Authority

Meaning of Authority:

Authority is the formal right to do the work. Henry Fayol defined the authority as "the right to give orders and the power to exact obedience. Authority gives the management the power to enforce obedience. It is the power to give orders and make sure that these orders are obeyed."

According to Simon, authority may be defined as **"the power to make decisions which guide the actions of another. It is a relationship between two individuals—one supervisor, the subordinate. The superior frames and transmits decisions with the expectation that they will be accepted by the subordinate. The subordinate expects such decisions, and his conduct is determined by them**."

Writers on management argue that the concepts of power and authority are synonymous, while others contend that they are distinctly different. Both are viewed by people in many different ways.

Authority is one type of power. It is based on the recognition of the legitimacy or lawfulness of the attempt to exert influence. But the power is defined as "the ability to exert influence that is the ability to change the attitudes or behaviour of individuals or groups."

Koontz and Weihrich distinguish authority and power. Power is a much broader concept than authority. It is the ability of individuals or groups to induce or influence the beliefs or actions of other persons or groups. Authority is the right to exercise discretion in making decisions affecting others.

French and Raven's Classic study in 1959 identified five bases or sources of power, an individual has over others.

These bases are given below:

1. Legitimate Power,
2. Coercive Power,
3. Reward Power,
4. Expert Power, and
5. Referent Power.

1. Legitimate Power:
It normally arises from position and derives from our cultural system of rights obligations, and duties whereby a **"position"** is accepted by people as being **"legitimate".** In a private business authority of position arises primarily from the social institution of private property. In government, this authority arises basically from the institution of representative government.

2. Coercive Power:
This is derived from a person's ability to create fear in another individual and is based on the subordinate's expectation that punishment will be received for not agreeing or complying with the superior's commands or beliefs.

3. Reward Power:
Reward power is the opposite of coercive power. It arises from the ability of some people to grant rewards. Purchasing agents, with little position power, might be able to exercise considerable influence by their ability to expedite or delay a much-needed spare part. Likewise, university professors have considerable reward power, they can grant or withhold high grades. Pick of vacation time.

4. Expert Power:
This is the power of knowledge, skill and expertise in certain areas. Since the superiors possess these knowledge the subordinates desires to fulfill the wishes and their directions. Physicians, lawyers and university professors may have considerable influence on others because they are respected for their special knowledge.

5. Referent Power:
Referent power is based on the identification of an individual faith a leader who is held in high esteem, admired and often imitated by the subordinate.

Characteristics of Authority:

1. Basis of Getting Things Done:
Authority provides the basis of getting things done in the organisation. It refers to the right to affect the behaviour of others in the organisation with a view to performing certain activities to accomplish the defined objectives.

2. Legitimacy:

Authority is accepted as it has certain legitimacy about it, that is to say it implies a right to secure performance from others. Such right may be legal or formal, or it may be supported by tradition. Custom or accepted standards of authenticity. The right of a manager to affect the behaviour of his subordinates is given to him by virtue of his position or office in the organisation.

3. Decision-Making:

It is a prerequisite of authority. The manager can command his subordinates to act or abstain from acting in a particular manner only when he has made decisions as regards the course of activities to be performed by them.

4. Subjectivity in Implementation:

Though authority has an element of objectivity about it, its exercise is significantly influenced by subjective factors, such as the personality of the manager who is empowered to use it, as also of the subordinate or group of subordinates with reference to whom it is to be exercised.

Types of Authority:

Basically the following types of authority are given below:

1. Legal Authority.

2. Traditional or Formal or top-down Authority.

3. Acceptance or Bottom-up Authority.

4. Charismatic Authority.

5. Competence or personal Authority.

1. Legal Authority:

The authority is based upon the rank of the person in the organisation and such authority may be given by law or by social norms, rules and regulations protected by law. For example, law has granted a place officer, the authority to arrest anyone who has committed a crime. Similarly, the president of a company has the right to fire an employee because that is how the rules and policies of the company have been established.

This type of authority is similar to power, which is the capacity to secure dominance of one's goals and beliefs. This authority has been called formal authority, which has been legalised through social institutes, which attain and enforce group goals, objectives and welfare through a maze of laws, codes, cultures and ethics.

This type of authority is embedded in the bureaucracy where the authority is bestowed upon contractually hired and appointed officials.

For example, shareholders of an organisation give the authority to Board of Directors, who in turn pass it on to the Chief Executive and so on The shareholders have this authority, to start with, because, they bought the shares in the company and society, through its complex structure, gives them this authority, to start with, because, they bought the shares in the company and society, through its complex structure, gives them this authority.

While bureaucracy is the purest form of legal authority, other forms of such authority may comprise of rotating office holders, elected officials or office holders chosen by lot. They have similar authority since they must follow the same rules and regulations, which govern their positions and define the limits of their authority.

Some examples are the elected officials, such as the president of a country or a member of parliament or a community leader.

