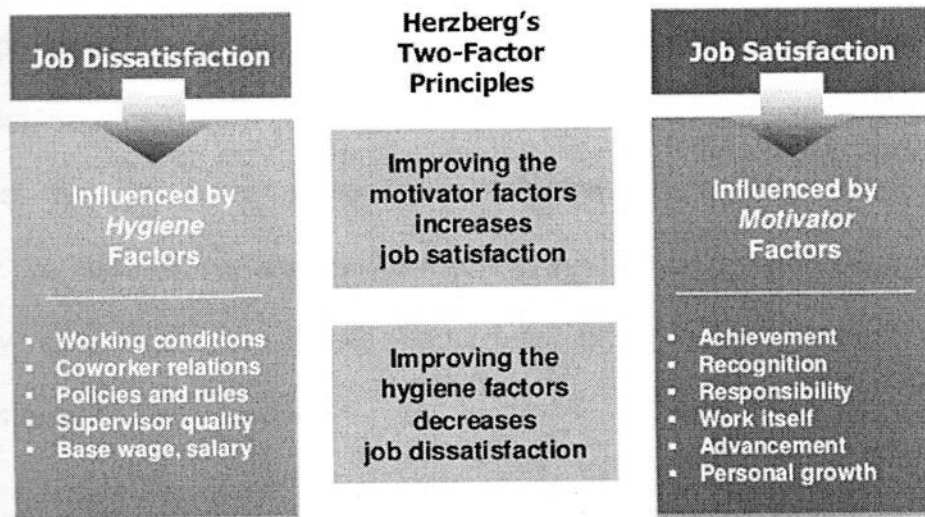
The job content means job enlargement. Herzberg, in his paper, had advocated job enrichment rather than job enlargement. If the job content is to be a source of motivation, then the job must allow for meaningful feedback, test the individual valued abilities and allow a great amount of self-control by the holder. The job must be enlarged on both the vertical and horizontal dimensions.

ii. Job context

The job context includes the environmental factors of the job. The context is the Herzberg's hygiene factor. According to Herzberg, the factors like salary, company policy, interpersonal relationship, supervision, and working conditions contribute more to dis-satisfaction rather than any motivation, and conversely each principal motivator contributes more to job satisfaction than any hygiene. The hypothesis suggests that the factors involved in producing job satisfaction are separate and distinct from the factors that lead to job dis-satisfaction.

Figure: 2.3: Herzberg's two-Factor Theory of Motivation

Herzberg's two-factor theory



3.3.3 Need Achievement Theory or Achievement Motivation Theory

In addition to Maslow's need-based theory of motivation, there is a second theory that uses the concept of human needs as the basic unit of analysis. This theory that has alternatively been termed as "Need Achievement Theory and Achievement Motivation Theory" posits that a major portion of an individual's will to perform can be explained or predicted by the intensity of his or her need for achievement.

This model has its origin in the early works of Henry A. Murray and his associates at the Harvard Psychological Clinic during the 1930's. Based on several years of clinical observations, he postulated (Murray, 1938) that there

are around 10% of people in any country who have strong achievement motive, but of course, this will vary, in the working situation, according to the type of work being undertaken. He developed a theory of personality that was organized in terms of motives, presses and needs. Murray described "needs" as a "potentiality or readiness to respond in a certain way under certain given circumstances". Theory of personality, based upon needs and motives, suggest that our personalities are a reflection of behaviors controlled by needs. 24 needs were identified by Murray and his colleagues. According to Murray, all people have these needs, but each individual tends to have a certain level of each need.

David McClelland identified three motivators that he believed we all have: a need for achievement, a need for affiliation, and a need for power (McClelland, 1988). People will have different characteristics depending on their dominant motivator. According to McClelland, these motivators are learned (which is why this theory is sometimes called the Learned Needs Theory). McClelland says that, regardless of our gender, culture, or age, we all have three motivating drivers, and one of these will be our dominant motivating driver. This dominant motivator is largely dependent on our culture and life experiences. These characteristics are as follows:

i. Need for Achievement

If an individual spends his time thinking about doing his job better, accomplish something unusual and important, or advancing his career, then he is supposed to have a high need for achievement and derives considerable

satisfaction from striving for achievement (McClelland & Winter, 1969). An individual, with a strong need for achievement, thinks not only about the achievement goals, but also about how he can attain them, what obstacles or blocks he might encounter enroute, and how he will feel if he succeeds or fails.

Years of careful empirical research show that a individual, with a strong need for achievement, likes situations in which he takes personal responsibility for finding solutions to problems. He sets moderate achievement goals and takes calculated risks. He wants concrete feedback about how well he is doing. The people, with high need for achievement, prefer a situation where there is a challenge, where there is some real risk of not succeeding but where that risk is not so great that they might not overcome it by their own efforts.

When an individual, with a high need for achievement, does involve himself in a professional situation, he does like to make money. Yet, when he has money, he does not spend it ostentatiously, nor does he hoard it. Money seems to be significant to him, primarily as a measurement, as a way of gauging his progress and of comparing his achievements with those of others rather than as a status symbol or as a source of economic security.

ii. **Need for Power**

If an individual spends his time, thinking about the influence and control he has over others, and how he can use this influence, say, to win an argument, to change behaviour of others, or to gain a position of authority and status, then he is supposed to have a high need for power. He

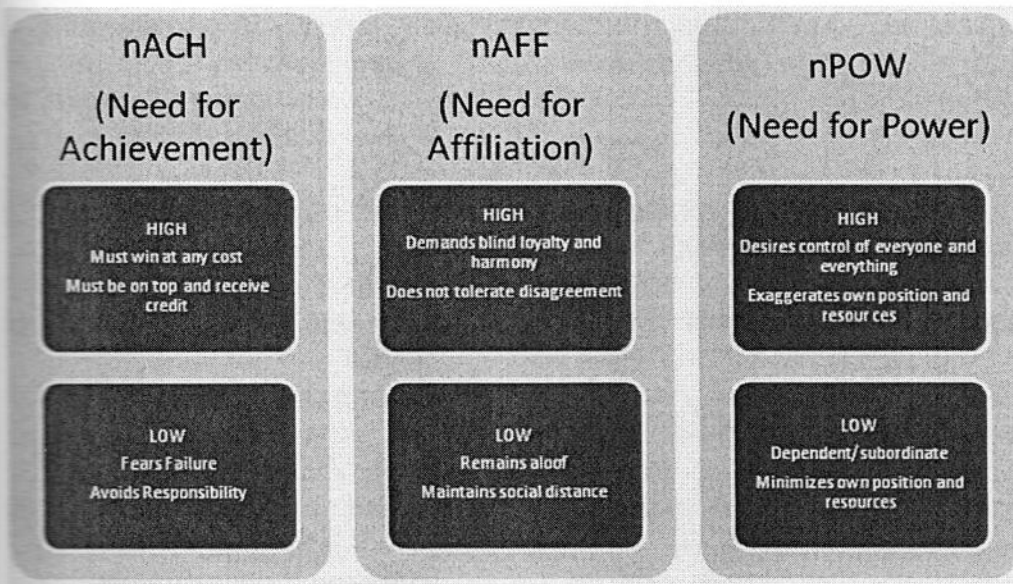
derives satisfaction from controlling the means of influence over others (McClelland & Burnham, January-February, 1995).

