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I certify that it has not been submitted, in part or whole, for a higher degree in any other university or institution.

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Signed __________________________ Date ___/11/95________________________
INVESTIGATION INTO EMPLOYEE PSYCHOSOCIAL NEEDS as a factor of MANAGERIAL DEVELOPMENT

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Date of Submission: 1995

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I wish to thank Dr Freidoon Khavarpour for his patient and invaluable guidance throughout the entire process of this treatise. Thank you to Stephen Bignell who has withstood my neglect and preoccupation over the last six months while continuing to provide me with support and encouragement whenever it has been required. I also wish to thank Stephen Bignell for providing his time and equipment in producing the final document.

Finally, thanks to all those people who openly discussed with me some sensitive issues, which assisted in my investigative procedures.
Abstract
The following dissertation addresses psychosocial needs of employees as a form of motivational strategies in the workforce and how these strategies can form an integral part of the total functioning of an organisation.

The initial procedures involved in developing an argument upon which to base the research question (Can jobs become more satisfying if the manager applies psychological theories to managerial practise?) are in the form of investigation executed by way of an action research approach. The outcomes of the investigation have enabled the researcher to formulate a theory based on employee needs. The theory is tested by conducting a Literature Review addressing two principal themes; Psychology and Management. The outcomes of the Literature Review not only test the theory but offer implications of addressing employee needs in the total organisational concept.

Finally, the researcher suggests possible future directions and further implications of addressing employee psychosocial needs in the workforce as a form of managerial development.
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Background
Most people of the Western world spend a good part of their lives working in organisations, either as subordinates or as managers, or both. Many of the people work more than the average thirty-eight hours per week usually to meet demands, schedules and/or for financial reasons (ABC Television, 1994). Spending a large amount of our time per week at work, idealistically should be motivating, satisfying, even enjoyable, but unfortunately this is not always the case (Quinlan, 1993).

A job should provide structure for a person's life through meeting certain needs of the individual, such as fostering self esteem or creating a sense of belonging. However, many Australians are employed in bureaucratic organisations, many of which appear to have created undesirable working conditions, causing a variety of negative emotional responses (Hackman, J., Hoffman, L., Mood, R., Osipow, S., and Tornatsky, L., 1992). Adding to work demands created by the internal functioning of an organisation is that of intense global competition and explosions in technology, which, in the eyes of the worker, can make job tenure fragile.

It would seem only equitable, logical and practicable that the work place be an environment where the worker likes to be and where productivity is still a predominant outcome. Disliking one's job often results in poor job performance that, in turn, lowers productivity (C.C.H. Australia, 1992). The manager, of course, wants to avoid this outcome, but is often left scratching his/her head wondering why staff seem disgruntled. Job dissatisfaction and stress may result from a plethora of causes, ranging from personal problems to occupational safety regulation deficiencies (C.C.H. Australia, 1998). The investigator's research has indicated that employees are commonly dissatisfied with their jobs, that they experience work stress and that they are lacking motivation. Many of those who were researched stated that they experienced job satisfaction and were happy at work, claiming that many of their needs, such as autonomy and reinforced behaviour, were met (Smith, 1991 - 1995).

The word "needs" is a broad term. It can mean wants, values, interests or the things that one cares about. Individuals' needs can vary greatly, depending upon many variables such as childhood development, age, gender and ethnicity.
All humans have needs that affect their behaviour. Many psychologists such as Maslow, McLelland and Herzberg agree that personal needs strongly influence one's motivation and one's attitude to many aspects of life including one's job (Smither, 1988). Considering this premise, a number of psychologists have developed various methods of motivation to explain certain factors of human behaviour and needs (Stoner, Collins and Yetton, 1985).

This dissertation endeavours to critically examine the significance of these certain factors evident in the workplace.
INTRODUCTION

The following dissertation aims to test the theory:
Managers can increase levels of job satisfaction and ultimately improve staff performance with a better understanding and consequent application of behavioural psychology. As the title suggests (Investigation into Employee Psychosocial Needs as a Factor of Managerial Development), these themes are merged, presenting a basis for the research question: Can jobs become more satisfying if the manager applies psychological theories to managerial practise?

The investigator examines, in particular, psychological theories pertaining to individual needs, whilst accepting that this aspect of human behaviour is not the only factor that motivates people, nor is it the sole criteria in effective managerial development.

Based on the research question, the aim of the literature review is to test the formulated theory and substantiate the hypothesis; managers adhering to individual needs, according to the Human Resources Theory (see Page 10) should see an increase in motivation and an improvement in work performance by relating principles to psychology of work motivation models.

METHODOLOGY

During the initial investigation the researcher noticed some discrepancies with preconceived expectations about management. These expectations included implementation of contemporary management strategies rather than authoritarian approaches, higher levels of employee job satisfaction and less stress. The discrepancies were based on perceived problems, as viewed by the researcher and the researched. Having been immersed in work situation investigation, either intrinsically or extrinsically or considering past experiences, the researcher began to notice certain consistencies reinforced by employee comments. These consistencies included boredom, lack of feedback, insubordination, demoralisation, lack of communication, inequity, time management and lack of autonomy.
The initial investigation enabled the researcher to develop the theory based on the following deduction:

The lack of psychological understanding and application displayed by managers seems to affect the level of job satisfaction of employees.

At this stage it was necessary for the researcher to formulate strategies to substantiate the theory. The researcher chose the following strategies:

Approach to Theory: Testing
Approach to Evidence: Qualitative
Type of Method: Literature Review
Type of Concepts: based on observer’s and participants’ experience.

Ultimately this research can benefit both managers and employees, the whole organisation, stakeholders and clients, since highlighted is the importance of managers adhering to individual characteristics which in turn can motivate staff, improve levels of job satisfaction and ultimately increase work performance.

This research can be useful to the management field as it not only addresses a poignant factor of human skills but has the potential to explore the many other avenues of management development such as employer needs, training the manager and other motivational strategies. Addressing employee needs is just one aspect of effective management.

The following dissertation aims to test the theory:

Investigation

During 1994/95, the researcher began to investigate the discrepancies more thoroughly by using various forms of inquiry, discussed below.

The initial investigation was conducted within the following locations:

- 2 public hospitals
- 2 high schools
- 1 small business (6 employees)
- 2 hotel resorts
- 1 community health centre
- 1 large private company

Reflection on employee status and managerial strategies over the past five years were also considered.
Problems encountered in Design

Most of the problems were encountered during the initial investigation where it was necessary that the researcher question her method of theory formulation by asking herself questions such as: Were initial interests in management and psychology a result of intrinsic values and attitudes evolved through own experiences?

Problems and consequent reactions divulged by the critical reference groups were initially interpreted by the researcher as a result of ineffective or non-existent managerial human-based skills. There were strong possibilities that there were extraneous reasons for poor levels of job satisfaction and performance such as personal problems, alcohol/drug dependence. Throughout the investigative research process, it was necessary for the researcher to constantly challenge and examine her own perspective and values and also consider the general social perspective in order to avoid a biased approach. This was achieved by self-questioning and included unobtrusive research. There was a strong possibility that those employees who experienced job dissatisfaction would be less likely to possess the need to express their feelings than those who experienced job satisfaction. The researcher had to consider that the hypothesis could have been developed from biased investigative procedures.

The dissertation examines in its progress, the possibility of biased research and attempts to reinforce the hypothesis.

Investigative Approaches

The researcher developed a theory through obtrusive and unobtrusive investigation, conducted in the following manner:

1. Participation: the researcher was actively involved as a staff member and at other times as a manager.

2. Observation: the researcher extrinsically observed behaviours; that is, without any involvement or participation and intrinsically; that is, as a staff member.

3. Informal Discussion: no formal interview questions were asked, however varied questions were asked during informal discussions in order to elicit feelings, values and attitudes of the work situation. The questions were mostly open-ended and
usually initiated in relaxed conversations about work. The researcher was involved in informal discussions, mostly as an outsider, and the discussions were mostly in the form of grievances and story-telling.