2. Traditional Authority:
This authority is based upon the belief in traditions and the legitimacy of the status of people exercising authority through those traditions. Such traditions have evolved from a social order and communal relationships in the form of the ruling **"Lord"** and the obedient **"subjects".**
The obedience results on the promise of traditional **"piety"** and traditional respect and identity of the **"Lord"** or the King or the tribal chief. The traditional chief generally makes rules and decisions at his own pleasure.
Traditional authority has flowed from the top of the organisation to the bottom, from the owners or stockholders to the board of directors to the president to the vice-presidents to middle managers to supervisors to workers. Figure 7.1 illustrates this traditional top-down flow of legitimate authority, with referent, expert, coercive and reward power also influencing the acceptance of formal authority.
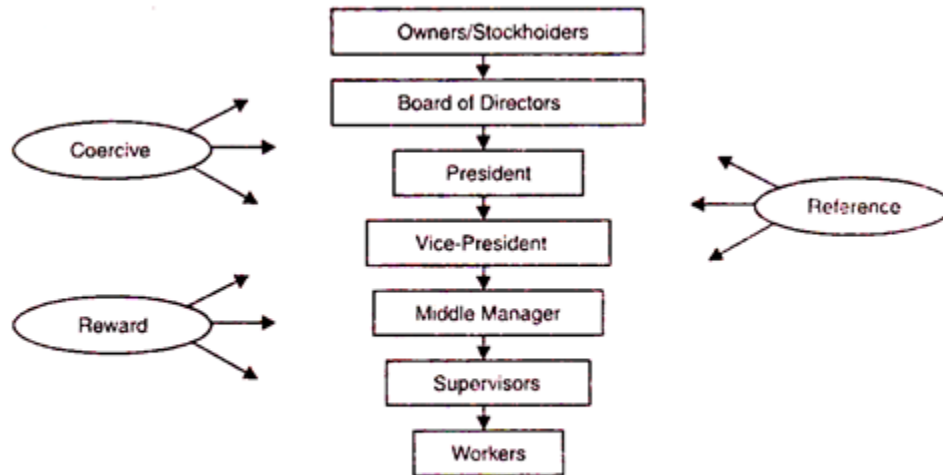
FIGURE 1 : TRADITIONAL VIEW OF AUTHORITY

The bases of power or influence do not constrain the use of authority, but rather affect how the authority is exerted and accepted.

3. Acceptance Theory of Authority:

The acceptance theory of authority presents a contrast to the traditional formal view of authority. According to the acceptance theory, authority in the ultimate analysis depends on the acceptance or consent of the people who are managed (subordinates) rather than legitimacy, or any legal, social or cultural norms.

If the subordinates don't accept the command of their superior, the superior cannot be said to have any authority with reference to them.

Chester Barnad, in 1938, began writing about organisations being 'co-operative systems' and proposed the 'acceptance theory or bottom-up theory of authority". He argued that management has only as much authority or power as subordinates is willing to accept and to the extent they consent to comply with directives.

Barnard suggested that at least four conditions must be met for subordinates to comply with authoritative communication.

a. The communication is fully understood.

b. At the time of decision, the employee believes the directive is consistent with the objectives of the organisation.

c. At the time of decision, the employees believe the command is compatible with personal interests and objectives.

d. The employees believe he or she is physically and mentally capable of complying with the communication.

4. Charismatic Authority:

The Charismatic Authority rests on personal charisma of a leader who commands respect of his followers on the basis of his personality and his personal traits such as intelligence and integrity. This is especially true of religious and political leaders. The followers become highly attached to the leader partly because the leader's goals seem to be consistent with their own needs.

A charismatic leader is a forceful orator and generally has hypnotic effect on his followers who accept his command and authority. For example, President John. F. Kennedy of America was known to have such a Charisma and hold on people that many succeeding presidential candidates tried to imitate his style.

Some organisational leaders are also known to be charismatic and responsible for the success of their organisations.

5. Competency Theory of Authority:

This is also known as **"technical authority"** and is implicit in person's special knowledge or skill. For example, when doctor advises you to rest, you accept his **"order"** because you respect his knowledge and his skills as a doctor. Again, this order will not get results unless you accept and obey and in that sense it rests on acceptance theory of authority.

Employee Morale

Employee morale is the relationship that a particular employee or a group of employees have with their work and the organization they work for. High employee morale means that employees are happy, and this is reflective in the kind of work they produce. On the other hand, low employee morale results in less productivity and pessimism among employees. It is important for every organization to continually keep employee morale high.

According to Dalton E. McFarland, morale is basically a group phenomenon. It is a concept that describes the level of favourable or unfavourable attitude of employees collectively to all aspects of their work—the job, the company, their tasks, working conditions, fellow workers, superiors and so on.

Nature of Employee Morale:
Morale represents a composite of feelings, attitudes, and sentiments that contribute to general feelings of satisfactions. It is a state of mind and spirit affecting willingness to work, which, in turn, affects organizational and individual objectives. It describes the overall group satisfaction.

1. High morale and low morale:
If the enthusiasm and willingness to work of a group is high, we can say morale is high and vice versa. Just as good health is essential for an individual, high morale is necessary for an organization. High morale represents an attitude of satisfaction with desire to continue and willingness to strive for the goals of the group. Under conditions of high morale, workers have few grievances, frustrations, and complaints. They are clear about the goals—individual and organizational—and are satisfied with human relations in the organization.

2. Morale versus motivation:
Morale should be distinguished from motivation. Although both are cognitive concepts, they are quite different. Morale is a composite of feelings, attitudes and sentiments that contribute to general feeling of satisfaction at the workplace. But motivation is something that moves a person to action.

It is a process of stimulating individuals to action to accomplish the desired goal. It is a function of drives and needs. Motivation is concerned with 'mobilization of energy', whereas morale is concerned with 'mobilization of sentiments'.

3. Morale affects productivity:
Morale has a direct effect on productivity. High morale leads to high productivity and low morale leads to low productivity.