The individuals, with a strong need for power, will usually attempt to influence others directly by making suggestions, by offering them opinions and evaluations, and by trying to talk into other things. The individuals, with strong need for power, prefer positions that allow the exercise of power. They enjoy roles requiring persuasion.

iii. **Need for Affiliation**

If a man spends his time thinking about the warm, friendly, compassionate relationships he has or would like to have, then he is supposed to have a need for affiliation. The thoughts about restoring close relationships that have been disrupted and consoling or helping someone or participating in friendly compassionate activities are regarded as evidence of affiliation motivation. In practice, the managers show a very high need for power and achievement but low one for affiliation. The need for affiliation is essential for co-ordination function of the management.

Figure: 2.4: McClelland's Learned Need Theory



McClelland's theory can help a manager to identify the dominant motivators of people on his team. He can then use this information to influence how he sets goals and provides feedback, and how he motivates and rewards his team members. He can also use these motivators to craft, or design, the job around his team members, ensuring a better fit.

3.3.4 McGregor's Theory 'X' & 'Y'

Douglas McGregor of MIT expounded two contrasting theories on human motivation and management in the 1960s: The X Theory and the Y Theory (McGregor, 1960). McGregor promoted Theory Y as the basis of good management practice, pioneering the argument that workers are not merely cogs in the company machinery, as Theory X-type organizations seemed to believe.

I Theory 'X':

It presents the traditional view of direction and control. The assumptions of Theory 'X' are:

- i) The average man dislikes and avoids work.
- ii) Most people are not ambitious, have little desire for responsibility, and prefer to be directed.
- iii) Most people have little capacity for creativity in solving organizational problems.
- iv) Motivation occurs only at the physiological and safety levels.
- v) Most people must be closely controlled and often coerced to achieve organizational objectives.

II Theory 'Y':

It refers to the integration of individual and organizational goals. The assumptions of Theory 'Y' are:

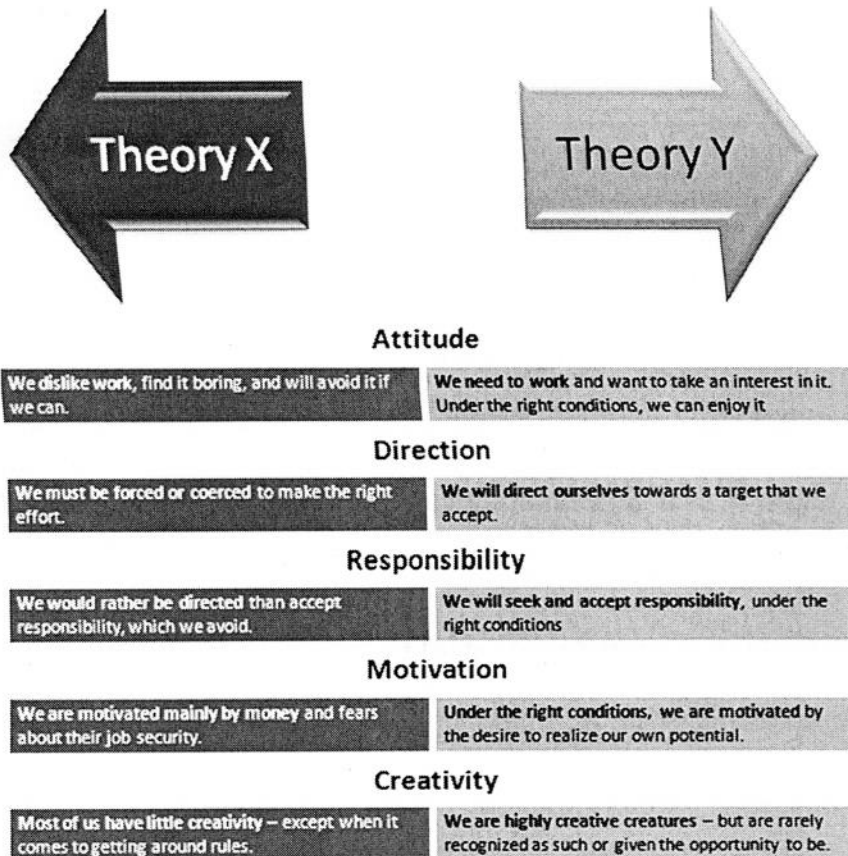
- i) Work is as natural as play if the conditions are favourable.
- ii) Self-control is often indispensable in achieving organizational goals.
- iii) The capacity for creativity in solving organizational problems is widely distributed in the population.

iv) Motivation occurs at the social, esteem, and self-actualization levels, as well as physiological and security levels.

v) People can be self-directed and creative at work if properly motivated.

The Theory 'X' gives importance only to the factors surrounding the job and conveniently ignores the nature of the work itself or job contents. The theory 'Y' conclusions are based on job contents, challenging work, achievement, recognition and advancement.

Figure: 2.5: McGregor's Theory 'X' & 'Y'



The theories look at how a manager's perceptions of what motivate his or her team members affect the way he or she behaves. By understanding how his assumptions about employees' motivation can influence his management style, the manager can adapt his approach appropriately, and so manage people more effectively.

3.3.5 Chris Argyris's Immaturity-Maturity Theory

Chris Argyris of Harvard Business School is known for his prime contribution of Immaturity-Maturity Theory. Chris Argyris says that seven changes should take place in the personality of an individual if he is to develop into a mature person over the years (Argyris, 1957).

First, an individual moves from a passive state as an infant to a state of increasing activity as an adult. Second, an individual develops from a state of dependency upon others as an infant to a state of relative independence as an adult. Third, an individual behaves in only a few ways as an infant but as an adult he is capable of behaving in many ways. Fourth, an individual has erratic and shallow interests as an infant but develops deeper and stronger interests as an adult. Fifth, a child's time perspective is very short, involving only the present, but as he matures his time perspective increases to include the past and the future. Sixth, an individual, as an infant, is subordinate to everyone, but he moves to equal or superior position with others as an adult. Seventh, as a child, an individual lacks of awareness of a 'self' but as an adult, he is not only aware of, but he is able to control 'self'.

Argyris postulates that these changes reside on a continuum and that the healthy personality develops along the continuum from immaturity to maturity.

Figure 2.6: Immaturity-Maturity Continuum

Immaturity	Maturity
Passive	Active
Dependence	Independence
Behaves in a few ways.	Capable of behaving in many ways.
Erratic shallow interests	Deeper and stronger interests
Short time perspective	Long time perspective (past and future)
Subordinate position	Equal or superior position
Lack of awareness of self	Aware and control over self.

3.3.6 Alderfer's 'ERG' Theory

A more recent extension of the Herzberg and, especially, Maslow's content theories of work motivation come from the work of Clayton Alderfer. He formulated a need category model that was more in line with the existing empirical evidence. Similar to Maslow and Herzberg, he does feel that there is value in categorizing needs and that there is a basic distinction between lower-order needs and higher order needs.

