Job Satisfaction and Motivation: Understanding its impact on employee commitment and organisational performance

Kwasi Dartey-Baah
Agatha Harlley

Follow this and additional works at: https://scholars.fhsu.edu/alj

Part of the Educational Leadership Commons, Higher Education Commons, and the Teacher Education and Professional Development Commons

Recommended Citation
Available at: https://scholars.fhsu.edu/alj/vol8/iss4/39

This Article is brought to you for free and open access by FHSU Scholars Repository. It has been accepted for inclusion in Academic Leadership: The Online Journal by an authorized editor of FHSU Scholars Repository.
Academic Leadership Journal

Job Satisfaction and Motivation: Understanding its impact on employee commitment and organisational performance

Introduction

Organisations have been described as a social arrangement for the controlled performance of collective goals (Stewart, 1973). They exist basically for two reasons: to maximise profit or shareholder value, (Huczynski and Buchanan, 1991). Latest trends in management encourage the integration of the needs of employees with that of organisations. Maximising profit through growth/expansion and increased share value should not be the only motivation for organisations. Investment in people should be at the fore of business strategy and in developing human resources which invariably benefits the respective organisations. The role and effective use and management of human resources in enhancing organisational performance therefore cannot be overemphasised.

Job Satisfaction and Motivation needs are vital in the work place particularly in the twenty-first century as workers have become more knowledgeable through education about their rights in the work place. According to Fredrick Hertberg’s Job Satisfaction model, there are factors within and outside an organisation that affects the extent to which employees of an organisation are satisfied. These include the structure of the organisation, the organisational culture and the internal politics that pertains in the organisation (Mullins, 2005).

Similarly an organisation’s size, type and technology affect its ability to satisfy or motivate its employees. Macro factors like political, legal environmental and economic conditions can affect an organisation’s ability to satisfy its workforce as well as affect worker satisfaction and motivational needs. Labour market conditions and employment patterns in the territory in which an organisation is operating also affect how far an organisation is willing to satisfy their workers.

A satisfied and motivated work force can undoubtedly help sustain productivity. Locke (1976) lists some individual characteristics of workers which can affect their level of satisfaction. They include demographic factors like: age, sex, education, position occupied and length of service. He added that job satisfaction plays an important role in employee commitment and in reducing employee absenteeism and boredom at work. Smith (1992) believed that job satisfaction could lead to cost reduction by reducing absences, errors and turnovers which leads to greater productivity and economic and industrial growth which is a major drive of most organisations.

During the 1900s organisations were encouraged to deskill their work force by theorist like Fredrick Taylor and others, (Daft, 2003). Taylor in Daft (2003) advocated scientific management allowing people to specialise in the task they are assigned to. Workers in recent times have become more knowledgeable and sophisticated that they are able to multi-task through training themselves or training from their organisations. Workers irrespective of their level would rather like to enjoy what they do.
Furthermore workers see organisations according to Huczynski and Buchanan (1991) as a source of:

- Money and physical resources
- Meaning, relevance and purpose
- Order and stability
- Security, support and protection
- Status, prestige, self-esteem and self-confidence
- Power, authority and control.

It is worth mentioning that although collectively members of an organisation may have a goal as a result of strategies that may have evolved from the top; the individual members pursue a variety of different goals on their own. Senior managers may decide on objectives and attempt to get others to agree with them by calling them organisational goals. However employees’ individual aspirations inclinations and training are likely to affect these goals, (Stewart, 1973). In view of this it is important that organisations are aware of the individual needs that exist within their organisations and to strive to integrate these needs or find a middle ground which addresses these needs that employees have. Organisations that ignore this may do well in the short to medium term but could have severe problems with staff performance long-term as a result of lack of commitment and staff dissatisfaction.