4. **Listened**: the researcher often “overheard” conversations of job dissatisfaction. In addition, on many occasions, employees used the researcher as a “sounding board” to air their grievances.

### Perceived Problems experienced by Employees

The processes of the investigative approaches resulted in the researcher noticing certain consistencies which were perceived as problems encountered by the employees.

- **Boredom** - too much repetition. Boss not interested in cross-training. No goals. Some employees’ other skills/ talents not recognised and/ or utilised. No catering for creative talents
- **Lack of Feedback** - rare recognition of achievement or success
- **Insubordination** - authoritarian environment creating hostility.
- **Demoralisation** - ideas not listened to. Comparisons made with other members of staff.
- **Lack of Communication** - “No one told me!” Failure of collaboration between workers. Unclear direction. Cultural disputes.
- **Inequity** - favouritism. Discrimination.
- **Time Management** - workload overbearing. Unable to meet deadlines.
- **Job Description** - job tasks not suited to personality.
- **Lack of Goals** - nothing to work towards. No purpose. Demotivated.
- **Lack of Autonomy** - little opportunity for decision making or “ownership” of job.

The researcher deduced that these perceived problems resulted in several behavioural reactions; anger, stress, frustration, lethargy/ indifference, lack of motivation.

### Research Design

The Action Research Model was applied to the research. This model represents an intrinsic perspective of an organisation whereby perceived problems are analysed by key
individuals within the client organisation. Data is then collected in order to diagnose the situation and determine the impediments that are keeping the organisation from achieving its goals (Siegal, L., and Lane, I.M., 1987).

The interviewer and clients liaise to determine a joint diagnosis of the problem. Normally, all involved decide upon procedures to be used to help the organisation solve its problems (Siegal, L., and Lane, I.M., 1987). However, the researcher chose to execute a literature review as a form of continued investigation, with the analysis, conclusion and evaluation forming a basis for continuing reflection in order to re-evaluate and revise the research and to explore other facets of organisational developments.

**Action Research Model**

(Wadsworth, 1987, p.25)
To substantiate and validate the theory based on the hypothesis, varied sources of relevant material were sought. Certain criteria had to be clarified in order to obtain the relevant material, such as:

Identifying the Critical Reference Groups
- The Managers
- The Employees

Who will participate?
- after the initial research, the research was in the form of a Literature Review and therefore only the researcher participated. However, the critical reference groups continually provided input to the research; that is, support for the hypothesis was continual. The researcher's Theory Testing Model displays this strategy.

Review of Theories
Management theories are reviewed generally and related to psychological theories and models of needs. These theories and models are discussed in detail and reinforced by several researchers. Some discrepancies of these theories are reviewed and solutions are suggested. Two models of motivation are then discussed in order to highlight the significant influence human needs have on motivation and behavioural modification.
Outcome

Once it had been demonstrated that adhering to employee needs is an integral part of motivational strategies, the researcher then described how the implications of these motivational strategies are related to contemporary research methods such as the Action Approach, enabling the researcher's theory to be finally tested.

Further implications are discussed with respect to the possibilities of further research in managers' needs and management training. These progressive strategies highlight the fact that managerial development is a complex and comprehensive issue particularly in the area of human skills.

Discussion

Managing the individual, groups and organisations follows a cyclic process of planning, implementing, evaluation and modification. Since a manager is concerned with a human resource it is important to understand human behaviour and how this behaviour can affect these cyclic processes.

The effective manager's approach to these cyclic processes as the outcome suggests, should be based on a particular theoretical viewpoint in order to possess the abilities of analysing the structures and functions of the organisation. A theoretical standpoint such as the Action Approach requires an understanding of human behaviour - individual needs playing a very significant part in this understanding. This research has been able to demonstrate how addressing employee needs should be considered by the manager in order to successfully satisfy the holistic approach aiming for effective management.

The initial investigation enabled the researcher to develop a theory based on the following deduction:

The lack of psychological understanding and application displayed by managers seems to affect the level of job satisfaction of employees.
LITERATURE REVIEW

Management Theory

Management theories were first developed in the late 1700's but there have been three schools of thought that have had a major influence on management. During the 1800's Frederick Taylor founded a style or approach for managing people. This approach was labelled Scientific Management and was based upon the strategy of motivating employees with financial incentives tied directly to performance. A classical hierarchical system was predominant; that is, decision making resting largely in the hands of the managers and tasks were delegated by managers (Stoner, et al., 1985). The Scientific Management approach met with much opposition from workers and unions over the years. As a result, there was increased interest in establishing an approach to promote harmony in organisations. Consequently, the Human Relations movement evolved, initiated by Australian born researcher Elton Mayo (1880-1949), (Leavitt, H.J., Pondy, L.J., and Boje, D.M., 1989). This movement elucidated by way of experimentation and research, discrepancies between the stated objectives of the Classical Theory and what actually took place in practice. Mayo deduced from his research that workers were motivated by social need, wanting rewarding on-the-job relationships and more communication opportunities between colleagues and management. Mayo then replaced the old concept of "rational man", motivated by personal economic needs with the concept of "social man". Managers' intent generally remained as they did under the Scientific Management approach. Some theorists even viewed the Human Relations model as manipulative. Maslow and Likert were two of the principal theorists who suggested that workers were not only motivated by money or the desire for social integration, but were also motivated by the need for achievement and meaningful work (Stoner, et al., 1985). Consequently, a group of theorists later developed the Human Resource model that suggests employees as having more responsibilities for making decisions and carrying out their tasks. Their interests and abilities are also considered.

These three theories are not the only theories pertaining to management, however they are widely practised throughout the world in all different facets of organisations.
Table 1 summarises motivational models, the corresponding managerial strategies and the type of approach executed to implement these models. Details of this table are expanded in later discussion.

**Table 1 - Motivation Models and Organisational Approach**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivational Model</th>
<th>Rational/economic Person</th>
<th>Social Person</th>
<th>Self-actualising Person</th>
<th>Complex Person</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Managerial Strategy</td>
<td>Scientific Manager</td>
<td>Human Relations</td>
<td>Human Resource Job Enrichment</td>
<td>Diagnostic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational Theory</td>
<td>Classical Hierarchical</td>
<td>Systems Approach</td>
<td>Action Approach</td>
<td>?</td>
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**Effective Management Skills**

According to the initial investigation, many workers experiencing job dissatisfaction suggested that this phenomenon was apparent because of a humanistic oversight by management. "The boss rarely tells you whether you've done a good job or not." "The boss doesn't want to know about our ideas." "She talks down to us all the time." These remarks were just a few expressed by employees who suggested that humanistic oversight was the case.

One could argue should humanism, a philosophy or attitude that is concerned with humans, their achievements and interests (The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language 1969, p.640), be an integral concept of managerial strategy, considering the numerous roles that need to be undertaken by a manager. These roles can be condensed into four areas: planning, organising, directing and controlling business activity.
According to Katz (1974), within these functions the manager should possess three general skills to be effective:

1. technical skills - the ability to use tools, procedures or techniques of a specialised field.
2. conceptual skills - the ability to develop ideas, gauge the impact of change, solve problems.
3. human skills - the ability to work with, understand and motivate other people.

In many circumstances, managers have the necessary technical skills to be a good manager of a particular area, but lack the skills necessary to relate to and “connect with” people in the work environment. As can be noted in diagram A, the deployment of human skills does play a significant role in the integral concept of management strategies, no matter what level of management is considered.