3.3.6.1 Details of Theory

Alderfer identified following three groups of core needs: Existence, Relatedness and Growth (ERG theory) (Alderfer, 1972). These groups of needs are related to the Maslow and Herzberg categories. Obviously, they are very close, but the ERG needs do not have strict lines of demarcation.

1. Existence Needs

The "existence" needs are the needs concerned with survival (physiological well-being). These needs include all material and physiological desires (e.g., food, water, air, clothing, safety, physical love and affection). Alderfer's "existence" needs are related with Maslow's physiological and safety needs.

2. Relatedness Needs

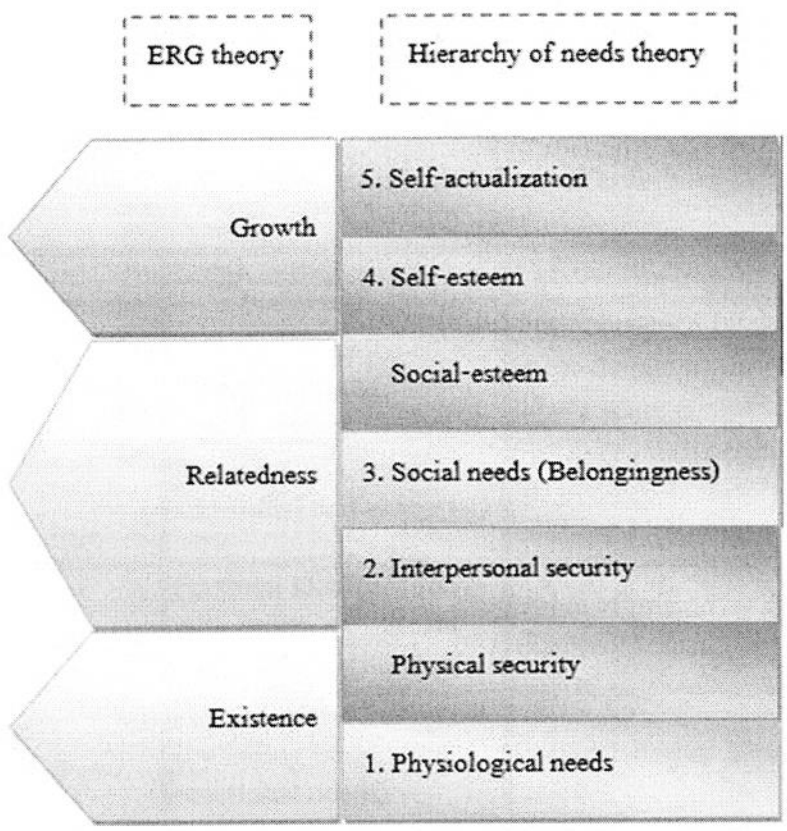
The "relatedness" needs stress the importance of interpersonal and social relationships. These needs encompass social and external esteem; relationships with significant others like family, friends, co-workers and employers. This also means to be recognized and feel secure as part of a group or family. The relatedness needs are same as Maslow's love or belongingness needs.

3. Growth Needs

The "growth" needs are the needs concerned with the individual's intrinsic desire for personal development. Internal esteem and self-actualization; these impel a person to make creative or productive effects on himself and the environment (e.g., to progress toward one's ideal self). The growth needs are

same as Maslow's esteem and self-actualization needs. This includes desires to be creative and productive, and to complete meaningful tasks.

Figure: 2.7: Alderfer's 'ERG' Theory



The existence and some part of relatedness needs are same as Herzberg's hygiene factors and some part of relatedness and growth needs are related with motivators. Even though the priority of these needs differ from person to person, Alderfer's ERG theory prioritizes in terms of the categories' concreteness. Existence needs are the most concrete, and easiest to verify. Relatedness needs are less concrete than existence needs, which depend on

a relationship between two or more people. Finally, growth needs are the least concrete in that their specific objectives depend on the uniqueness of each person.

Figure: 2.8: A Reorganisation of Maslow's and Alderfer's 'ERG'

Hierarchies

A Reorganization of Maslow's and Alderfer's Hierarchies

Level	Introversion	Extroversion
Growth	Self-Actualization (development of competencies [knowledge, attitudes, and skills] and character)	<u>Transcendence</u> (assisting in the development of others' competencies and character; <u>relationships to the unknown, unknowable</u>)
Other (Relatedness)	Personal identification with group, significant others (Belongingness)	Value of person by group (Esteem)
Self (Existence)	Physiological, biological (including basic emotional needs)	Connectedness, security

There are three relationships among the different categories in Alderfer's ERG theory:

1. Satisfaction-progression

It signifies moving up to higher-level needs based on satisfied needs. With Maslow, satisfaction-progression plays an important part. Individuals move up the need hierarchy as a result of satisfying lower order needs. In Alderfer's

ERG theory, this isn't necessarily so. The progression upward from relatedness satisfaction to growth desires does not presume the satisfaction of a person's existence needs.

2. Frustration-regression

If a higher level need remains unfulfilled, a person may regress to lower level needs that appear easier to satisfy. Frustration-regression suggests that an already satisfied need can become active when a higher need cannot be satisfied. Thus, if a person is continually frustrated in his/her attempts to satisfy growth, relatedness needs can resurface as key motivators.

3. Satisfaction-strengthening

It signifies iteratively strengthening a current level of satisfied needs. Satisfaction-strengthening indicates that an already satisfied need can maintain satisfaction or strengthen lower level needs iteratively when it fails to gratify high-level needs.

3.3.6.2 Differences between ERG Theory and Maslow's Model

Alderfer's ERG motivation theory differs from Maslow's theory in three ways. A lower level need does not have to be gratified (i.e., a person may satisfy a need at hand, whether or not a previous need has been satisfied). If a relatively more significant need is not gratified, the desire to gratify a lesser need will be increased (i.e., the frustration in meeting high-order needs might lead a person to regress to a more concrete need category). Alderfer's ERG theory allows the order of the needs to differ for different people (e.g., it

accounts for the "starving artist" who may place growth needs above existence ones).

3.3.6.3 The ERG Motivation Theory in Work Situations

On a work level, this means that managers must recognize his employees' multiple simultaneous needs. In Alderfer's ERG model, focusing exclusively on one need at a time will not motivate the employees. The frustration-regression principle impacts workplace motivation. For example, if growth opportunities are not provided to employees, they may regress to relatedness needs, and socialize more with co-workers. If one can recognize these conditions early, steps can be taken to satisfy the frustrated needs until the employee is able to pursue growth again.

3.3.6.4 Implications for Financial Incentives in Alderfer's ERG Model

Financial incentives may satisfy the need for growth and for recognition by others. As is evident in this theory, financial incentives can only fulfill human needs indirectly, through their perceived value and effect on other people. So, even though a manager may provide financial incentives, if other needs of his employees aren't being met, according to Alderfer's ERG theory, they will not be motivated.