The terms: Job Satisfaction and Motivation

(a) Job satisfaction

Varied definitions have been given in literature for job satisfaction. Nevertheless, ‘there appears to be a general agreement that job satisfaction is an affective (that is emotional) reaction to a job that results from the incumbent’s comparison of the actual outcomes with those that are desired (expected, deserved, and so on).’ (Cranny, Smith and Stone 1992). Job satisfaction is a positive feeling an individual has towards his or her job, (Daft, 2003). An employee who is satisfied feels fulfilled doing the job. It is an inherent feeling that one’s talents are being fully utilized and that one’s contribution is impacting society, while at the same time, personal growth-needs are being met.

Job satisfaction has also been defined by Mullins (2005) as being ‘more of an attitude, an internal state. It could, for example, be associated with a personal feeling of achievement, either quantitative or qualitative.’ Mullins further stated that concept of job satisfaction is regarded as complex and multifaceted. (Mullins, 2005)

Spector, (1997), Kinneman et al, (1997) have also explained Job satisfaction as ‘a complex construct and is often measured as a global attitude of an employee toward his or her work’. That is, the employee is either satisfied or dissatisfied with the job. Cook et al (1981) and Spector (1997) have expressed the belief that an employee’s level of satisfaction can differ with specific aspects of the job. They have projected a number of elements (variables) that underlie this construct. These elements have been classified into 5 distinct dimensions: satisfaction with work attributes (the nature of the work, autonomy, responsibility), rewards (pay, promotion, recognition), other people (supervisors, co-workers), the organisational context (policies, promotion opportunities, procedures, working
conditions), and self or individual differences (internal motivation, moral values), Locke (1976), Spector (1997), Cook et al, (1997).

(b) Motivation

Motivation has been defined as ‘a decision making process through which the individual chooses desired outcomes and sets in motion the behaviours appropriate to acquiring them’ (Huczynski and Buchanan, 1991).

Motivation has also been looked at based on the theories that have been proposed by writers on motivation like Maslow and Herzberg who took a human resource perspective in their approach. The assumptions and perspectives that managers have about the concept of motivation is likely to affect how they are able to employ it to motivate and reward their employees. Daft distinguishes four perspectives on employee motivation. These are the traditional approach, human relations approach, human resource approach and the contemporary approach.

The Meaning and Concepts of Job satisfaction and Motivation

From the 1960’s through till the late 1980’s, management theorists have studied the subject of Job satisfaction from every angle and in trying to find ways to create a contented labour force: “one less concerned with money rewards and less inclined to unionise” (Beardwell et al, 2004).

Job satisfaction is a psychological concept that refers to job related attitudes and characteristics such as pay and reward, policies, leadership behaviours, management styles and co-workers. These characteristics are influenced to a large extent by a person’s disposition. For example extroverted individuals have been found to experience greater job satisfaction. This was evident in work done by Boudreau et al (2001) which examined the role of personality and cognitive ability on the job search process of 1900 high-level US business executives.

Motivation according to Dawson (1986) refers to the ‘mainspring of behaviour; it explains why individuals choose to expend a degree of effort towards achieving particular goals’. Studies on motivation are therefore concerned with why people behave in a certain way. Motivation is considered a complex subject that is also influenced by numerous variables. It is considered very personal and internal, driven by a variety of changing and often conflicting needs.

Davidman (2004) on the subject of motivation advances that: ‘Motivation’ views the commitment of the individual to work and to his work place from the point of view of factors originating within himself, from the point of view of individual needs, likes and preferences’.

According to Daft (2003) motivation refers to ‘the forces either within or external to a person that arouse enthusiasm and persistence to pursue a certain course of action’ He goes on further to explain that people have basic needs like food, security and achievement which translates into an internal tension that motivates the individual to exhibit specific behaviours with which to fulfil these needs. The satisfaction derived from the behaviour that produced that desired outcome is considered the reward. Daft further explains the nature of the rewards as being two fold; intrinsic and extrinsic rewards.

Unsurprisingly understanding how motivation fully works is a challenge for managers because it arises from within and differs for each individual. Although different theories have been postulated on
motivation it remains elusive but it is still essential that managers and organisations for that matter pay heed to its workings and applications if they are to get the best out of their employees. Even though various arguments have been made by authors like McKenna (1999) as to the relevance of such motivational theories Linstead et al (2004) are also of the view that the word motivation cannot easily be dropped from the management lexicon. These theories have helped to demonstrate the many motives that influence the behaviour of people at work. In addition, these theories provide a framework that managers can draw on to motivate and reward their staff in order for them to work willingly and effectively.