Diagram A - Relative Skills needed for Effective performance at different levels of management

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conceptual</th>
<th>Human</th>
<th>Technical</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>50%</td>
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<th>Conceptual</th>
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<th>Conceptual</th>
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<td>35%</td>
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First Line Management | Middle Management | Top Management
Stoner, J.A., Collins, R.R., and Yetton, P.W.,
Managers are becoming more aware that absenteeism due to illness and injuries is largely occupationally stress-related and yet it seems that managers do not often consider that humanistic oversight could be a possible cause of this type of stress. Managers are reluctant to be reflexive, often blaming work stress on the employee's poor attitude to work. A relevant example of stressors in the workplace was published in a recent article in the Sydney Daily Telegraph (12/7/94), relating to the alarming rise in compensation claims related to stress by public servants, with the main cause cited as being insufficient positive feedback and too rapid a pace of change leading to a lack of clarity in direction and goal setting. Stress can be manifested in many ways and the level is strongly influenced by the person's own perception of the stress-causing situation. These situations according to CCH Australia (1973) can be divided into three basic categories:

1. job-induced - eg. work overload, unsatisfactory feedback, insecurity
2. organisation-induced - eg. office politics and idle talk, discriminatory practices, poor working conditions (noise, light).
3. change-induced - eg. unfamiliarity with new job, new supervisor, retrenchment.

According to CCH Australia (1988), over the past two decades, excessive occupational stress has been widely accepted as having significant negative effects on both physical health and psychological well-being. These negative effects account for indirect costs to the organisation, encompassing variables such as absenteeism and loss of productivity, labour turnover and industrial disputes, adding millions of dollars on to the already high Australian health and safety direct costs of $9.6 billion (CCH Australia, 1992 p4).

Diagram A highlighted the fact that the manager's possession of human skills plays a significant part in the overall process of management. The implementation of these skills can possibly give an insight into the causes of job dissatisfaction and stress. It would be in the organisation's best interest to resolve some of the causative factors of job stress and dissatisfaction so that work performance may be improved, ultimately increasing productivity and profit.
Psychology in the Workplace
Avery and Baker (1990), Australian work psychologists, suggest that the principles of psychology can be used to help managers identify and cope with many of the human behaviour issues that affect work life. There are many organisations in Australia that employ a psychologist or who train managers/supervisors in psychological principles. They are aware of the complexities of human behaviour and understand that being sensitised to the needs and problems of others will increase the manager’s chances of succeeding in the relationships with other people in the work place. Psychologists are also aware that managers often do not see the potential of the company’s human resource. Managers can still be seen to be operating in a scientific management approach, whereby the motivation of employees is determined by financial incentives. As argued by John Maxwell (1990), the irony of our dramatically high technology age is that all the qualities and the characteristics that we proclaim as defining the successful organisation of the future are dependent upon the people in the organisation. Maxwell stresses that the new management challenge is more than ever, a human one. “Close attention to the needs of the individual worker will be a vital part of the formula of meeting this challenge”, Maxwell stated at the 1990 Management Conference, Mount Eliza, Vic. He reinforced this statement by highlighting that individual and group needs are quite different from workers of the past. Consequently, new directions in management are paramount.

Needs should be handled on an individual basis because individuals bring personal needs to the work place, such as economic, social and psychological needs, which all have a significant effect on the organisation, according to Kossen (1987). The individuality of needs creates difficulties when attempting to teach or learn needs concepts. It is also difficult to demonstrate that one particular interpersonal approach is more effective than the other. However, managers should realise that development of human skills is a slow, generalised process aided by face to face communication, and, preferably, professional training. Organisational theorists who study groups that are established to accomplish
specific goals, believe that the more we get to know people around us (and ourselves),
the better able we will be to understand their needs and what will motivate them (Stoner
et al, 1985). A substantial number of researchers have examined the link between work
settings and health related criteria, in particular poorly motivated employees and job
stress. In 1980, Hackman and Oldman (Hackman, Hoffman, Moos, Osipow and
Tornatsky, 1992, p23), stated, “the motivating potential of a job increased with the
identity and significance of the task, variety of skills needed to perform it and the level of
autonomy and feedback”. All of these factors can be directly or indirectly related to an
individual’s needs and these needs can be initially assessed by observation and simply by
asking.

The Content Theory of Motivation
Different theories of motivation have been developed during last century and this century
- such as the Content Theory of Motivation developed by psychologists namely Maslow,
McGregor, Herzberg and McLelland who stressed the understanding of factors within an
individual that affect the way they behave. With reference to Table 1 on Page 11, the
Content Theory could be labelled as a “self-actualising” motivational strategy. This
theory of motivation emphasises individual needs and assumes that the arousal of
behaviour is due to need deficiencies.

Other theories of motivation, such as Reinforcement and Systems theory, human needs
are not so much emphasised, but still remain an important element of motivational
strategies. Content theory authors have strongly influenced management strategies,
predominantly in large organisations (Avery and Baker, 1990). The Content theory has
as its premise, an arousal of behaviour (motivation) is due to need deficiencies and
therefore individuals will generally behave in a way that will lead to satisfaction of their
needs (Hackman et al., 1992).

If managers are not only aware of psychological theories such as those mentioned above,
but learn to recognise individual needs, then understanding the strategies involved in
worker motivation can become more evident. Recognising individual needs requires
research. The manager can initiate his research by well acquainting himself/herself with
the staff. He/she needs to develop an understanding of the culture of the organisation, or the set of values and beliefs that guide action and provide a force that shapes the effectiveness of the organisation (S.C. and M.C. Thomson, 1991). Introspection is also an important part of utilising human skills in a managerial position. A manager's beliefs and attitudes will affect the way he/she perceives individual needs and the culture of the organisation. No matter how culturally sensitive one might be, one cannot avoid viewing, understanding and responding through the filters of one's own previous experience and background (Khavarpour, Smith, Allen, House and Jacob, 1994). However, introspection will enable the manager to step outside the whole picture and take an extrinsic view of the organisation and its human resources.

The Content theorists believe that human behaviour is shaped by striving to satisfy certain needs. They view their theories from different angles; for example, Maslow expresses human needs as a hierarchy model. Alderfer on the other hand, collapses Maslow's hierarchy model into three instead of five need categories and is expressed as a continuum and McClelland, whose approach is very popular with managers and generates interest with researchers (Smither, 1988) condenses all human needs into a Need Achievement model. These theories hold that motivation has a psychodynamic base that emphasises that much of the individual's behaviour is unconsciously determined, that is, he/she is influenced by thoughts, fears and wishes of which we are unaware (Avery and Baker, 1990). If this is the case, changing behaviour would be a difficult task and one could question the ethics of behaviour modification. However an attempt by managers to change behaviour is not just a ploy to suit the organisation but also as a positive adjustment for the employee, an adjustment that enables him/her to experience job satisfaction and be as free from as much stress as possible. Another query related to Content theorists, in particular Maslow, is that Maslow believes that motivation is affected by the level of the individual's functioning. Questions may be raised concerning how to determine this level. This will take time. Empathy and introspection on the manager's part will act as catalysts to facilitate the determining of what each employee needs. Managers should sit down with the employee in a non-threatening environment for example, without the manager sitting behind the large executive desk, which will act
as a communication barrier, and discuss, in a non-formal manner, subjects related to levels of job satisfaction. Carefully designed questionnaires, observation and deployment of a work place psychologist can also aid in deciphering workers’ needs. Once the level has been determined, the manager/supervisor can help the worker to meet the needs appropriate to that level in a variety of ways. To mention a few examples -

* sending the employee to staff training seminars
* giving the employee more responsibilities
* allowing opportunities for cross-training
* allowing employees to participate in decision-making processes particularly when it directly involves the employee’s job description

Although realising that needs are not the only motivators of human behaviour, the Content theorists believe that a person’s needs are the predominant motivators of behaviour. It is important at this stage to stress that a satisfied need is not a motivator of behaviour - which many managers fail to recognise. For example, if physiological needs are met, such as adequate lighting, fresh air and rest periods, then the employee will seek a higher order need that has not been met which will be signified by individual patterns of behaviour. This factor explains why managers are left scratching their heads when they observe unmotivated, dissatisfied or disgruntled workers when seemingly all ideal working conditions have been met.