3.4 Process or Cognitive Theories of Motivation

3.4.1 Instrumentality Theory

Instrumentality theories premise that a person would be motivated to act, if he or she believes that the act will be instrumental in delivering some beneficial outcome. The main way in which Instrumentality theories differ from the needs theories is their emphasis on cognition. Stress is placed on the cognitive process of deciding whether an activity is justified by the potential results. For example, an employee will devote more energy and be more productive if the employee sees that activity as the path to a personal goal of promotion, greater appreciation or more pay. This has advantage of both positive and negative effects of motivation (Landy, 1989).

Vroom (Vroom, 1964) consolidated many hypotheses on instrumentality into his Valence, Instrumentality and Expectancy (VIE) Theory. Vroom suggested that the relationship between people's behavior at work and their goals was not as simple as was first imagined by other scientists. Vroom realized that an employee's performance is based on individual factors such as personality, skills, knowledge, experience and abilities.

The theory suggests that although individuals may have different sets of goals, they can be motivated if they believe that:

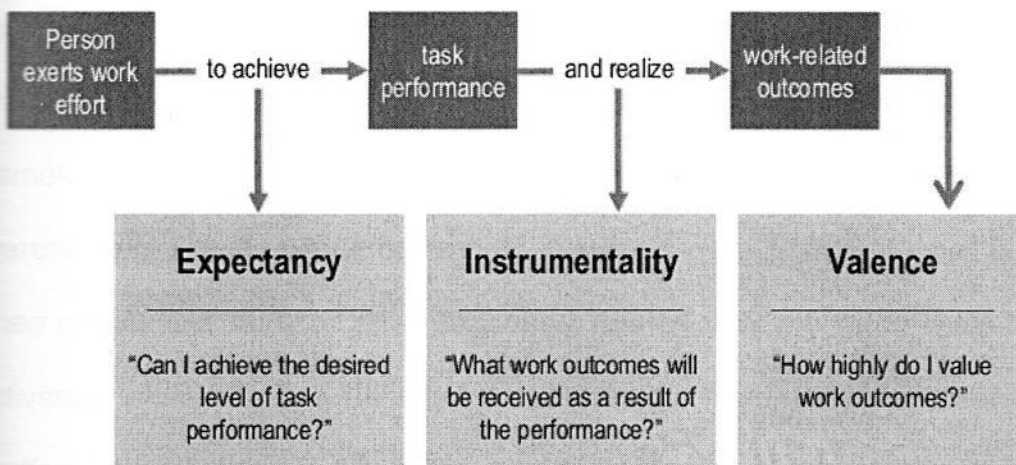
- There is a positive correlation between efforts and performance,
- Favorable performance will result in a desirable reward,

- The reward will satisfy an important need,
- The desire to satisfy the need is strong enough to make the effort worthwhile.

Figure: 2.9: Vroom's Valence, Instrumentality And Expectancy (VIE)

Theory

Expectancy theory



In 1968, Porter and Lawler (Porter & Lawler, 1968) proposed an instrumentality model which rejected the traditional drive approach of the needs theories because of their over reliance on past events and environments. Instead, they focused on future events and on the views and traits of individuals. A number of studies of Vroom's model have more accurately predicted employee effort than productivity (Landy, 1989) .

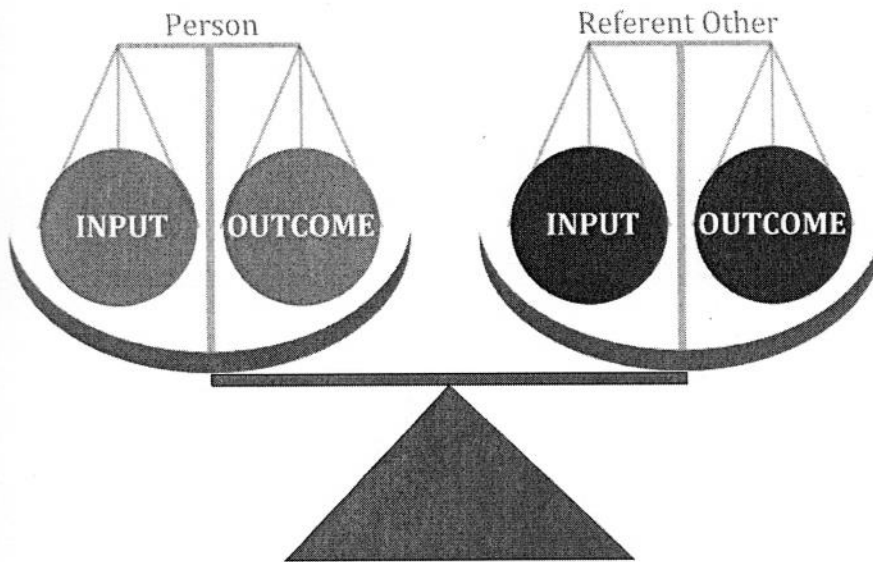
Instrumentality theory provides a more comprehensive method of understanding the complex industrial motivation of a worker. For instance, a promotion may mean loss of income through loss of overtime rights. The instrumentality theories go beyond simplistic assumptions that happy workers are productive workers.

3.4.2 Adam's Equity Theory of Motivation

Adam's Equity Theory (Adams, 1965) is another class of cognitive motivation theory. The Adams' Equity Theory model extends beyond the individual self, and incorporates influence and comparison of other people's situations - for example colleagues and friends - in forming a comparative view and awareness of Equity, which commonly manifests as a sense of what is fair. When people feel fairly or advantageously treated they are more likely to be motivated; when they feel unfairly treated they are highly prone to feelings of disaffection and demotivation. The way that people measure this sense of fairness is at the heart of Equity Theory.

Equity, and thereby the motivational situation which is sought to be assessed by using the model, is not dependent on the extent to which a person believes reward exceeds effort, nor even necessarily on the belief that reward exceeds effort at all. Rather, Equity, and the sense of fairness which commonly underpins motivation, is dependent on the comparison a person makes between his or her reward/investment ratio with the ratio enjoyed (or suffered) by others considered to be in a similar situation.