Spector (1997) puts circumstances affecting job satisfaction into two categories:

(1) The job environment and the factors related to the job. This includes, nature of the job, relationships among people in the work place, how people are treated by their supervisors and rewards systems. Arvey et al (1989) also provided supporting evidence on the fact that emotionally stable people who are able to view their environment in a positive way are likely to be more satisfied with their jobs and vice versa. Arvey et al (1989) work involved using 34 sets of twins that were reared apart from an early age. They concluded that the way individuals view their work environment can affect their attitude and motivation, hence level of satisfaction.

(2) The individual factors that a person brings to the job including the individual’s personality and experiences. Hannagan (2005) described these as ‘situational factors’, which influence people’s behaviour. Notable among Hannagan’s list are: other people, the presence and quality of management control systems and types of reward systems and their effectiveness. Additionally, the type of work a person does, the working environment, the size of the organisation and the culture prevailing within the organisation can also affect people’s behaviour with relationship with other people considered a critical factor.

Organisation and Management perspectives on job satisfaction and motivation

In early 1900s most manufacturing companies followed the scientific management approach proposed by Taylor where mental work is separated from physical work. Taylor therefore advocated training workers in a standard way. This however, fails to recognise the individuality of people and how to satisfy their needs. The focus then shifted towards Human Relations approaches influenced by Mayo and Lewin. The later writers on the human relations approach included Maslow (1942), Argyris (1964), Herzberg (1966, 1974), McGregor and McClelland. They favoured an informal organisational structure that develops within the formal. On their part, they emphasised social factors and self-actualisation. That is deriving meaning in work and at work. One of the main sources from which the writings on management have been derived is from Mayo’s interpretation of the Hawthorne Studies, (became very influential in the 1950s and 1960s) and McGregor’s theory Y management, which is based on his assumption that ‘The average human being learns under proper conditions, not only to accept but to seek responsibility’. Some of the areas emphasised in his theory were: groups and teams, motivation and meaning in work, communication, and participative styles of management.

In practice, organisations march their strategies to their goals (Huczynski and Buchanan, 1991). For example, managers are faced with the dilemma of how to satisfy and motivate their staff, which motivational theories to employ to suit their individual employees at the same time ensuring that organisational policies and boundaries are not over stepped. On the other hand employees are also
expecting that the organisation satisfies their needs or expectations for which they have joined the organisation. Daft (2003) referred to this psychological contract that exist between employees and their organisations when he stated that different groups within an organisation have different goals and aspirations. Management therefore require skill and understanding of these diverse goals to bring about a coordinated approach and workings to realise organisational goals through employees. This will ensure that both workers and management expectations are not compromised. Job satisfaction is one of the functions of management that is essential in ensuring total commitment to the organisation.

**Job Satisfaction and Motivation- A Function of Human Resources Management (HRM)**

Different writers have defined the term HRM in various ways. Keenoy (1990, 1999) argues that ‘the term has a ‘brilliant ambiguity’, which enables users to define it in a manner that suits their purpose, and is better understood with the metaphor of ‘HRM as hologram’, an image which depends on and changes with the stand point of the viewer’. Even though most writers have taken different views on this branch of management, it is believed to contribute overall to organisation’s effectiveness through the development of an integrated range of policies, which enhances the quality of working life and encourage high commitment, flexibility, and high performance from employees (Huczynski and Buchanan, 1991).