During the initial investigation, a clear example of manager frustration and unmotivated staff was observed in a small business workshop. Salaries were above the average norms, heating and lighting, safety standards and rest periods were more than adequate but absenteeism was high. Something was missing. Finding a solution to this problem was a task for the manager. Understanding workers’ individual needs could help to solve the problem. As Kolb, Rubin and Osland (1991) suggest, managers must recognise that people deprived of opportunities at work to satisfy the needs which are not important to them behave exactly as we might predict - with indolence, passivity, resistance to change, lack of responsibility, willingness to follow the demagogue, unreasonable demands for
economic benefits. The needs that are not important to them are the ones that have been satisfied. If needs are one system of motivators of human behaviour, then it is important for managers to know what human needs are based on and how these needs affect behaviour.

**Human Needs According to Maslow**

Maslow was a researcher of human motivation and developed his theories based on the Human Resources approach - the approach that advocates managers sharing responsibilities with employees for achieving organisational and individual objectives. He views human motivation in terms of a hierarchy of five needs (see Diagram B)

**Diagram B - Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs**

Stoner, Collins and Yetton.
Management in Australia (1985) p.542
Sydney: Prentice Hall

Maslow believes that when one of the needs is satisfied another appears in its place. This phenomenon he calls the hierarchy of importance. A person's most basic need would be one of a physiological nature; that is, the need for air, water, food and sex. In a work place situation, these needs could also include factors such as fresh air, rest, heating and lighting. Prior to 1988 when smoking was permitted in public buildings and work places,
many people were deprived of this basic need. Anger and discomfort prevailed, provoking many non-smokers to various forms of protest behaviour.

There have been various criticisms of Maslow's model, which are discussed later, however, J.B. Miner (1992) states that unsatisfied low level needs such as physiological and safety needs do tend to motivate people's behaviour, and suggests that higher order needs do become important, but which ones they are depends upon the developmental experiences of each person. According to Dawis, Fruehling and Oldham (1989), research has shown that needs do tend to organise in a hierarchical order, with some needs being more important than others. Other researchers recognise that the ordering of needs seems to be different for different people, although researchers suggest that some patterns are found more frequently in others (Cooper and Makin, 1984).

Throughout history there have been situations where workers have been deprived of various forms of physiological needs, such as rest, often because management has only considered the product and not the people who produce it. Some bosses intentionally deprived workers of basic needs as a form of punishment, particularly during the reign of Imperialism - from the 15th Century to the industrial revolution of the 19th Century. Capitalists from Western powers were often exploiting the indigenous people by forcing them to work long periods of time for very little money (or no money at all) and using deprivation of basic needs as a form of punishment or negative reinforcement. Consequently, strikes, uprising, mutiny and acts of violence eventuated.

The next need in the hierarchy of importance is one of safety. Maslow describes this need as the need for safety, order and freedom from fear or threat. Kolb and McIntyre (1984), argue that if a worker is confident of the safety criteria of the organisation, then he/she is more willing to take risks. If he/she feels threatened or dependent, then the greatest need is for guarantees; for example, for protection or security. Safety needs can assume major importance in the work environment and can often create subtle indifference between management and employees, or major upheavals, sometimes resulting in dismissal or suit. Destructive managerial strategies such as displaying acts of discrimination or favouritism, or creating tenuous job security often create much tension amongst employees. These types of negative managerial behaviours can be powerful motivators of safety needs.
During unobtrusive investigation, the researcher observed an obstruction to satisfying safety needs, when a principal of a high school, due to his inability to effectively communicate with female members of staff, created feelings of mistrust. Many of the women felt that there was an underlying degree of sexual discrimination, since the boss directed much of his communications towards male members of staff. Several of the female members expressed their exasperation over this matter.

The researcher also experienced an account of discrimination during participatory investigation whereby the manager openly delegated appealing and more important responsibilities to the supervisors who were of his nationality, resulting in other employees' anger and mistrust of the manager.

In Australia little importance is placed upon job security, since in most cases, Australians are paid by the hour and not on what is produced and marketed, such as is the case in Japan, where Japanese workers have a life-time guaranteed job. About forty per cent of the Japanese' annual income is determined by company productivity and profitability (Le Boeuf, 1940, p41). If the company does well, it shares the prosperity.

Maslow deduced that when these two previous needs are satisfied, social needs become important motivators of behaviour. Social needs include the need for belonging, for association and for acceptance by the employee's colleagues (Kolb, Rubin and McIntyre, 1984). Human Relations theorists realised the significance of group dynamics in influencing employees' behaviour. The Human Relations approach stresses that social relations should be encouraged to promote broader communication. They suggested that those workers who have a great input and control over production or service supply often respond to management in a more positive manner. Abbasi and Hollman (1994) through their research have described the socialising culture in the workplace as being expressed through teamwork. They stress that closely knit teams help to build commitment and encourage team members to find better and more efficient ways of doing things.

Psychologists Roy Baumeister and Mark Leary (1995) substantiate this theory and postulate that the need to belong is a powerful, fundamental and extremely pervasive motivation and that people form social attachments readily under most conditions and
resist the dissolution of existing bonds. Management often recognises the search to satisfy needs for socialisation as a threat. During the initial investigation, one supervisor spoke of her “paranoia” of the groups that were forming under her jurisdiction. They were ethnically grouped. The supervisor assumed that the employees were speaking about her “behind her back” because they were speaking in their own language. In contrast, another employee spoke highly of his boss who encouraged teamwork and social work functions to improve communication amongst work colleagues. The employee stressed that the boss was achieving this goal and stated “workers can get together and sort out problems whether personal or work related, much more effectively than if interaction is not encouraged” (anonymous employee at a community health centre, 1995). Concerning the former example, the manager could overcome her suspicions with better communication with the staff, encouraging problem solving and innovative thinking within the forming groups. Many managers already realise the importance of meeting the social needs of employees. Contemporary management practices and approaches incorporate teamwork as a major motivator of improved work performance. Managers should be aware that they are not managing the process of services, they are managing people and people need to feel as if they are part of the environment in which they work. Many studies have demonstrated that the tightly knit, cohesive work group may, under proper conditions, be far more effective than an equal number of separate individuals in achieving organisational goals (Kolb, et al., 1991). Elton Mayo, one of the Human Relations theorists, believed that managers could motivate employees by catering for their social needs. He and other researchers believed in giving employees opportunities to make work decisions and giving them more freedom in social interaction.

Researchers Paul McDonald and Jeffrey Gandz (1992) stress that sharing values is a significant managerial issue and that today’s graduates want much more than their ancestors, whose main concern was a salary. McDonald and Gandz suggest that today’s workers want a sense of psychological attachment. These wants and needs can only be met with socialisation opportunities at work.
Several employees from various organisations expressed the great satisfaction of having the opportunity to participate in problem solving and decision making processes related to the functions of the organisation. One employee from a large manufacturing company remarked that being part of a team and being able to have one’s say and express ideas and interests really made one feel like a valued and worthwhile member of staff. To the contrary, an employee of a particular high school was obviously angry and very demotivated because he felt that staff opinions and ideas were rarely acknowledged by the principal and even if they were, they were rarely utilised. Several staff members expressed similar grievances. They stressed that there was a real lack of cohesiveness. One member of staff lamented “we come to school, do our job and go home. There’s little or no collaboration on a whole staff basis. The principal here runs the show and it doesn’t feel like there’s any meaning to our job.” (1994) One could almost feel the negative atmosphere in the school. There was a distinct unhappiness and resentfulness. Research executed by Billings and Moos in 1982 (cited in Hackman et al., 1992, p106) found that there were three main factors of the work environment that related to employees’ lack of physical and mental well-being.