4. Measurement of morale:
It is hard to measure morale directly as it is an intangible state of mind of the workers.

There are four methods which can be used for measuring the morale of the employee indirectly:

a. Observation:
The managers can measure the morale of the employees by keenly observing and studying their activities and behaviour. Since the manager is close to the scene of action, they can always find out unusual behaviours and report promptly. Observation is not a very reliable way of measuring morale.

b. Attitude or morale survey:
Survey helps to know the opinion of the employees either by direct interview or by questionnaires. Efforts are made to find out the view of employees about their job, co-workers, supervisors, and the organization.

c. Morale indicators:

Employee morale can be measured by examining company records regarding absenteeism, labour turnover, fluctuations in output, quality records, excessive waste and scrap, training records, accident rate, and the number of grievances filed.

d. Suggestion boxes:
Employees can be asked to put in their complaints, protests, and suggestions in suggestion boxes even without disclosing their identity. Morale generates long-term benefits such as improving the goodwill and increasing the productivity for the organization, and a satisfied employee is an asset to the organization.

Significance/Importance/Benefits of Morale:
Morale is an important part of organizational climate. It is a vital ingredient of organization success because it reflects the attitudes and sentiments of organizational members towards the organization, its objectives, and policies. Morale is the total satisfaction that employees derive from their job, their work group, their boss, their organization and their environment.

Benefits of High Morale:
Morale of employees must be kept high to achieve the following benefits:
1. Willing cooperation towards objectives of the organization.

2. Loyalty to the organization and its leadership or management

3. Good discipline—voluntary conformity to rules and regulations

4. High degrees of employees' interest in their jobs and organization

5. Pride in the organization

6. Reduction of rates of absenteeism and labour turnover

7. Happy employees are productive employees

Indicators of Low Morale:
Low morale indicates the presence of mental unrest. Such a situation will have the following adverse consequences;

1. High rates of absenteeism and labour turnover

2. Excessive complaints and grievances

3. Frustration among the workers

4. Friction among the workers and their groups

5. Antagonism towards leadership of the organization

6. Lack of discipline

Measures to Improve Morale:
Morale building is a continuous process which cannot be stopped even for a moment. Morale cannot be maintained at a high level forever. It is dynamic. Morale building may be done either on individual basis or on ground basis. Morale building on group basis is always preferable. Group morale can be increased by understanding the group dynamics. It will automatically achieve the individual morale.

Following are the important steps to achieve high morale among employees:
1. Fair remuneration:
Remuneration should be fair and equitable since this is the most important factor affecting the employee morale. The basic and incentive pay plans should be fair.

2. Incentives:

Monetary and non-monetary incentives to the employees are important to motivate them. Employees can be offered extra perks to improve morale. These can include time off, the option to work from home, a flexible schedule, or simple recognition when work is well done.

3. Work environment:

The condition of work should be friendly for the employee's mental and physical well-being. Employees may be more concerned with intangible benefits, such as work- life balance and the atmosphere in the workplace.

4. Job satisfaction:

Well-placed employees take pride and interest in their work and feel satisfied.

5. Two-way communication:

Two-way communication (upward and downward) is necessary to know the sentiments of employees in the organization. Organization policies and programmes should be properly communicated to employees.

6. Training:

In this ever-evolving world of new technologies and ideas, employees need to stay up- to-date with developments in their field. Training gives psychological satisfaction to employees and improves their performance.

7. Worker's participation:

Workers must be consulted and taken into confidence whenever a change is to be introduced.

8. Social group activities:

These activities encourage employees to take on a community-service project together. Employees will likely enjoy the opportunity to give back to their local community. Management should encourage social group activities by the workers. This will help to develop greater group cohesiveness for building high morale.

9. Counselling:

Employee counselling helps the employees with their problems and complaints, and provides an opportunity to get back on track since the counsellor is impartial. It helps to reduce absenteeism and labour turnover. The release of emotional tension alone may serve to minimize dissatisfactions.

Treat employees with the courtesy and respect they deserve— say please and thank you. Ask about their weekend, and take an interest in projects that they are working on. Thus, an unhappy employee is an unproductive employee.

A company needs to pursue policies like the ones mentioned above to help its business become a more enjoyable place to work. Not only will employees start to look forward to their workdays, the organization will benefit from the new-found efficiency.

Motivation

Concept of Motivation:

The term motivation is derived from the word 'motive". The word 'motive' as a noun means an objective, as a verb this word means moving into action. Therefore, motives are forces which induce people to act in a way, so as to ensure the fulfillment of a particular human need at a time. Behind every human action there is a motive. Therefore, management must provide motives to people to make them work for the organization.

Motivation may be defined as a planned managerial process, which stimulates people to work to the best of their capabilities, by providing them with motives, which are based on their unfulfilled needs.

"Motivation means a process of stimulating people to action to accomplish desired goods." — William G. Scott

"Motivation is the process of attempting to influence others to do your will through the possibility of gain or reward." — Flippo

Motivation is, in fact, pressing the right button to get the desired human behaviour.

Motivation is no doubt an essential ingredient of any Organisation. It is the psychological technique which really executes the plans and policies through the efforts of others.

Following are the outstanding Features of the concept of motivation:
1. Motivation is a personal and internal feeling:
Motivation is a psychological phenomenon which generates within an individual.

2. Motivation is need based:

If there are no needs of an individual, the process of motivation fails. It is a behavioural concept that directs human behaviour towards certain goals.

3. Motivation is a continuous process:

Because human wants are unlimited, therefore motivation is an ongoing process.

4. Motivation may be positive or negative:

A positive motivation promotes incentives to people while a negative motivation threatens the enforcement of disincentives.

5. Motivation is a planned process:

People differ in their approach, to respond to the process of motivation; as no two individuals could be motivated in an exactly similar manner. Accordingly, motivation is a psychological concept and a complex process.