Figure: 2.10: Adam's Equity Theory of Motivation



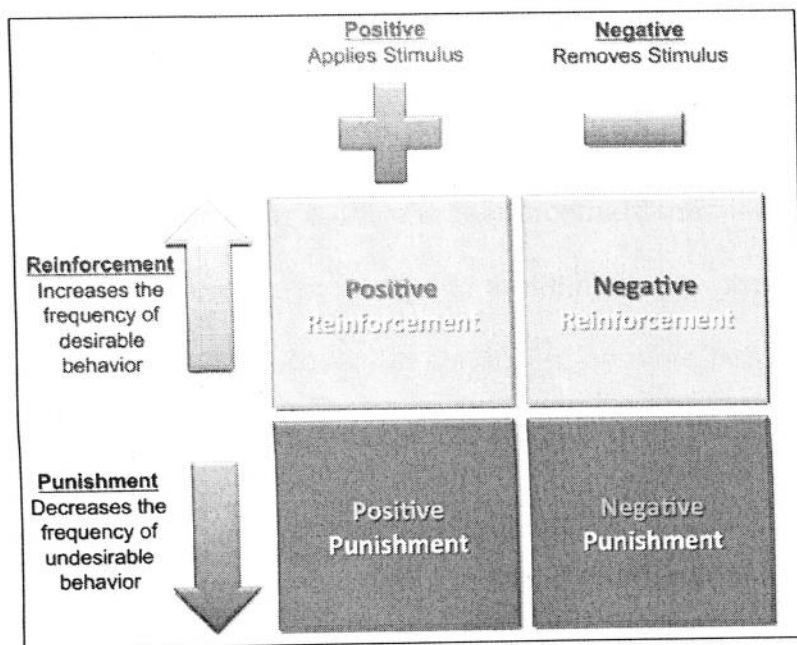
Equity Theory explains why people can be happy and motivated by their situation one day, and yet with no change to their terms and working conditions, they can be made very unhappy and demotivated, if they learn for example that a colleague (or worse an entire group) is enjoying a better reward-to-effort ratio.

3.4.3 Reinforcement Theories of Motivation (Behaviourism)

Reinforcement theory of motivation was proposed by BF Skinner (Skinner, 1953) and his associates. It states that individual's behaviour is a function of its consequences. It is based on "law of effect", i.e, individual's behaviour with positive consequences tends to be repeated, but individual's behaviour with negative consequences tends not to be repeated. Reinforcement theory of

motivation overlooks the internal state of individual, i.e., the inner feelings and drives of individuals are ignored by Skinner.

Figure: 2.11: Reinforcement Theory of Motivation- Concept



This theory focuses totally on what happens to an individual when he takes some action. Thus, according to Skinner, the external environment of the organization must be designed effectively and positively so as to motivate the employee. This theory is a strong tool for analyzing controlling mechanism for individual's behaviour. However, it does not focus on the causes of individual's behaviour.

Such theories propose that behaviour is a product of sequences of: stimulus, response and reward associations. Behaviours resulting from contingent rewards (where a reward is dependent on input effort as with piece rate payment) require higher levels of efforts than non-contingent behaviours.

Contingent relationships, where a particular behaviour will directly affect outcomes and rewards are an important notion in the structure of reinforcement theory. Mixed results have been achieved with organisational research into reinforcement methods of workplace motivation.

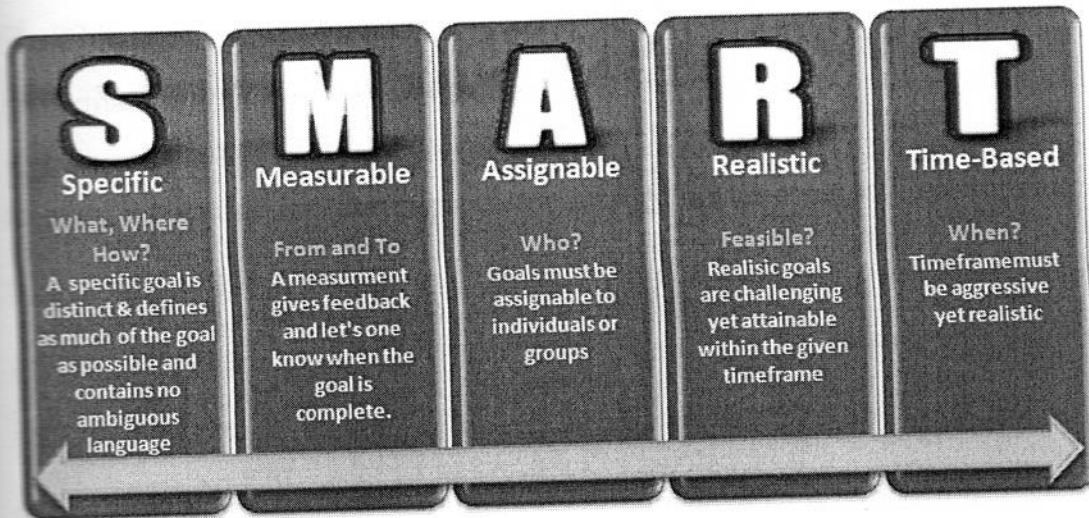
In a study by Latham and Dossett (Latham & Dossett, 1978), results were dramatically different depending on whether the workers were experienced or inexperienced. Punishment has a place in reinforcement theory and has a very different effect on subjects, as compared to those having exposure to positive reinforcement (Landy, 1989). Research conducted on state police officers and nuclear power plant operators, who were subjected to punishments in the workplace, showed that they were more concerned about avoiding further punishment rather than performing their job well or learning. These employees tended to maintain the bad work practices which generated the initial punishment but put more effort into covering them up (Landy, 1989).

Like the earlier drive theories, Reinforcement theory attributes all behaviour directly to reactions to the environment. The theory does not recognise cognitive aspects of choosing between alternatives and in fact, motivation, as a complex cognitive concept, does not appear to fit in the model. Locke (Locke E., 1977) has pointed to the inability of behaviourists to explain the complexity of human behaviour in the workplace because of the absence of cognitive understanding.

3.4.4 Goal Setting Theory

In 1960's, Edwin Locke put forward the Goal-setting theory of motivation (Locke E. A., 1968). This theory states that goal setting is essentially linked to task performance. It states that specific and challenging goals along with appropriate feedback contribute to higher and better task performance. In simple words, goals indicate and give direction to an employee about what needs to be done and how much efforts are required to be put in.

Figure: 2.12: Goal Setting Theory of Motivation- Concept



The goal theory of motivation assumes that once someone decides to pursue a goal, the person regulates his or her behavior to try to reach the goal. Locke and his colleagues contend that goals provide the mechanism through which unsatisfied needs are translated into action. In other

words, unsatisfied needs prompt the person to seek ways to satisfy those needs, and the person then formulates goals that prompt action.

The combination of goal difficulty and the extent of the person's commitment to achieving the goal regulate the level of effort expended. People with specific quantitative goals, such as a defined level of performance, or a given deadline for completion of a task, will perform better than people with no set goal or only an unclear goal. People who have difficult goals will perform better than people with easier goals.

Locke pointed out that goal setting is more appropriately viewed as a motivational technique rather than as a formal theory of motivation. The theory of goal setting provides a useful approach to work motivation and performance. This conclusion has been continuously supported by research.

Research by Bandura (Bandura, 1986) suggests that the goal setting requires the person's participation and acceptance. Self-efficacy is a concept which has grown from goal setting theory and which is gaining increasing interest. Self-efficacy pertains to the extent to which an individual's estimate of his or her capacity to achieve results will determine the goals, the individual choose to set by and for his own self. This has a direct effect on motivation, both in terms of which goals are selected and how much effort and energy is expended in pursuing them. Self-efficacy effects the direction and persistence of a person's behaviour. It is common human experience that people with self-confidence are more likely to be motivated individuals (Bandura, 1997).