1. high job demands
2. insufficient opportunity to participate in decision making and to organise and pace the work
3. high level of supervisor control and role ambiguity or lack of clarity.

The researcher suggested that all three factors were apparent in this particular school. There was high absenteeism and many teachers were taking leave. Several researchers have found that negative work environmental factors such as those mentioned above can cause various psychogenic illnesses such as headaches, dizziness and fatigue, when all other factors are taken into account (Hackman et al., 1992), resulting in poor work performance.

The final stage in the Content Theorists’ hierarchy of importance is incorporated in the Human Resource Model and expressed in Diagram C.
Diagram C - The development of managerial approaches to motivation

**TRADITIONAL MODEL**
- provide wage incentive

**HUMAN RELATIONS MODEL**
- cater to employees' social needs

**HUMAN RESOURCES MODEL**
- meets employees' higher order needs

Management in Australia (1985) p.534
Sydney: Prentice Hall

The last two elements of human needs according to Maslow are respectively Egoist needs and Self Achievement needs. Kolb et al. (1984) suggest that Egoist needs can be categorised into two types; that is, self esteem needs relating to needs for self confidence, independence, achievement and competence; needs related to one's own reputation that includes the need for status, recognition and appreciation. Unfortunately, these needs are rarely satisfied, possibly because management does not create the appropriate environment. One could argue that it would be difficult for a manager to determine whether employees are reacting contrary to management objectives because egoist or self-achievement needs are not being met. Whilst in a managerial position, the researcher found during the investigation period that determining these most important needs in the work environment was attained by a series of informal discussions, questionnaires and simple observation of apparent job satisfaction. Although these may be crude estimates of psychological concepts, it is otherwise difficult to obtain answers since needs are not
concrete, so they are not directly observable, the manager can only indirectly grasp the situation. The researcher began to formulate from the initial investigation that if egoist needs were not being satisfied then one could expect to find evidence of lowered self confidence, poor achievement and competence and poor status in the community. To the contrary, if these needs were being satisfied then the outcome would be enhanced confidence, achievement, competence and status. This formulation was based on psychological theory according to Carl Rogers, a psychologist of the fifties who developed the Humanist Approach, which argues that individuals are aware of what they want to do and why they want to do it. The Humanists are concerned with understanding an individual’s inner life experiences rather than with predicting and controlling behaviour (Avery and Baker, 1990, p 17).

One of the more significant strategies in satisfying egoist needs is for management allowing employees to become more involved in problem solving and strategic decision making processes and enabling them to have more responsibilities and ‘ownership’ of their working environment. By giving employees more control of their performance and allowing them to manage themselves, this will aid in improving their egoist needs. Ralph Stayer, a managing partner of Leadership Dynamics in America, suggests that allowing employees more responsibility in their job tasks and owning the problems associated with their job greatly improves job performance (Harvard Business Review, 1990). Stayer elucidated through his research, that being made responsible for various criteria would enable employees to earn recognition, status and achievement - in other words, satisfying egoist needs. The researcher has experienced, on numerous occasions, the great sense of confidence, achievement, competence and status when having had the opportunity to “own” a project in the work situation and having complete responsibility for the project and its consequences.

Egoist needs can be very strong motivators in the workforce, however some theorists would argue that this form of motivating behaviour is intrinsic and not applicable to everyone.

A principle catalyst in satisfying egoist needs is reinforcing appropriate behaviour. For example, if an employee has been given the responsibility of training other employees,
appropriate feedback from supervisors can act as a reinforcing agent in meeting egoist needs.

The act of reinforcing behaviour can be recognised as part of the process of operant learning instigated by the application of B.F. Skinner’s theories (Smither, 1988). Dr Skinner was a behaviourist theorist. The Behaviourist’s premise is that people’s behaviour is determined by outcomes or consequences of their actions. This approach has been more fully developed by Luthans and Kreitner in 1985 and labelled Organisational Behaviour Modification (O.B.M.) - an approach that has become very popular in manager development programs (Smither, 1988). Skinner argued that in operant learning, certain initially randomly produced behaviours are strengthened through reinforcement and thus come to occur more frequently (Miner, 1992).

Later in 1977, Albert Bandura, a social learning theorist, expanded on Skinner’s theory (Smither, 1988). He suggested that certain motivational practices included a contingency of reinforcement; that is, Positive Reinforcement, Avoidance Learning, Extinction and Punishment. Some of these forms of reinforcements strengthen behaviours, while others weaken the behaviour. Bandura stressed that positive reinforcement involves providing some regard contingent upon the subject’s performing the desired behaviour (Stoner et al., 1985). In the workforce, positive reinforcement is typically seen as promotion, increased compensation, praise or more desirable working conditions. It is important to mention here that managers should not fail to recognise that what is a reward for one person may not be for another, it all depends upon past experiences - a notion strongly adhered to by the Cognitive approach to psychology, an approach which studies the way people’s mental processes influence their behaviour. A manager also should understand that continuous reinforcement may eventually have no effect. Organisational behaviour modification psychologists suggest that partial reinforcement, or not giving feedback on every action, is more effective. Learning will be slower, but the behaviour to be learned will be more permanent, according to Miner (1992).

The researcher observed several approaches to reinforcement during investigation. These varied approaches had conspicuous outcomes. For example, several employees in a particular hospitality organisation were highly motivated by egoist needs. They
desperately sought opportunities for recognition and appreciation by designing creative innovations, risk-taking with new stage performances and asking for more challenging responsibilities. They had the opportunity to express and implement these desires that absorbed much of their free time and energy. (Free time was scarce within this particular industry.) Positive feedback was extremely limited. In fact, the behaviours were either ignored or criticised. This action (or lack of it) from the manager continued until the highly motivated employees became very demotivated, frustrated and clearly dissatisfied with their jobs....an example of inappropriate responses by the manager. It is often most obvious to observers the pleasure frequently experienced by an employee when his/her superior genuinely rewards certain behaviours, even it is just verbal. An expression of thanks and appreciation from “the big boss”, particularly in a large organisation, can really boost one’s ego and be quite effective in motivating work performance, helping to increase self esteem, as long as this type of feedback does not become redundant, or is not a one-off, token gesture.

Self actualisation or self-fulfilment needs can be regarded as realising one’s potentialities (Smither, 1988). Organisations that allow for this need provide opportunities for continued self-development and creativity. It seems that many employees do not have the need for self-fulfilment in the work force. They appear to be quite content to do a fair day’s work for a fair day’s day. However the researcher found that those workers who expressed this need appeared to be highly motivated when the relevant opportunities to satisfy these needs were available. Some Content theorists argue that self-fulfilment needs mostly remain dormant because employees are trying to satisfy lower level needs (Kolb et al., 1991). Many contemporary approaches to management make provision for satisfying self-fulfilment needs, such as providing opportunities for employees to select any number of self-development in-service programs or choosing to utilise their creative pursuits in various ways. However, management often fails to recognise other needs - the needs referred to as lower level needs by many human psychologists. For example, as part of the preliminary investigation, some nurses, community health workers and school teachers recognised that opportunities existed in the relevant organisation for realising
their own potential and allowing for continuing self-development, but provision for satisfying certain "safety" needs as defined by Maslow and other psychologists, were neglected by management. Uncertainty with respect to continued employment, various forms of discrimination and unpredictable administration of policy was all too evident, not only to the researcher but also expressed by various employees. In this example, employees displayed various expressions of job dissatisfaction, stress and/or were demotivated in certain aspects of their job. Certain psychologists would argue that this is evident because lower level needs have not been met.

Deprivation of higher level needs has behavioural consequences. Human nature alone does not account for such actions as hostility, refusal to accept responsibility and indifference to job tasks.