In other words, there are certain policies that affect employee behaviour, level of job satisfaction and motivation which eventually affect the organisation. People are a valued resource and a critical investment in the organisation’s current performance and future growth. HRM advocates psychological approaches that laid emphasis on issues of motivation, groups and teams, participative styles of management and informal rather than formal processes. Purcell et al.(2000) on their part, have classified the functions of HRM that are expected to guide organisational members and yield desired outcomes to include: job security, career opportunity, performance appraisal, training and development, recruitment and selection, pay satisfaction, work-life balance, job challenge and autonomy, team working, involvement and communication. These basic HR policies are expected to motivate staff and produce in them the ability and opportunity (abbreviated as AMO) that will eventually lead to commitment and job satisfaction.

**Traditional views on Job Satisfaction and Motivation**

The traditional views on job satisfaction and motivation were based on the traditional management practices also known as scientific management. This dates back to the twentieth century. Believed to be very instrumental in this practice of management was Taylor (Daft, 2003). These were termed theory X by McGregor in later writings. Taylor blamed inefficiencies in organisations on poor management who did not know the best method of working. Taylor also believed that it was rational for individuals to restrict their output (termed soldering) to a minimum, however seeking maximum reward. He therefore, advocated the separation of mental work and physical work. Taylor believed that people were ‘economic’ beings whose only source of satisfaction and motivation was working for money. He therefore proposed the use of financial economic incentives, which was then referred to as pay based reward (PBR), currently referred to as performance related pay (PRP). This meant that workers had to work hard and depend on their skills and abilities to achieve greater economic reward. Although the scientific management ideas have received criticisms aspects are still employed in most organisations (Cole, 1996).
Contemporary views on Job Satisfaction and Motivation

Some contemporary views on job satisfaction and motivation were those proposed by the human relations movement most of whom were writing in the 1920s and 1930s. They took a more humanitarian approach. Looking at man as a ‘social’ being and deserves to be treated fairly. Hence managers needed to promote a good relationship with their subordinates at the same time endeavouring to meet their material, social and financial needs. There was a second wave of writers known as the neo-human relations writers. Notable among them was Maslow, Herzberg, McGregor, Argyris and McClelland. Their theories were classified into two main groups: content and process theories. There were however, individual contributions that did not really fall under any of the two main groups. These included McGregor’s theory X and Y, Ouchi’s theory Z and Maccoby’s Social theory.

Content theories dealt with recognising the motives that give rise to certain kinds of behaviour, whilst Process theories focus on the mechanisms that encourage or reward behaviour in a dynamic context (Martin, 2005).

McGregor, a critique of Taylorism put forward a theory he called theory Y in which he criticized autocratic management styles. This stated the following:

- There is no inherent dislike of work, although an established way of doing work may be found to be not appropriate.
- People are able to direct and control themselves when they are committed to particular objectives.

The extent of people’s commitment to work is believed to be link to the rewards they expect. McGregor’s view was that rewards people expected are not only monetary, but relates to the satisfaction of higher order needs such as self esteem which is also emphasised in Maslow’s hierarchy of needs.

Other Theories of job satisfaction and motivation

Job satisfaction and Motivation, have been treated separately in most academic text, however the writers have drawn on the same theories to explain these two concepts. This was evident in work done by Alnoeim (2002) where he considered all the motivation theories as theories of job satisfaction as well. McCormick and Ilgen (1992) did also confirm that the theories on motivation are to some extent theories of job satisfaction.

The concern for worker’s welfare and the impact of relationships with others on their motivational level became the centre of attraction as a result of the now famous Hawthorne studies (Fournet, Distefano Jr., and Pryer 1966). These studies turned management theorists away “from the prevailing simplistic ‘economic man’ model to a more humanistic and realistic view, the ‘social man’ model.” (Kreitner 1989, 67)

Elton Mayo and his colleagues from the Harvard Business School conducted a series of studies at the Hawthorne plants of Western Electric Company near Chicago between 1924 and 1932, to determine the relationship between light intensity at the work place and productivity. It was discovered that the amount of illumination was of marginal importance and that productivity was affected more by the
attitudes of the workers themselves; ‘specifically, relationships between members of a work group and between workers and their supervisors were found to be more significant’ as emphasised by Hannagan (2005). These observations helped the development of the content theories.