6. Motivation is different from job satisfaction:

The process of motivation is illustrated in the figure given below:

Figure 15.1 shows an employee has a need or urge for promotion to a higher position. If this need is strong, the employee will fix his goal and find alternatives to reach the goal. The might have two alternatives, namely, (i) hard work and (ii) enhancement of qualification (e.g., getting MBA) and hard work.

He might choose the second alternative and succeed in getting promotion (goal achievement) thus, his need for promotion would be satisfied and he would start again for the satisfaction of a new need.

Significance/Importance of Motivation:

Motivation is an integral part of the process of direction.

While directing his subordinate, a manager must create and sustain in them the desire to work for the specified objectives:

1. High Efficiency:

A good motivational system releases the immense untapped reservoirs of physical and mental capabilities. A number of studies have shown that motivation plays a crucial role in determining the level of performance. "Poorly motivated people can nullify the soundest organisation." said Allen.

By satisfying human needs motivation helps in increasing productivity. Better utilisation of resources lowers cost of operations. Motivation is always goal directed. Therefore, higher the level of motivation, greater is the degree of goal accomplishment.

2. Better Image:

A firm that provides opportunities for financial and personal advancement has a better image in the employment market. People prefer to work for an enterprise because of opportunity for development, and sympathetic outlook. This helps in attracting qualified personnel and simplifies the staffing function.

3. Facilitates Change:

Effective motivation helps to overcome resistance to change and negative attitude on the part of employees like restriction of output. Satisfied workers take interest in new organisational goals and are more receptive to changes that management wants to introduce in order to improve efficiency of operations.

4. Human Relations:

Effective motivation creates job satisfaction which results in cordial relations between employer and employees. Industrial disputes, labour absenteeism and turnover are reduced with consequent benefits. Motivation helps to solve the central problem of management, i.e., effective use of human resources. Without motivation the workers may not put their best efforts and may seek satisfaction of their needs outside the organisation.

The success of any organisation depends upon the optimum utilisation of resources. The utilisation of physical resources depends upon the ability to work and the willingness to work of the employees. In practice, ability is not the problem but necessary will to work is lacking. Motivation is the main tool for building such a will. It is for this reason that Rensis Likert said, "Motivation is the core of management." It is the key to management in action.

Motivation theories

We can distinguish between **content** and **process** motivation theories. Content theories focus on WHAT, while process theories focus on HOW human behaviour is motivated. Content theories are the earliest theories of motivation. Within the work environment they have had the greatest impact on management practice and policy, whilst within academic circles they are the least accepted. Content theories are also called needs theories: they try to identify what our needs are and relate motivation to the fulfilling of these needs. The content theories cannot entirely explain what motivate or demotivate us. Process theories are concerned with "*how*" motivation occurs, and what kind of process can influence our motivation.

The **main content theories** are: Maslow's needs hierarchy, Alderfer's ERG theory, McClelland's achievement motivation and Herzberg's two-factor theory.

The **main process theories** are: Skinner's reinforcement theory, Victor Vroom's expectancy theory, Adam's equity theory and Locke's goal setting theory (Figure 1).

No single motivation theory explains all aspects of people's motives or lack of motives. Each theoretical explanation can serve as the basis for the development of techniques for motivating.
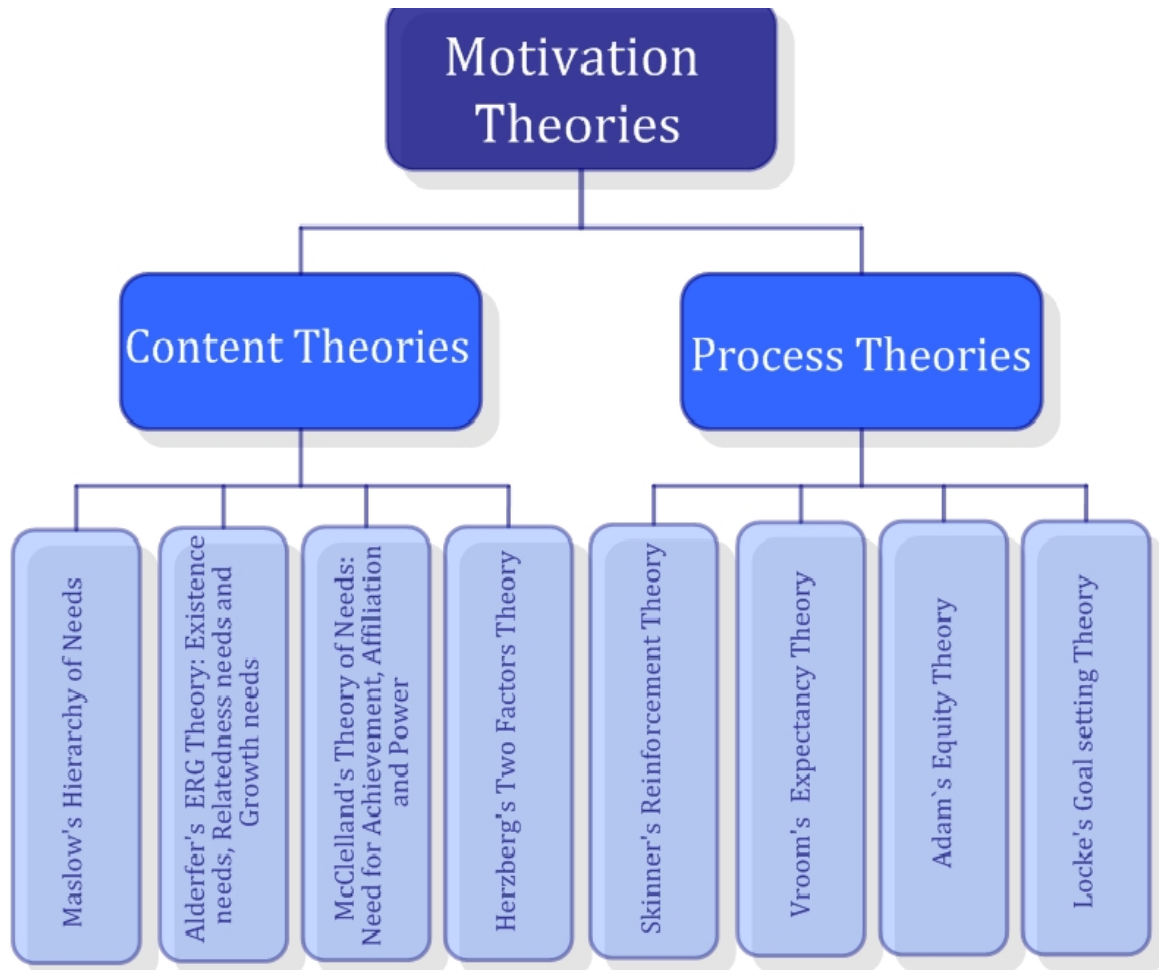