The example Employee Questionnaire (see Appendix A) sets out a series of questions in order to determine higher order needs. As previously mentioned, a questionnaire is one of the tools of management that can be used to better know one's staff, to understand the cause of negative reaction such as those mentioned above and ultimately, to improve staff performance.

Smither (1988) describes the manager's effectiveness as being significantly influenced by his/her insight into his/her own work. Being introspective can assist in changing habitual and well-rationalised ways of relating to others and is necessary to develop human skills free of one's own bias in the understanding of human needs. Many business schools and company programs are making serious attempts to improve the development of human skills in managerial positions. These programs are often based on the Social Sciences such as Psychology and Sociology. Total Quality Management (TQM) is a fairly recent approach to management and has been popular with large organisations around the world. TQM, as the name infers, regards the organisation as a whole unit rather than divided into sections and hierarchies as is the system with Scientific Management and Human Relations approaches. TQM conceptualises the understanding of why people behave as they do. This concept gives an insight into how management can influence people to perform in ways that the organisation finds desirable, for example, higher productivity. To attain objectives like this, TQM adheres to the theory devised by the
Human Resource theorists, that is that people need to feel as if they are part of the environment in which they work by assisting in the decision making processes and by feeling like they are part of a global team. Trust, integrity and honesty are promoted in the TQM approach with intent to minimise the underlying impression of “them and us.” Services and systems are integrated to promote “cohesiveness” and collaboration. The TQM approach then, has as one of its aims, to motivate workers by adhering to individuals’ needs and, in the process, aims to minimise work stress and improve levels of job satisfaction.

Problems of Need Theories

One of the criticisms of Need theories, like most theories, is that they are based upon intuition and therefore lack empirical evaluation that limits applicability (Smither, 1988, p287). However, intuition predisposes to forming hypotheses that are propositions. Providing the manager is careful not to introduce bias into his/ her hypotheses, for example, “it worked for me so it will work for you”, and steps back to take an extrinsic view of the organisation and its operations, he/ she can test the hypotheses based upon, not only his/ her own experiences, but on other theories and other people’s experiences. When all hypotheses are confirmed, the theory is more credible but not necessarily true.

Another criticism from management theorists is that needs are difficult to determine. To overcome this obstacle may take many months or years of exploration, evaluation and appraisal. As previously stressed, the manager needs to know his/ her staff well. He/ she needs a substantial amount of creativity that includes meeting confusing, fast-changing demands on his/ her intelligence, adaptability and people-handling skills. However, the determination of employees’ needs is possible. Some larger organisations employ psychologists or management consultants to perform personality and aptitude tests to assist in determining these needs. For example, the Hermann Brain Dominance model, devised by Ned Hermann (1986) and the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (1976) are contemporary approaches to determine how people prefer to learn and how people prefer to express their intelligence, which can provide management with an insight into how to
appropriately motivate employees by adhering to the results of the testing. These approaches are executed by a series of carefully selected questions that are analysed by the tester with a comprehensive set of coding systems. The results for the Hermann Model are displayed as a brain dominance profile that shows the brain divided into four quadrants (see Appendix B). According to the deviser of the model, these quadrants of the brain represent particular learning criteria, which is represented by a percentage or a summary of results of the test. The employee, as well as management, can use these profiles as a basis for understanding his or her needs in the workplace and to allocate work that will suit employee brain use patterns. Management can also use the profiles for the screening of job applicants. The profiles would act as one of the tools to gauge whether or not the applicant is suited to the job description and would be intellectually stimulated. For example, an individual who scores highly in the upper right quadrant (refer to Appendix B), would be better suited to working on a team constructing long-term goals rather than day-to-day administrative duties.

Holland developed a Theory of Personality in 1973 that recognised that there are six personality types (Siegal, 1987). He argued that it becomes possible to assess the environment in the same term that he assesses individuals. This theory is often used in career consulting. Clients seeking job satisfaction are advised by counsellors to find a job that is consistent with their personalities. Testing is a simple method by means of questionnaires. Employees’ personality types can then be determined and categorised. Holland’s personality categories are; realistic, conventional, artistic, enterprising, social and investigative (Smither, 1988, p308). He believes that everyone’s personality has a predominant feature, with overlapping in other areas. During investigation, two employees in two different vocations both remarked that the best part of their job was the fact that they could pursue their artistic or creative talents and that they would be most unhappy in their job if these opportunities were not apparent. Adhering to personality types is not the only indicator for job satisfaction, but will assist in assessing individual needs.
A study done by Perloff, 1984 (cited in Avery et al., 1990), indicated that psychological tests, including personality, learning strategy and aptitude tests, have been estimated to save industry enormous costs by reducing training time, accidents and poor performance. By deploying such tests, management can match not only employee skills to the work environment, but can also match human qualities. Managers must realise that matching skills alone to job requirements is not adequate to meet the needs of the organisation.

As Dakin, Nilakant and Jensen (1994, p 3) state, “personality variables are useful predictors of job performance when carefully matched with occupation and organisation”. If personality testing is to be helpful, the employer needs at first to identify characteristics of the job that are important, then identify personality traits that are relevant to those characteristics and finally match the test results to those identifiable criteria of the job. Diagnosing personality types can be time consuming and costly for the organisation and it may be quite impracticable for a small business owner to deploy such assessments. If personality testings are not executed, for whatever reasons, the manager and employee can still discuss matching of personality to job task to improve job satisfaction and job performance. An employee usually has a fair idea of his/her personality type. During informal discussions as a part of preliminary research, many employees commented on their own personality type. For example, one community health worker remarked that she liked her job, but sometimes she felt frustrated because she is a very creative person and the job tasks did not allow for too much creativity. Another employee stressed that she loved her job (nursing) because it suited her “type A” personality that she defined as needing plenty of stimulation and variety. The social learning theorist, Bandura, states that peoples’ judgements of their capabilities to deal effectively with different situations are most central (Avery, 1990). Employees will invariably know their own capabilities, but are not necessarily given the appropriate opportunities to express them. The manager or supervisor should ensure that he/she is approachable to all staff members so that employees can discuss personal matters, such as job satisfaction.
Teamwork policies are not always appropriate for rectifying areas of neglect. Sensitive situations such as the mismatching of personalities with job tasks requires a face to face account between managers and employees. It is beneficial in one-to-one situations if the manager/supervisor is empathetic in his/her demeanour and, as stressed previously, has a self-awareness - an awareness of who they are; of their strengths, weaknesses, values and needs to help clarify the human skills that are necessary in such situations. The manager can often find themselves in a counselling situation. It can be questioned whether it is ethical and appropriate for a manager to act as a counsellor. As CCH Australia state “counselling is a part of the overall process of managing people and anyone responsible for the production, performance and welfare of another employee is involved in counselling, that is, all levels of senior management”. (1988 p 84) J.S. Livingstone, a popular management consultant in England, believes that the three following qualities are associated with successful managers -

1. the need to manage
2. the need for power
3. the capacity for empathy (cited in Stoner et al. 1985", p28)

In order to understand emotional reactions and win their cooperation of others in the organisation, it is necessary that the manager possesses a certain amount of empathy. Another common assumption (to all psychological need theories) is that hypothesised needs are universal across cultures. This assumption lacks empirical support, however the investigative research suggested that needs vary dramatically with cultures. The researcher has worked in several overseas destinations where the staff ranged from a wide variety of nationalities. Observations and discussions led to a different assumption to the one above. For example, some employees expressed a great need to practise their religious rituals during work hours, which one particular manager viewed as a hindrance to work performance. Certain religions and traditions practised amongst the employees disallowed exposure of an uncovered body in public and yet in one of the hospitality organisations investigated by the researcher, the concept of the organisation was structured so that staff had to participate in the resort productions, which in many occasions necessitated performers to be scantily clad – a situation that was most
embarrassing and sometimes humiliating for women involved because of religious beliefs. Religious and/or spiritual needs do not appear to be an integral part of Need Theory processes.