**Content Theories of motivation**

Content theory is one of the three contemporary approaches to employee satisfaction and motivation. Content theory gives insight into the needs of people in an organisation in order to help managers to understand how employee needs can be satisfied in the work place, (Daft, 2003). Content theory stresses the needs that motivate people. Notable among those who developed content theories are: Maslow, (1954) hierarchy of needs. Alderfer, (1972) developed the ERG theory. Herzberg, (1968) developed the ‘two-factor’ theory and McClelland, (1985) developed the acquired needs theory (Daft, 2003).

**Maslow’s Needs Hierarchy Theory**

In 1954 Maslow identified what he called a “Hierarchy of Needs”. Maslow’s theory is built on the premise that humans are motivated by various needs which exist in hierarchical order. Maslow identified five general types of needs in ascending order. These are: physiological, safety, belongingness, esteem and self-actualisation (Daft, 2003). Maslow argues that once a need lower the hierarchy is met, it ceases to be a motivator. It is then replaced by needs higher on the hierarchy.

**The Hierarchy of Needs**

1. **Biological and Physiological needs** – air, food, drink, shelter, warmth, sex, sleep.
2. **Safety needs** – protection from elements, security, order, law, limits, stability.
3. **Belongingness and Love needs** – work group, family, affection, relationships.
4. **Esteem needs** – self-esteem, achievement, mastery, independence, status, dominance, prestige
5. **Self-Actualization needs** – realizing personal potential, self-fulfillment, seeking personal growth and peak experiences.

Achieving satisfaction, according to Maslow’s model, is about fulfilling successive needs. This however did not mean that the needs had to be met fully before subsequent needs arise. The higher level needs begin to show up gradually as lower level needs are met. Additionally the relative importance of these needs changes during the psychological development of the individual

Maslow’s theory was considered flawed on three levels: The first is regarding how the needs group at different levels. Maslow gives the impression that there is a standardized way in which these needs group and therefore a standardized solution can be found for employee needs. The argument is that people’s motivation and attitude is to some extent influenced by or likely to change with age, time, accumulation of work experience and type of job among others (Martin, 2005). Maslow’s theory also emphasizes that human needs are satisfied mainly through work. This has also been criticized as it is believed that not all people attach the same meaning to work. In other words, work may not be of central interest as people do not satisfy their needs, especially high level needs through work. Secondly, as Martin (2005) argues, it is very difficult to predict when a particular need sets in or becomes important. There is also no clear distinction between the needs and behaviour hence the application of standardised solutions is not possible. Thirdly, Maslow’s theory is called a universal
theory as he believes it applies to everybody. This has also attracted the criticism that it is not able to
explain the differences between individuals or different cultures.

In spite of these limitations Maslow has been commended to be the first to attempt to make a
comprehensive list of these human needs. His thinking has influenced and continued to influence
management discussions with respect to job design, pay and reward structures. This is also evident in
Huczynski and Buchanan’s (1991) statement that ‘Many subsequent management fashions such as job
enrichment, TQM, business process re-engineering, self managing teams, the ‘new leadership’ and
employee empowerment incorporated Maslow’s ideas in the search for practical motivational
methods’.

Herzberg’s Motivation- Hygiene Theory

Herzberg and his associates, writing in 1959 proposed one of the most famous and controversial
theories of job satisfaction. Herzberg did not look directly at motivation, but at the causes of job
satisfaction and dissatisfaction with the aim of trying to understand what motivates people (Beardwell,
Holden and Claydon, 2004). He takes a psychological, but yet a contemporary view based on two
human needs: the need to avoid pain and the need to grow. This theory is known as the “Two Factor,”
“Dual” or “Motivator-Hygiene Theory.” The basis of their theory was that there are two entirely separate
set of factors that contribute to employees behaviour at work. One set was termed hygiene factors and
the other motivators. Hygiene factors prevent dissatisfaction even though their presence does not
motivate. This includes factors like working conditions, company policies and administration, pay and
interpersonal relationships.