Motivation is not static. It changes in response to a worker's employment situation and personal influences. Cultural and social changes also effect motivation. Ownership of a motor vehicle for instance, was not regarded as a basic need, 50 years ago, but today an average worker, in the developed world, considers ownership of a motor vehicle, in the basic needs category.

4.0 Motivation at Work in Indian Context

Nitish R. De opines that the treatment of a complex theme as human motivation cannot be confined to normative speculation, mystical inner-world introspection or elegant conceptualisation which makes short shrift of economic, social and cultural contexts. The realities of the contemporary organisational life should figure centrally in an exposition of the theme of motivation (De, Apr., 1982).

He argues that the complexities of human motivation can more realistically be expressed in morphogenetic concept adapted to our requirements. There are elements of movement and tortuous growth, differentiation and yet surprises and indeterminacy in the composition of human motives. The human motives are not adequately reflected in the propositions that are enthusiastically offered by different theorists, conveying some ideas or other.

He tried to examine the various facets of human motivation at work and explore it from the perspective of organisational scientists, clinical psychologists/ psychoanalysts, cultural/ comparative anthropologists/ sociologists and development economists.

G. V. Sarveswara Rao opines that the two-factor theory of job satisfaction has received considerable attention in industrial psychology. The theory hypothesizes that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are separate and independent feelings (Rao, Jan., 1972). There are some variables called motivators which primarily contribute to satisfaction alone, and there are other variables called hygienes which primarily contribute to dissatisfaction alone. The implications of the theory were found to be applicable to industrial relations, management training programmes, and mental hygiene. Most of the studies designed to test the theory have not given rise to unequivocal results. Since the theory has various theoretical, methodological, and pragmatic issues, Rao attempts to review the studies, and offers a critical evaluation of the theory as a whole.

Following Lykken's terminology (Lykken, 1968), Rao holds that those who have "literally" replicated the theory mostly confirmed it; those who have "operationally" replicated have not fully supported the theory; and those who have "constructively" replicated have concluded that the theory is too simple to explain the dynamic nature of occupational life. Both the generality and the validity of the theory are questionable.

Mrs. Rajesh Singh discusses the work motivational strategies used by officers of the central government of India to enhance subordinates' work motivation and performance (Singh, Jan., 1997). Sixty officers from various central government departments from Delhi participated in the study. Six motivational strategies: Personally Rewarding; Personally Punishing; Goal Setting;

Designing Feedback; Placing Personnel and Job Redesigning, were used. The results of the survey show that 'effective' officers utilized these motivational strategies significantly more than the 'less effective' officers except the Personally Punishing strategy. Designing Feedback strategy was not found to be used by the officers. The results also show that personally Rewarding, Goal Setting, Placing Personnel, Job Designing strategies were positively correlated and Personally Punishing was negatively correlated with effectiveness ratings. Personally Punishing, Goal Setting and Job Redesigning strategies were found as good predictors of effectiveness. The implication of these findings is that the officer who creates conditions under which his subordinates can satisfy important needs and receive right directions for goal achievement is likely to motivate his subordinates successfully to higher work performance.

Pragya Sonawane reports results of an exploratory study, conducted by her, of non-monetary rewards in terms of the employee choices and organizational practices (Sonawane, Oct., 2008). The study describes the phenomenon and discusses the perspectives of employees as well as the employers and compares the approaches of Indian and foreign multinationals in the FMCG sector. Seven pointers to the designing of recognition programmes are made along with identifying the future research possibilities.

Generally, there is a lot of public criticism of the performance of public sector enterprises (PSEs). One of the reasons for the poor performance of PSEs is said to be the low morale of officers and workers resulting in the absence of

positive work culture. Based on primary data from 30 organisations and using job satisfaction as a measure of motivation, Baldev R. Sharma and Sarita Bhasker tried to ascertain the level of motivation and morale of junior and middle level managers working in the public sector in India (Bhasker & Sharma, Apr., 1991).

Besides highlighting the strengths and weaknesses of the organisations studied, they have suggested certain determinants of job satisfaction on the basis of multivariate analysis of data. The dimension of organisational climate has emerged as the single most important determinant of employee motivation.

5.0 Motivation at Work in the Context of Railway Transportation Sector

Robert C. Lieb, Frederick Wiseman and Jonathan Gbur carried out a study of attitudes of employees of US railroads (Gbur, Wiseman, & Lieb, FALL 1979). It has often been suggested that the opportunity exists for considerable improvement in railroad labour/management relations. Areas frequently identified for potential improvement include work rules, working conditions, and employee motivation programs. However, in this industry, effective change cannot be accomplished unilaterally by management; it must involve the active cooperation of affected employees. The likelihood of such cooperation would be greatly enhanced if management maintained

awareness of the attitudes and opinions of the employees toward specific job and organisation-related issues and used such information to develop and maintain a constructive relationship with the employees. Unfortunately, railroad managements have not systematically surveyed such attitudes and opinions on a regular basis, despite the crucial role that labour plays in the production of the railway service.

The survey findings bring out that the employees want to know more about the factors that affect them. Sharing of such information may not only assuage their concerns, but also build a stronger commitment to the organisation. The organisations should provide a channel for the employees to give their suggestions to the management. While the workers generally find their jobs exciting and challenging, there are certain job practices which are viewed as especially unattractive.

Anirudh Pandey conducted an empirical study on rail engine drivers of Indian Railways to determine the relationship between their role efficacy and role stress (Pandey, Oct., 1995). The study revealed role efficacy and role stress to be negatively related. The respondents were found to be suffering from the feeling of role overload, resource inadequacy and personal inadequacy. Education was found positively related with role stress and negatively with role efficacy. Advancement in experience was found to enhance probability of stress as also to have differential impact on drivers. The study emphasized the need for conducting role efficacy and role stress labs for the workers

(drivers) if the Indian Railways wanted to reduce stress in the jobs of the drivers and want to increase their performance effectiveness.

The organisations in general and Indian Railways in particular are in search of strategies which can enhance performance effectiveness of their workers. More specifically, Indian Railways had been trying to increase the speed and loading capacities of trains in order to meet the increasing demand of passenger and freight traffic through technological advancements. For ensuring safe and efficient work behaviour, there is a practice of regular inspection, monitoring and counselling. The results give an insight into the relationship of role efficacy and role stress as it exists along various demographic variables. The main findings of the study pose a problem before the Railways for re-conceptualizing and modifying their strategies of ensuring safe and efficient work performance.

It is not a theoretical postulate of stress-efficacy relationship in the job roles. Being 'person based', it can reflect the concern of the organisation towards individual worker who, as a natural consequence, is expected to bring about a positive change in his thinking, feeling and acting and is expected to come forward to share the challenge to the organisation with commitment. Conflicts, imbalances and unproductive/ unsafe practices will come to the fore and the worker will himself realize to modify his work.

Indian Railways have full-fledged department of safety from the root level (stations) to the top (Railway Board) with highly qualified and experienced Safety Counsellors and Safety Officers who have proven record of success.