Figure 1. Motivation theories (Source: Author's own figure)

Maslow – hierarchy of needs

This is the earliest and most widely known theory of motivation, developed by Abraham Maslow (1943) in the 1940s and 1950s.

This theory condenses needs into five basic categories. Maslow ordered these needs in his hierarchy, beginning with the basic psychological needs and continuing through safety, belonging and love, esteem and self-actualization (Figure 2). In his theory, the lowest unsatisfied need becomes the dominant, or the most powerful and significant need. The most dominant need activates an individual to act to fulfil it. Satisfied needs do not motivate. Individual pursues to seek a higher need when lower needs are fulfilled.

Maslow's hierarchy of needs is often shown in the shape of a pyramid: basic needs at the bottom and the most complex need (need for self-actualization) at the top. Maslow himself has never drawn a pyramid to describe these levels of our needs; but the pyramid has become the most known way to represent his hierarchy.
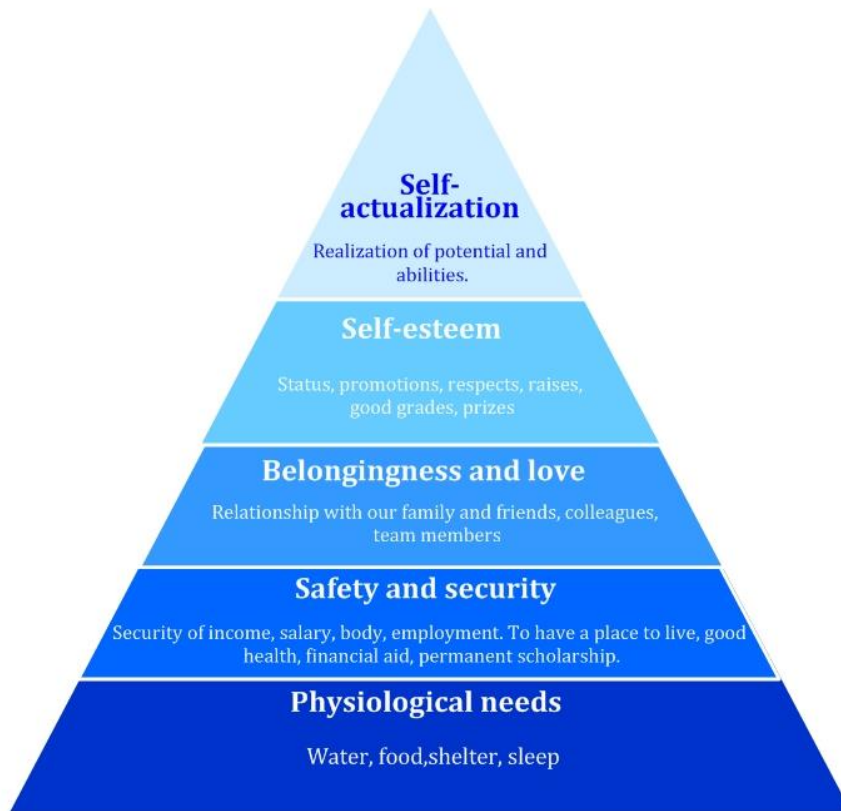

Figure 2. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Source: Author's own figure)
1. **Physiological needs** (e.g. food, water, shelter, sleep)

It includes the most basic needs for humans to survive, such as air, water and food. Maslow emphasized, our body and mind cannot function well if these requirements are not fulfilled.

These physiological needs are the most dominant of all needs. So if someone is missing everything in his/her life, probably the major motivation would be to fulfil his/her physiological needs rather than any others. A person who is lacking food, safety, love (also sex) and esteem,

would most probably hunger for food (and also for money, salary to buy food) than for anything else.

If all the needs are unsatisfied, and the organism is then overruled by the physiological needs, all other needs may turn into the background. All capacities are put into the attendance of satisfying hunger. Any other things are forgotten or got secondary importance.