Motivators were considered as ‘high level needs’ believed to include achievement, recognition,
responsibility and opportunity for growth. Additionally, jobs had specific factors, which were related to
job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Herzberg did not however, believe that all jobs can be enriched to
bring about job satisfaction. The highlight of Herzberg’s findings was that the hygiene factors listed
above do not motivate, but prevent dissatisfaction and pain. They provide the right environment for
work. Motivators allow for growth towards self-actualisation. The illustration below provides a summary
of Herzberg’s job context/content continuum.

Illustration

1. Job context continuum: Hygiene seekers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Poor hygiene factors</th>
<th>Good hygiene factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dissatisfaction/pain</td>
<td>No Dissatisfaction/no pain</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Job content continuum: Motivation seekers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Poor motivation factors</th>
<th>Good motivation factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No satisfaction /Negative growth</td>
<td>Satisfaction/Positive growth</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Later research by Padilla-Velez (1993) and Bowen (1980) also name the following as motivator-
hygiene factors: Recognition, achievement, possibility of growth, advancement, salary, interpersonal
relations, supervision, responsibility, policy and administration, working conditions and the work itself.

Herzberg’s theory has however been criticised by Moxley (1977), Padilla-Velez (1993), Poling (1990), Steers and Porter (1992), Bowen (1980). Bowen’s assertion was that Herzberg’s theory was not applicable to certain category of workers like teacher educators in Agriculture as his theory was born out of studying accountants and engineers. Moreover, Bowen views all the factors as related to job satisfaction except that the hygiene factors explained a higher proportion of job satisfaction as compared to the satisfiers. Vroom assertion of the two factor theory was that, it was just one of many conclusions that could be drawn from a research. Mullins (2005) has also commented that Herzberg’s model has at least five theoretical interpretations.

The two general criticisms are therefore that the theory least applies to unskilled workers and people whose jobs are mostly repetitive and monotonous even though they happen to be in the majority and are the very people who often present management with the biggest problem of job satisfaction and motivation. Moreover, some workers do not seem to be interested in the job content of their work, or with motivators or growth factors.

The second general criticism is with the methodology employed by Herzberg. The view was that the method used had an influence on the responses. That is the critical incident method and the description of the sequence of events that give rise to good or bad feelings. Furthermore, the descriptions from the respondents were interpreted by interviewers who could also be influenced.

It was argued that people were likely to attribute satisfying incidents at work (motivators) as a favourable reflection on their own performance. The dissatisfying incidents (hygiene factors) are more likely to be attributed to external influences and the efforts of other people. (Mullins, 2005).

Despite the criticisms of Herzberg’s theory, it is believed to be a good attempt to practically look at the study of motivation. His work also drew attention to job design and job enrichment. According to Crainer and Dearlove in Mullins (2005) ‘the current emphasis on self-development, career management and self-managed learning can be seen as having evolved from Herzberg’s insight’.

**Process Theories of Job Satisfaction and Motivation**

Process theories deal with the thought processes that influence behaviour. It explains how employees select behaviours with which to meet their needs and determine whether their choices were successful (Daft, 2003). The two basic process theories are: equity theory and expectancy theory.

**Equity Theory**

Equity theory (Adams, 1963) considers the employment situation as an exchange relationship of benefits / contributions between employers and employees, where benefits include pay, recognition and promotions. Contributions include employee’s education, experience, effort, and ability (Daft, 2003). The principle governing equity theory suggests that people evaluate the fairness of their input/output balance by comparing it with their perception of the input/outcome balance of another, where this other may be another person, a class of people, an organisation, or the individual relative to the individual’s experiences from an earlier point in time.

The equity model postulates that under conditions of perceived equity the individual experiences job
satisfaction. On the other hand, under conditions of perceived inequity (under-rewarded or over-rewarded relative to others) the individual experiences dissatisfaction. A state of equity is therefore said to exist whenever the ratio of one person’s outcomes to inputs equals the ratio of another’s outcomes to inputs, (Daft, 2003). According to Martin (2005) this can lead to tensions and some psychological discomfort. This may also be followed by a desire to do something about it or take action to as it were lessen the tension being experienced. Adams suggests actions that an employee could employ to ease the tensions: modify inputs, seek to modify outputs, modify perception of self, modify perception of comparator, change comparator or leave the situation. (Mullins, 2005). This is believed to restore a feeling of balance.