Within the same organisation, on several occasions, a non-Japanese supervisor was heard admonishing Japanese employees in front of colleagues. This practice is intolerable enough for Westerners, but humiliation displayed like this to Japanese often results in "loss of face". During informal discussions with the researcher, Japanese employees claimed that this type of action often results in depression and withdrawal and "Japanese bosses never speak to employees in a disrespectful way in front of others". Japanese people tend to internalise their emotions to these experiences whereas Western employees will tend to catharsise amongst their colleagues. Lack of respect from hierarchy seemingly created a different response from Japanese employees, as compared with other nationalities. Respect could be regarded as a higher order need within the Japanese workforce and should be adhered to appropriately. Miner (1992, p330) states "cultural values are very strong in Japan. Life outside work and work are closely melded, so that authority of the organisation extends far beyond Australia's". For this reason, showing and expecting respect in the workplace has a higher priority for Japanese than Westerners. Japanese companies, on the whole, experience highly motivated and loyal staff.

A good start for developing rapport and trust between employees and employers of different nationalities is management's simple recognition and acknowledgement of cultural and traditional needs followed by an attempt to understand them. As part of obtrusive investigation, the researcher assisted in coordinating various festivities that were organised to celebrate national and religious days pertaining to the different nationalities employed by a tourist resort. These measures were not only for the enjoyment of the guests, but it gave the relevant staff a chance to foster their egoist needs, that is, to feel important and for their own customs to be recognised and appreciated by staff and management. Needless to say, the respective employees displayed an air of pride and were highly motivated in the organising and coordinating of such events.
It is incumbent upon management to address the varied needs of different nationalities since cultural differences will have a major impact on what type of human resources will be ethnically tolerated and finally accepted by society. Theories such as those predisposed to needs work only when these needs of the targeted group are understood. Conventional managers may not be equipped to deal with the values of other cultures, since different nationalities have widely varying based conceptions of what is right and wrong. However, organisational research and training have changed from research common to the eighties, when the representative of the workforce was focussed on white male sex-segregated or university students. There has been much research in latter years pertaining to gender, ethnic and age criteria. One example of age playing an important role in organisational research is a survey executed by Waldman and Avolio (1986 - cited in Miner, 1992) found a generally upward trend in productivity with age. Rhodes (1983 - cited in Miner, 1992) found that older workers more often than not performed better and were generally more satisfied with their jobs.

Older workers are a valuable human resource to organisations because they more than often come equipped with years of knowledge in a particular field and, simply due to their age, have had more experience in dealing with people, enhancing verbal communication ability. It becomes quite apparent that older workers will probably have different needs as compared with their younger counterparts. Older workers can often experience stress and less job satisfaction because their acquired valued skills can become redundant due to advancement in technology. Therefore, it is clearly within the management’s jurisdiction to ensure that older workers have the opportunities to update their skills, which is usually accomplished in the form of staff development programs.

Women’s needs are not addressed in needs theories. Gutek and Larwood (1987 - cited in Avery, 1990) believe that women’s careers are different from men’s and are likely to remain so because of several reasons, such as; women are more involved in raising children and women are still faced with discrimination, special stresses and constraints of the job. If Gutek and Larwood’s beliefs are correct, then women’s needs will be different. For example, flexible working hours and child-minding facilities, training and counselling may have greater importance than, say, the need for power.
John Maxwell (1990) highlights that one of the key characteristics of this emerging era in the work environment is the shifting of personal needs and values. This paradigm is particularly true as more and more women enter the workforce. For example, organisations often draw attention to the importance of mentoring relationships in the workplace. Having a mentor has been linked to career advancement, higher pay and greater career satisfaction (Burke, R, McKeen, C, and McKenna, C, 1994). According to Burke et al. (1994), women bring unique competencies and needs to the mentor-protege relationship. Researchers claim that the affective, emotional aspects of the relationship are more vital for female proteges than the male counterpart and that women are more likely than men to stress caring, nurturing and teaching when describing mentoring, which are a few of the needs they wish to express.

The disabled should be addressed in need theories. Dawis, Fruehling and Oldham state “the disabled have often been denied the opportunity to use developed capabilities. Denial of opportunities affects motivation - usually negatively” (1989, p152). There is a new-found spirit of recognition evident regarding the special needs of the disabled throughout many countries. This should encourage future need theorists to include the elements of motivation particular to people who are handicapped in any form.

McClelland’s Need for Achievement. The theory was developed in 1969. McClelland suggests that achievement is an acquired need rather than innate and his research indicated that a strong need for achievement was related to how well individuals were motivated to perform their work tasks (Ribeaux and Poppleton, 1989). McClelland suggested that since the need for achievement is an acquired need, then training could increase achievement motivation. In his research he also noted that people with high achievement needs were highly motivated by competitive and challenging work situations and conversely people with low achievement needs performed poorly in similar situations (Ribeaux and Poppleton, 1989).

Hackman and Oldman (1980, p27) state “job challenge and enrichment seem to benefit most employees, but those who have high personal growth needs react more positively to it”. People who possess these needs (Maslow would describe it as self-fulfilling needs)
can display levels of poor work performance if challenging opportunities are not apparent in their workplace. Workers can become bored, indifferent and/or complacent if the challenging motivator is not available.

Challenging and competitive situations at work can include participating in problem solving and decision making processes, devising new programs, participating in innovative processes. The need for achievement in these processes becomes a reinforcer which in turn becomes a need, motivating people to seek other similar situations. Hackman et al. (1992, p24) reinforces this idea by stating that “if employees are allowed to make decisions about their work, high job demands can be stimulating and can promote active problem solving and innovation.”

One of the workers in a small business industry did not mind the repetitive work he was doing. The researcher suggests that this employee did not possess a high need for achievement since the employee recounted that he preferred a job that he did not have to think about too much and his motivation was the pay packet at the end of the week. This finding was reinforced by McClelland’s suggestion that employees with low achievement needs prefer situations of stability, security and predictability. McClelland’s Need For Achievement concept implicates the importance of matching the individual to the type of job.

John Atkinson, another theorist studying behaviour in the workplace, believes that an individual’s motivation results from

1. The strength of the basic motive or need involved
2. His/her expectancy of succeeding and
3. The incentive value attached to the goal (Stoner et al., 1985).

Atkinson realised that motivational drives vary greatly from one person to another. He deduced that individuals have three basic drives related to behaviour and performance that are the need for achievement, the need for power and the need for affiliation with others (Stoner et al., 1985).

Atkinson’s theory has been incorporated into integrative approaches to motivation, in particular, the Expectancy Valence Theory of Motivation (see p 40 ). During investigation procedures the researcher informally interviewed several employees from
different vocations who spoke of these needs to varying degrees. One employee in particular, who was working in the hospitality industry, spoke of his frustration and demotivation because he had been a supervisor in his previous job and was highly motivated in this situation. He considered himself a good leader and enjoyed the feeling of power when overseeing others. His current job, during the investigation, even though provided many challenges and varied opportunities, was not a supervisory position. He felt that he was not given an opportunity to fulfil his potential. McClelland would describe this situation as not meeting the worker's need for power, so the potential energy for this need had not been released, resulting in lowered motivation.

The many theories of motivation have, over the years, played an important part in managerial development. Although not the only solution to improved worker performance, job satisfaction and organisational profit, needs theories of motivation have provided managers of organisations some insight into human behaviour; that is, why people behave as they do and how organisation can influence workers in how they behave.

Linking Needs Awareness to the Management Process

This research so far has addressed needs of employees as one approach to motivation in the workplace. Following are two examples of needs awareness being implemented into the management process. Whilst pertaining to the same focus (motivation), these models, Expectancy Valence Model Of Motivation and The Systems Approach to Motivation, also reflect key elements of the cyclic nature of managerial process; that is, planning, implementing, evaluation and modification (ABC Television, 1994).