He concludes that if they are trained in the technique of conducting the intervention and the said interpretation is incorporated in the action programme of safety on an all India basis, the organisation of the Indian Railways may be able to bring about a substantial decrease in the number of accidents as also a substantial increase in the punctuality of train operations.

Khosla carries out a critical review of the operational safety situation in the Indian Railways (Khosla, Feb. 26, 2000). It shows grave problems at all levels. Maintenance lapses of track and of moving stock, outdated technology, unimaginative human resource management practices, and poor investment in research as well as serious systemic and managerial problems have contributed to the situation.

C. Cothereau, C. de Beaurepaire, C. Payan, J. P. Cambou, F. Rouillon and F. Conso conducted a study to investigate psychiatric disorders, somatic health, and professional effects in French train drivers having experienced a "person under train" accident, and somatic health and professional effects (Conso, Rouillon, Cambou, Payan, Beaurepaire, & Cothereau, Jun., 2004). Most of the psycho-behavioural disorders were observed in the immediate aftermath of the accident and disappeared within a year. The driver's occupational future does not seem to be affected by the "person under train" accident. Consideration of a traumatic accident as a job related risk and close psychological support of drivers after an accident probably increase the subject's ability to recover from the trauma.

Regulatory bodies in the U.K. have emphasized the importance of 'a positive health and safety culture' to the operational safety performance of Railway companies. A key feature of a company's operational safety culture is shared perceptions amongst managers and staff concerning the importance of the operational safety. In a study, Sharon Clarke recorded the perceptions of 312 British Rail train drivers, supervisors and senior managers concerning the relative importance of 25 railway factors (Clarke, Mar., 1999). Each level also gave their estimates of the ratings of the other levels. The study found that whilst there was a shared perception of the importance of the safety, intergroup perceptions were not realistic. It is argued that accurate intergroup perceptions are essential to the development of mutual trust and understanding between levels, which forms the basis for a positive safety culture.

Indian Railways have been organising mass contact counselling programmes for all the sensitive safety categories of staff for the last three decades. With the proposed progressive increase in the speed and loading capacity of trains, the job of the driver has become more complex. Therefore, the counselling programmes in vogue on the Indian Railways need modifications in order to face new challenges. Anirudh Pandey opines that inclusion of behavioural scientists in the safety department at the board level, at the zonal Railways head-quarters and at the divisional head-quarters, appear inescapable when process of motivation is to be taken care of (Pandey , Jul., 1997).

In a study conducted by Alison MacGregor in the UK rail industry, a high proportion of train driver were assessed as obese, having a body mass index (BMI) greater than 30 and consequent higher associated risk factors for coronary heart diseases (MacGregor, Jul 2009). Train drivers, both freight and passenger, are expected to carry out train and public protection duties as part of their role, and this requires a satisfactory level of fitness and stamina.

Significant advances in rail technology mean that train driving is now a sedentary job, and there seems to be a temptation to eat high calorie convenience snacks while on shift work. Early morning shifts mean breakfast is missed, followed by grazing through the day and the consumption of a large meal before going to bed. This seems to be common practice among drivers. A freight driver travels countrywide, often parking in sidings. he is unable to leave the cab for meal breaks. Such drivers tend to over-eat and make the wrong food choices.

Farhad Analoui conducted a study of senior managers' management training needs at Indian Railways (Analoui , 1995). Suitable management training programmes for the senior managers ought to reflect the need for a balanced mixture of the above skills. They should also cater for management development needs, with self-development as a built in component, for their future self-motivated development. Management training and development programmes should be specifically designed, depending on the level of seniority and position held by the trainees, to meet the people-related aspects of their job effectively.

Senior managers in the organization generally felt that their increased effectiveness could result in increased organizational effectiveness, the quality of service and their own development, though often they are not included, because of the bureaucratic nature of their organization, in strategic decision making. This, however, could be achieved realistically only through better integration of the individuals and the organization together with their management training and development.

Ashima Goyal conducted a survey of relevant theoretical insights in to differential performance of Indian public rail and air services (Goyal , Jul. 12 - 18, 2008). It suggests that there may be grounds for public sector control of assets and delivery of public services. Just changes in ownership, industry structure and competition will not necessarily improve delivery and quality. Better individual motivation, through changes in management structure and institutional design holds the key.

Market structure alone was not enough to improve the performance of Air India. The Indian railways have done better, as leadership-implemented managerial changes created better incentives. Leaders are important to push changes when dysfunctional social and organisational norms set in. But their main contribution is in implementing better systems against resistance or inertia. A few good people can make a difference; but good systems can induce better behaviour from most people.

S. M. Khan conducted a study to examine the consequences of liking on compensation need satisfaction of drivers in train work settings of Indian

Railways (Khan, Oct., 2002). Forty seven percent drivers opted 'work' as first option followed by 'life' and family' (34.3 per cent and 18.8 per cent as first options respectively). The drivers who opted 'life' as the first option, their compensation need was highly satisfied, followed by family and work. One way analysis of variance with multiple comparison tests was used to see which means were significantly different from each other. Implications of developing organisational strategies for enhancing morale of drivers as well as other categories of workers with similar work-settings have been proposed by him. Applications may provide support in transformation of state of mind of human resources in the right direction.

Productivity is a consequence of the total effects of various individual and situational variables. Since the development of industries and technology, different terms like need strength, work motivation, job involvement job satisfaction, performance and absenteeism have been the relevant topics of research. A. P. Singh and Patiraj Kumari conducted a study in Diesel Locomotive Works, Varanasi, India, with satisfaction; performance and absenteeism have been treated as dependent variables and individual need strength, motivation and job involvement as the independent variables (Kumari & Singh, Apr., 1988).

Individuals, having higher order need satisfaction, are likely to contribute most effectively to organizational goals. Other employees, who may not be desirous of higher order need satisfactions, would be ineffective and

dissatisfied with them. The study establishes that need strength is positively associated with job satisfaction and performance.

J. Foret conducted a survey of the physiological and psycho-physiological studies concerning the task of train drivers in several industrialized countries (Foret , 1987). Technical conditions, task demands and work organization are comparable among various countries. The main problems are related to: i) The highly irregular working schedules; ii) The sensory-motor demands of the task and its temporal distribution disconnected from the spontaneous rhythms of the operators; iii) The effect of age on the psycho-physiological capacities.

Variability of work schedules and therefore of life schedules results in an insufficient sleep in quantity as well in quality and in alertness drops conflicting the obligation of driving at any time of day and night. Safety devices designed to compensate those vigilance decreases can sometimes be questioned. Morbidity and mortality statistics don't give any clear evidence of a specific pathology in train drivers. However, studies concerning incident and accident rates tend to prove that working conditions don't take enough in to consideration the permanency of biological rhythms. Time of day and duration of work span determine to a large extent the risk and probably the difficulties experienced by the drivers.

In compliance of recommendation of the High Powered Committee on Psycho-Technical Cells of IR for analytic studies of the drivers who have come through psychological tests and reportedly caused accidents on the Railways, Research Designs & Standards Organisation, Indian Railways

(RDSO) conducted a case study of drivers involved in accidents. The study is indicative of minimal involvement of drivers in accident, coming in employment through psychological tests (RDSO, February 1995).