Even though the equity theory is considered straight forward, it cannot cover every contingency (Martin, 2005). Martin further added that even where inequities are perceived, employees are able to tolerate it to some extent providing that the reasons for the inequity are justified.

The equity theory therefore has three implications for human resource managers according to Martin (2005). His assertion is that employees will make comparisons, which are subjective. Jobs must therefore be marched properly in terms of the wage/effort bargain. Additionally, managers must be open regarding the basis on which the rewards are made to avoid wrong conclusions about equity. Equity theory illustrates the importance of performance management and reward systems in which, the outcomes are seen by individuals as relevant.

The second implication is that, there is a need for managers to redesign current compensation systems in order to avoid the performance destroying of perceived inequities and thirdly, to ensure that the redesigned systems do not lead to over rewarding of performance as that will not guarantee higher productivity or improved performance.

**Expectancy Theory**

This is the process theory that proposes that motivation depends on the individuals’ expectations or outlook about their ability to perform tasks and receive desired rewards, (Daft, 2003). Developed by Vroom (1964), with inputs made by other scholars, the theory which takes on a human resource approach, proposes that there is a relationship between the individual effort (E), the individuals’ performance (P) and the desired outcomes (O) associated with high performance. E-P expectancy advances whether putting effort into a task will lead to high performance. P-O expectancy on the other hand advances whether successful performance will lead to the desired outcome.

Expectancy theory makes no attempt to define specific types of needs of rewards, but tries to establish that these needs exist and may be different for every individual. It therefore measures the strength of the individual’s motivation to behave in a particular way. If P-O expectancy is high, the individual is highly motivated. Motivation is also said to be high if E-P is high, that is the individual believes that effort will lead to high performance. There is however a third factor in the expectancy theory, which must also be present for employees to be highly motivated. That is valence-the attraction an individual has for an outcome, (Daft, 2003). When either valence or expectancy is zero, motivation is also zero.

Expectancy theory therefore states that the strength or ‘force’ of the individual’s motivation to behave in a particular way is
F = E x V

Where F = motivation to behave

E = the expectation (the subjective probability) that the behaviour will be followed by a particular outcome

V = the valence of the outcome.

This is called the expectancy equation adapted from ‘Organisational Behaviour’ by Huczynski and Buchanan (1991). The expectancy theory is however, considered complex compared to Maslow’s theory. Lawler’s (1973) view was that human rationality is limited. Therefore human behaviour is based on perceptions that are simplified by taking into account only a limited number of factors and alternatives, which he believes the theory is able to illustrate. The expectancy theory is believed to have been influential in stimulating research and in providing a tool for diagnosing and resolving organisational problems (Huczynski and Buchanan, 1991).

**Conclusion**

From the discussions it is clear that employees who are satisfied with their work do not necessarily mean they are highly motivated employees and vice versa. However one cannot rule out the fact that the satisfaction of workers and their will to work are linked to some extent by how enriched their jobs are, the job design, level of empowerment, training, performance appraisal, incentives, and flexible working hours among others.

Additionally the relationship between job satisfaction and motivation cannot be overlooked and organisations who have a desire to be successful must appreciate the interrelatedness of the two in fulfilling the aspirations of their staff which is key to organisational performance. Furthermore it is important for organisations to put in place monitoring systems to assess the needs of employees at all levels in other to develop programmes for staff development and to appreciate employee perceptions about the conditions under which they work. This can help organisations to stay competitive in an era where it is believed that employees who are satisfied are likely to be more committed to organisational goals. In concluding, management must strive to incorporate individual workers needs and aspirations with organisational goals and leave no stone unturned in finding a fit between the two.

**REFERENCES**


Management Foundations-2600 Management, People and Organisations module1 unit 1 pp10.2, 10.10


VN:R_U [1.9.11_1134]