2. **Safety and security** (secure source of income, a place to live, health and well-being)

If the physiological needs are relatively well contented, new needs will appear, the so called safety needs. Safety needs refer to a person's desire for security or protection. Basically everything looks less important than safety and protection (the physiological needs even sometimes). The healthy and fortunate adults in our culture are largely satisfied in their safety needs. The peaceful, sure, safety and unwavering society makes us feel in safety enough from criminal assaults, murder, unbelievable natural catastrophes, and so on. In that case people no longer have any safety needs as first-line motivators.

Meeting with safety needs demonstrated as a preference for insurance policies, saving accounts or job security, etc., we think about the lack of economic safety. Children have a greater need to feel safe. That is the reason why this level is more important for children.

Safety and security needs include: Personal security; Financial security; Health and well-being; Safety mesh against accidents, illnesses and their adverse impacts.

To tell the truth, in real dangers and traumas – like war, murder, natural catastrophes, criminal assault, etc. -, the needs for safety become an active, first-line and dominant mobilizer of human beings.

3. **Belongingness and love** (integration into social groups, feel part of a community or a group; affectionate relationships)

If both the physiological and the safety needs are fulfilled, the affection, love and belongingness needs come into prominence. Maslow claimed people need to belong and accepted among their social groups. Group size does not mean anything: social groups can be large or small. People need to love and be loved – both sexually and non-sexually – by others. Depending on the power and pressure of the peer group, this need for belonging may overbear the physiological and security needs.

Love needs involve giving and receiving affections (love is not synonymous with sex – sex is a physiological need). When they are unsatisfied, a person will immediately eliminate the lack of friends, peers and partner. Many people suffer from social nervousness, loneliness, social isolation and also clinical depression because of the lack of this love or belongingness factor.

4. **Esteem** (respect for a person as a useful, honourable human being)

In our society most people long for a stable and high valuation of themselves, for the esteem of others and for self-respect or self-esteem.

Esteem means being valued, respected and appreciated by others. Humans need to feel to be valued, such as being useful and necessary in the world. People with low self-esteem often need respect from others. Maslow divided two types of esteem needs: a 'lower' version and a 'higher' version. The 'lower' version of esteem is the need for respect from others: for example attention, prestige, status and loving their opinion. The 'higher' version is the need for self-respect: for example, the person may need independence, and freedom or self-confidence.

The most stable and therefore the healthiest self-esteem is based on respect from others. External fame or celebrity and unwarranted adulation won't cause self-esteem, although you feel better for a while.

5. **Self-actualization** (individual's desire to grow and develop to his or her fullest potential)

'What humans can be, they must be.' (Maslow, 1954)

Self-actualization reflects an individual's desire to grow and develop to his/her fullest potential. People like opportunities, choosing his/her own versions, challenging positions or creative tasks. Maslow described this level as the '*need to accomplish everything that one can, to become the most that one can be*'. Maslow believed that people must overcome their other needs – described above -, not only achieve them. At this level, individual differences are the largest.

As each level is adequately satisfied, we are then motivated to satisfy the next level in the hierarchy, always new and higher needs are coming. This is what we mean, when the basic human needs are drawn like a pyramid, a hierarchy. Life experiences, including divorce and loss of job, may cause an individual to fluctuate between levels of the hierarchy. These five different levels were further sub-categorised into two main groups: *deficiency and growth needs*.

Deficiency needs – The very basic needs for survival and security.

These needs include:
• *physiological needs*
• *safety and security needs*
• *social needs – belongingness and love*
• *esteem needs*

It may not cause a physical indication if these 'deficiency needs' are not fulfilled, but the individual will feel anxious and tense. So the most basic level of needs must be fulfilled before a person wants to focus on the secondary or higher level needs.

Growth needs – Personal growth and fulfilment of personal potential.

These needs include:
• *self-actualisation needs*

This hierarchy is not as rigid as we may have implied. For example, there are some humans for whom self-esteem or self-actualization seems to be more important than love or belonging. The popularity of this theory of motivation rooted in its simplicity and logic.

Alderfer – ERG theory: Existence needs, relatedness needs and growth needs

Alderfer (Furnham, 2008) distinguished three steps or classes of needs: *existence, relatedness and growth*. Maslow's physiological and safety needs belong together to existence needs. Relatedness can be harmonised to belongingness and esteem of others. Growth is the same as Maslow's self-esteem plus self-actualization. Both Maslow and Alderfer tried to describe how these needs, these stages of needs become more or less important to individuals.

• **Existence needs:** These include needs for basic material necessities. In short, it includes an individual's physiological and physical safety needs.

• **Relatedness needs:** Individuals need significant relationships (be with family, peers or superiors), love and belongingness, they strive toward reaching public fame and recognition. This class of needs contain Maslow's social needs and external component of esteem needs.

• **Growth needs:** Need for self-development, personal growth and advancement form together this class of need. This class of needs contain Maslow's self-actualization needs and intrinsic component of esteem needs.

Alderfer agreed with Maslow that unsatisfied needs motivate individuals. Alderfer also agreed that individuals generally move up the hierarchy in satisfying their needs; that is, they satisfy lower-order before higher-order needs. As lower-order needs are satisfied, they become less important, but Alderfer also said: as higher-order needs are satisfied they become more important. And it is also said that under some circumstances individuals might return to a lower need. Alderfer thought that individuals multiply the efforts invested in a lower category need when higher categorized needs are not consequent.

For example there is a student, who has excellent grades, friends, and high standard of living, maybe also work at the university. What happens if this individual finds that he or she is frustrated in attempts to get more autonomy and responsibility at the university, maybe also more scholarship that generally encourage individuals' growth? Frustration in satisfying a higher (growth) need has resulted in a regression to a lower level of (relatedness) needs ('*I need just my friends, some good wine, I do not want to go to the university anymore.*').