Of the 5 cases studied, 3 drivers appear to have committed mistake on account of their failure to recognise implicit job hazards and these lapses could be attributed to attitudinal deficiencies arising out of inadequate training. Two drivers, held responsible for disregard of signals, appear to be weak in sustained attention. This capacity has not been gauged in psychological screening. Inclusion of suitable test of vigilance in the test battery of drivers was recommended.

In compliance of recommendations of The Railway Safety Review Committee of IR for assessment of the impact of increase in retirement age on the performance of drivers, the Psycho-Technical Cell of RDSO undertook the study (RDSO, January 2002). In the study, it was concluded that there was no specific age up to 60 years at which the performance of drivers start showing an unsafe trend.

Peak performance is generally observed around the age of 45-46 years but the decline subsequently does not appear to be very significant at any point of time till the age of 60 years. The increasing rate of voluntary retirement also had no direct linkage with age related changes in biological functions that support performance. The gradual decline in some of the psychological or physical parameters is balanced by their experience and accumulated knowledge.

The General Manager, Northeast Frontier Railway observed that the morale of the staff of Katihar division of NF Railway appeared to be at the lowest ebb following the head on collision at Gaisal on August 1999. Increase in voluntary retirement was also found to be suggestive of some serious psychological fear, haunting the drivers as a group. Since drivers are the most critical category of railway employees, he requested Psycho-Technical Cell of RDSO to undertake a study on the issue.

The study reflected (RDSO, July, 2003) that satisfaction and stress experienced by the drivers of NF Railway and other Railway showed almost a similar trend. Although satisfaction from job as well as from management was found to be relatively low in the drivers of Katihar division. Further, the drivers, who were highly satisfied from the job, felt less of occupational stress such as Role overload, Role ambiguity, Role conflict and strenuous work conditions in comparison to lowly satisfied group of drivers. The increase in voluntary retirement was not found due to any serious fear prevailing in the drivers of NF Railway. It might be due to single or combined effect of the environmental and personal factors.

The findings did not suggest any adverse effect of the accident on satisfaction level of the drivers. The findings of the study indicated need of proper organizational support to maintain intrinsic as well as extrinsic motivation in the drivers to attain organizational goal. The data revealed that drivers were not getting enough motivation, from within the self, due to the negative feeling towards the organizational

support system. They felt alienated and thought that there was no one to lend support during crisis.

Psycho-Technical Directorate of RDSO undertook a pilot study to understand the nature and source of stress in job of loco drivers (RDSO, September, 2010). The study sought to identify dominant source of stress for drivers in reference to personal, organizational variables along with psychometric tools to measure the actual stress level. However, the study did not yield any definitive findings on the issue.

In compliance of IR Railway Board directives for conducting a psychological case study pertaining to accident involved staff on Indian Railways, RDSO conducted the study to identify the problem and the factor which leads to mistake on the part of the driver and destruct their psychological mental status which leads to major or minor train accidents.

The conclusions have been arrived at in the study (RDSO, March 2012) on the basis of only a limited number of accident involved cases which limits the statistical acceptability of these conclusions to a large extent. It concludes that family liability and cooperation with colleagues have a significant relevance with the performance of the driver. Effect of weather and time on the frequency of causation of accidents has been noticed, with maximum number of accidents occurring during winter season and morning time. Most of the drivers felt operational pressure to run train on time and had work overload.

Education has a significant relevance on safe driving. The analysis presented in this study indicates that such drivers are self-confident, having ability of decision making, high self-esteem, ability to multitasking and get satisfied with their job. Acidity, constipation, backache & headache were found to be the most common health related problems with the drivers. Physical activity index showed that drivers were actively participating in different type of physical exercise which is good for their health. Use of alcohol, smoking, tobacco was found to be insignificant in the case of the drivers.

A significant difference exists between the accident involved and accident free drivers in the tests of Complex Reaction Time, Form Perception, Group Burden and Speed Perception. In these tests, accident involved drivers performed worse than accident free drivers.

6.0 Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework of a study is a structure that can hold or support a theory of a research work. This study utilizes Clayton Alderfer's Existence, Relatedness and Growth (ERG theory). This theory was chosen for its simplicity, practicality and capacity to facilitate the identification of specific sources of motivation in the workplace.

Alderfer had identified three groups of core needs: Existence, Relatedness and Growth. These groups of needs are related to the Maslow and Herzberg

categories. Obviously, they are very close, but the ERG needs do not have strict lines of demarcation.

The existence and some part of relatedness needs are same as Herzberg's hygiene factors and some part of relatedness and growth needs are related with motivators. Even though the priority of these needs differ from person to person, Alderfer's ERG theory prioritizes in terms of the categories' concreteness. Existence needs are the most concrete, and easiest to verify. Relatedness needs are less concrete than existence needs, which depend on a relationship between two or more people. Finally, growth needs are the least concrete in that their specific objectives depend on the uniqueness of each person.

Satisfaction-progression signifies moving up to higher-level needs based on satisfied needs. With Maslow, satisfaction-progression plays an important part. Individuals move up the need hierarchy as a result of satisfying lower order needs. In Alderfer's ERG theory, this isn't necessarily so. The progression upward from relatedness satisfaction to growth desires does not presume the satisfaction of a person's existence needs.

Frustration-regression signifies reactivation of an already satisfied need when a higher need cannot be satisfied. If a higher level need remains unfulfilled, a person may regress to lower level needs that appear easier to satisfy. Thus, if a person is continually frustrated in his/her attempts to satisfy growth, relatedness needs can resurface as key motivators.

Satisfaction-strengthening signifies iteratively strengthening a current level of satisfied needs. Satisfaction-strengthening indicates that an already satisfied need can maintain satisfaction or strengthen lower level needs iteratively when it fails to gratify high-level needs.

Alderfer's ERG motivation theory differs from Maslow's theory in three ways. A lower level need does not have to be gratified for gratification of a higher level need (i.e., a person may satisfy a need at hand, whether or not a previous need has been satisfied). If a relatively more significant need is not gratified, the desire to gratify a lesser need will be increased (i.e., the frustration in meeting high-order needs might lead a person to regress to a more concrete need category). Alderfer's ERG theory allows the order of the needs to differ for different people. It is more reflective of actual work environment.

On a work level, multiple simultaneous needs of the employees need to be understood. The frustration-regression principle impacts workplace motivation. For example, if growth opportunities are not provided to employees, they may regress to relatedness needs, and socialize more with co-workers. If one can recognize these conditions early, steps can be taken to satisfy the frustrated needs until the employee is able to pursue growth again.

The present study is about analyzing the motivational factors affecting loco running staff of Indian Railways. During the study, motivational factors have been taken as dependent variables. Keeping the concepts of ERG theory in the backdrop, the present study has used some existence, relatedness and growth variables to assess and analyze the motivational levels of the loco

running staff in the Indian Railways. Further, efforts have been made to analyze effect of different individual and occupational characteristics of the running staff on their motivational levels.