This event is known and called as the frustration-regression process. This is a more realistic approach as it recognises that, because when a need is met, it does not mean it will always remain met. ERG theory of motivation is very flexible: it explains needs as a range rather than as a hierarchy. Implication of this theory: Managers must understand that an employee has various needs that must be satisfied at the same time. ERG theory says, if the manager concentrates only on one need at a time, he or she won't be able to motivate the employee effectively and efficiently. Prioritization and sequence of these three categories, classes can be different for each individual.

McClelland – Need for achievement, affiliation and power

In the early 1960s McClelland – built on Maslow's work – described three human motivators. McClelland (Arnold et al., 2005) claimed that humans acquire, learn their motivators over time that is the reason why this theory is sometimes called the '*Learned Needs Theory*'. He affirms that we all have three motivating drivers, and it does not depend on our gender or age. One of these drives or needs will be dominant in our behaviour.

McClelland's theory differs from Maslow's and Alderfer's, which focus on satisfying existing needs rather than creating or developing needs. This dominant motivator depends on our culture and life experiences, of course (but the three motivators are permanent). The three motivators are:

• *achievement*: a need to accomplish and demonstrate competence or mastery

• *affiliation*: a need for love, belonging and relatedness

• *power*: a need for control over one's own work or the work of others

These learned needs could lead to diversity and variety between employees. More precisely, prioritization and importance of these motivational needs characterises a person's behaviour. As we wrote, although each person has all of these needs to some extent, only one of them tends to motivate an individual at any given time.

Achievement motivation – a need to accomplish and demonstrate competence or mastery. It pertains to a person's need for significant success, mastering of skills, control or high standards. It is associated with a range of actions. Individual seek achievement, attainment of challenging (and also realistic) goals, and advancement in the school or job.

This need is influenced by internal drivers for action (intrinsic motivation), and the pressure used by the prospects of others (extrinsic motivation). Low need for achievement could mean that individuals want to minimise risk of failure, and for this reason people may choose very easy or too difficult tasks, when they cannot avoid failure. In contrast, high need for achievement means that humans try to choose optimal, sufficiently difficult tasks, because they want to get the chance to reach their goals, but they have to work for it, they need to develop themselves.

Individuals with high need for achievement like to receive regular feedback on their progress and achievements; and often like to work alone; seek challenges and like high degree of independence.

Sources of high need for achievement can be: praise for success, goal setting skills, one's own competence and effort to achieve something, and it does not depend only on luck; of course positive feelings and also independence in childhood. McClelland said that training, teaching can increase an individual's need for achievement. For this reason, some have argued that need for achievement is not a need but a value.

Affiliation motivation – a need for love, belonging and relatedness

These people have a strong need for friendships and want to belong within a social group, need to be liked and held in popular regard. They are team players, and they may be less effective in leadership positions. High-need-for-affiliation persons have support from those with whom they have regular contact and mostly are involved in warm interpersonal relationships. After or during stressful situation individuals need much more affiliation. In these situations people come together and find security in one another. There are times when individuals want to be with others and at other times to be alone – affiliation motivation can become increased or decreased. Individuals do not like high risk or uncertainty.

Authority/power motivation – a need to control over one's own work or the work of others. These persons are authority motivated. There is a strong need to lead and to succeed in their ideas. It is also needed to increase personal status and prestige. This person would like to control and influence others. McClelland studied male managers with high need for power and high need for affiliation and found that managers with a high need for power tended to run more productive departments in a sales organization than did managers with a high need for affiliation.

It is important to speak about gender differences in need for power. It is said that men with high need for power mostly have higher aggression, drink more, act in sexually exploitative manner, and participate in competitive sports, and also political unrests. At the same time women with higher need for power show more socially acceptable and responsible manner, are more concerned and caring. These types of people prefer to work in big, multinational organisations, businesses and other influential professions.

McClelland argues that strong need for achievement people can become the best leaders – as we wrote it above. But at the same time there can be a tendency to request too much of their employees, because they think that these people are also highly achievement-focused and results-driven, as they are. Think about your teachers and professors! I am sure they all want the best for you, they would like to develop you, but I do not think you feel the same every time. McClelland said that most people have and show a combination of these characteristics.

Herzberg – Two factor theory
It is also called motivation-hygiene theory.

This theory says that there are some factors (motivating factors) that cause job satisfaction, and motivation and some other also separated factors (hygiene factors) cause dissatisfaction (Figure 3). That means that these feelings are not opposite of each other, as it has always previously been believed.

Opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction, but rather, no satisfaction. According to Herzberg (1987) the job satisfiers deal with the factors involved in doing the job, whereas the job dissatisfiers deal with the factors which define the job context.
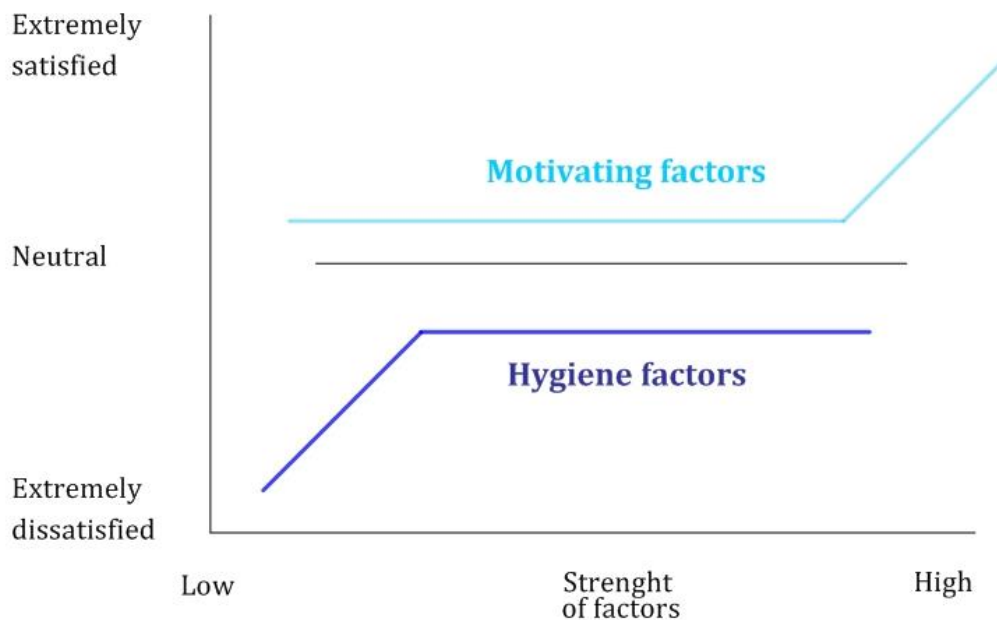
Figure 3. Herzberg's Two Factor Theory (Source: Author's own figure)

If the **hygiene factors**, for example salary, working conditions, work environment, safety and security are unsuitable (low level) at the workplace, this can make individuals unhappy, dissatisfied with their job. **Motivating factors**, on the other hand, can increase job satisfaction, and motivation is based on an individual's need for personal growth. If these elements are effective, then they can motivate an individual to achieve above-average performance and effort. For example, having responsibility or achievement can cause satisfaction (human characteristics) (Dartey-Baah, 2011).

Hygiene factors are needed to ensure that an employee is not dissatisfied. Motivation factors are needed to ensure employee's satisfaction and to motivate an employee to higher performance.

Stress Management

Benefits of Importance of Stress Management in the Workplace

Stress is a vital part of your job. Without some job stress, you wouldn't be very productive. A small amount of stress is good in the workplace but a **100% stress-free workplace is unrealistic**.
Stress in the workplace can cause all kinds of business issues and concerns. If you don't address stress at the right time, it ultimately hurts the morale and profits of the organization.

Stress in the workplace can be overwhelming sometimes. Especially if you're constantly working under pressure.
How do you juggle and manage the many hats you need to wear as a project manager.

Managing people, managing project, scheduling tasks, engaging with project leaders, delivering projects on time……. This list could go on forever.

Research shows that over **87% of employees** worldwide are emotionally disconnected from their workplaces and less likely to be productive.
1. Enables you to motivate employees better
Stress affects the morale of employees and hence their performance in the workplace. It not only affects the individual but the business also. Stress demotivates your employees which causes an increase in absenteeism and employee turnover. By using good stress management skills you can boost your employee morale which motivates and keeps them focused on their jobs and performance.
2. Improves productivity in a stressful situation
When the employee morale is high and remains intact with the workplace relationship. It improves employee productivity. By using good stress management skills, there will be very little chance of customer complaints or poor decision making even in the most stressful situations.

3. Enables you to lead people in tough times

When employees feel stress they look to you for guidance and direction. Some of the employees may seek help from you by discussing their issues one to one. By using good stress management skills and identifying the stressful issues correctly, you will be able to lead in tough times.

4. Reduces chances of workplace conflicts

Conflict at the workplace is very common and occurs due to differences in opinions, personalities and increased levels of stress. It breaks the relationships and weakens the overall culture. However, effective stress management skills prevent such distractions, builds teamwork and make everyone's life easier.

5. Decreases chances of unethical issues

Unethical issues often rear its ugly head during the time of high stress. There have been times when people have used this practice for shortcut purposes. During that time people start to blame games and point fingers to others. However, good stress management skills provide ethics and stress seminars to reduce the chances of unethical practices.

6. Increases the chances of meeting deadlines

When stress increases employees become distracted depending upon the source of a stressor. As a result of which they don't perform up to the expected level and miss deadlines. However, good stress management skills help them to identify the stressors before they become an issue and ensure that business should run smoothly.

7. Improves communication process

When stress levels are high, there is a negative effect on communication. Employees won't discuss jobs between individuals. Instead, they look for managers to discuss company issues or problems. However, effective stress management skill helps to identify a problem and resolve it, which strengthens the communication process.

8. Helps to run the projects smoothly

Stress and management go together. While managing a project you never know when the vendor will delay or not supplies the input. These issues make it hard to reach a required deadline. Sometimes the employee of the project is given responsibility and requested to deal with stress and meeting the deadline.

9. Enables you to develop team

When employees feel stress they couldn't concentrate on their work. Also, there is no unity in the team. They feel irritated when some of the team members comments on them. A situation arises where an employee discusses his issues with you and seek help to resolve it. By handling stress as a tool and using effective stress management resources, you can build and unite the team.

10. Enables you to provide space to employees

When employees are engaged in work and continuously busy, they don't get time to take rest and relax which in turn creates stress. Use effective stress management skills and provide space to your employees so they can take a rest or a break. Allowing employees to take a breather at work helps them to regain their energy and reduce the effects of stress.

11. Helps in the performance appraisal of employees

Every employee has a different threshold of stress. Stress factors can be directly related to job performance. It also helps to judge how well employees work within the team. It is measurable also. Effective stress management skills help you to evaluate and do the performance appraisal of them.