The Expectancy Valence Approach can be classified as an integrative approach; that is, an approach that includes two or more sets of variables in its analysis of motivation. These two approaches will aim to highlight the relationship between needs, other variables of motivation, satisfaction and performance, stressing the importance of addressing employee psychosocial needs in managerial development.
According to Lane and Siegel (1987), both these approaches to motivation are widely accepted throughout the business world, and are based on organisational psychology - the psychology of co-existing groups.

The Systems Approach to Motivation
Lyman Porter and Raymond Miles developed the Systems Approach in order to clarify to managers the different perspectives of motivation and how they can be utilised in organisations (Miner 1992). "Systems" refers to the system of forces operating on the employee so that employees' motivational forces may be understood (Stoner, 1985). Porter and Miles believe that these forces consist of three variables -
1. individual characteristics
2. job characteristics and
3. work situation characteristics

The following diagram stresses the interaction between various characteristics of the organisation.

Diagram D: Systems View of Motivation

Porter and Miles claim that individual characteristics include interests, attitudes and needs. As previously discussed, these characteristics vary from person to person, therefore individuals will be motivated in different ways. It is most important for the manager to realise this point, otherwise a motivation strategy may be in vain. It can be noted in Diagram D there exists an interaction between characteristics. Porter and Miles suggest that this interaction of forces must be considered before an individual’s motivation can be understood (Stoner, 1985). For example, a factor in work situation characteristics is the culture of the organisation - a set of values and beliefs that guide action. The culture can have a great influence on motivation, particularly concerning peer groups. The culture may be of a militant nature or a very competitive one, just to name two examples. Personal interests, attitudes and needs may be gradually changed by a strong culture in an organisation. Managers have the power to influence the culture or the climate of the organisation by providing appropriate work environments and adhering to individual characteristics, in particular, their needs, which will in turn influence behaviour to suit the level of work performance required.

The Expectancy Valence (EV) Approach was developed by David Nadler and Edward Lawler (Land and Siegel, 1987). The EV Approach, like the Systems Approach, recognises that everyone is different and situations at work do not remain static. “This approach can help managers to understand the complex relationships between motivation, performance and satisfaction”. (Leavitt, Pondy and Boje, 1989, p24) These authors also claim that the EV approach represents the most comprehensive, valid and useful approach to understanding motivation. According to Nadler and Lawler (Stoner, 1985) the EV approach is based on four assumptions about behaviour in organisations, which are as follows:

1. Behaviour is determined by a combination of forces in the individual and in the environment.
2. Individuals make conscious decisions about their own behaviour in organisations.
3. Individuals have different needs, desires and goals.
4. Individuals decide among alternative behaviours based upon their expectation
that a given behaviour will lead to a desired outcome. This approach is based on the behaviourist theories that argue that people believe or expect that if they behave in a certain way, there will be certain outcomes (rewards or punishments). Nadler and Lawler (Leavitt, 1989) suggest that each outcome has a valence (worth, attractiveness) to each individual and that outcomes have different valencies for different individuals, because valencies result from individual needs and perceptions, which differ because they in turn reflect other factors in the individual's life. For example, during the investigation process, the researcher spoke with an employee from AMP Insurance who was offered a promotion, but she reneged on this offer, even though she was very tempted to accept it. Her need for mother-hood was greater than her need for power or achievement. She was planning to start a family the following year and felt that a promotion would not be conducive to motherhood because of the added work responsibilities and expectations. Another example of this outcome is when a pension plan has greater valence for an older worker but little for a young employee on his/her first job. Nadler and Lawler also claim that behaviour also has associated with it in the individual's mind a certain expectancy or probability of success (H.J. Leavitt et al.). In order words, the individual has a perception of how difficult it will be to achieve a certain behaviour and the probability of his/her successful achievement of that behaviour. Lawler's and Nader's assumptions are summarised in the Expectancy Model of Motivation, which has three major components:

**Performance-outcome expectancy:** When an individual engages in or contemplates a certain behaviour, that individual expects certain consequences and each expected outcome will affect the individual's decision on whether or not to proceed with the contemplated behaviour.

**Valence:** The outcome of a particular behaviour has a specific valence (motivating power or value) for each specific individual. Valence is determined by the individual and is not an objective quality of the outcome itself.

**Effort-performance expectancy:** People's expectations of how difficult it will be to perform successfully will also affect their decision on whether or not to proceed. Given a
choice, an individual will tend to select the level of performance that seems to have the best chance of achieving a valued outcome.

Diagram E

The Expectancy Model of Motivation

Management in Australia. Sydney: Prentice Hall. (p556).

The Expectancy Model of Motivation (see Diagram E) suggests at boxes 2 and 3 that:

a) the probability that a given level of effort will achieve the reward is composed of two probabilities:

1. the accomplishment and

2. the probability
b) that successful task accomplishment will be followed by the anticipated reward.

Combined with abilities and traits (box 4) results in a specific performance level that leads to intrinsic rewards - which can include the feeling of accomplishment, increased self esteem and satisfaction.

Feedback (information received about a process carried out), which leads to the feeling of accomplishment, becomes a reinforcer. “You like the feeling of accomplishment, which becomes a need”. (Dawis et al., 19, p142)

Intrinsic rewards determine our needs, which, as the Content Theorists suggest, have a psychodynamic base; that is, they form part of the subconscious, which is influenced by our thoughts, fears and values and is largely a result of childhood experiences. Many psychologists believe that to attain an optimum level of motivation it is necessary to provide rewards that confirm feelings of competence and self-determination (Smithers, 1988). These feelings can be classified as one of Maslow’s self fulfilment needs. A problem faced by managers is how to determine the appropriate rewards. The Expectancy Model presents a clear implication of how managers can determine what rewards their subordinates seek by observing their reactions to different situations and by asking them what reward they desire. Lawler and Nadler’s assumption, that individuals have different needs, desires and goals, in particular human needs, is a poignant issue in management training since, as suggested in the Expectancy Model, these characteristics play an important and integral role in the overall process of motivation in the workplace.

Organisational Implications

The implications of these two models of motivational approaches are that they can be implemented into more complex models of management, where motivation is just one of many variables of effective functioning organisations.

For example, referring back to Table 1, the authors Ribeaux and Poppleton (1989) argue that there is a direct connection between the model one adopts of basic human psychology and the type of preferred management strategy in an organisation. The motivational strategy, having as its premise self actualising person, will require a Human Resources management strategy. By adopting this strategy, the manager will need to
adhere to a certain theoretical viewpoint to study the structures and functions of the organisation. In this case, Ribeaux and Poppleton see the Action Approach as a relevant theoretical standpoint. An Action Approach views the organisation as an organic entity in which understanding of its functioning is generated by continual evaluation and an intrinsic perspective. This perspective will require an understanding of human behaviour including the needs of an individual. Ribeaux and Poppleton state “The way in which the organisation is conceptualised is as a function of the meaning it has for the individuals in it” (1989, p294). Therefore, it seems, individuals’ interests, needs, values and beliefs, along with other variables, should be considered.

Lawler’s and Nadler’s Expectancy/Valence theory of motivation fits in well with the Action Approach since the E/V Approach argues that each individual’s expected outcome will affect their decision on a contemplated behaviour and Lawler and Nadler state that behaviour is determined by a combination of forces within the individual and the environment, which includes their needs. Therefore, the meaning the organisation has for the workers should largely determine the process in which the organisation can be researched and evaluated.

The last, but probably not final, progression of motivation, according to Table 1, is related to “Complex Person, where individuals are motivated by many variables such as the influences of personal needs, group needs, organisational needs, environmental issues, knowledge and information, new technology and welfare issues - just to name a few. A major task involved in management strategy is to provide various forms of assessments, evaluations and testings in order to diagnose the intrinsic and extraneous forces acting on the individual that manifests in certain behaviour. The organisational theory associated with “Complex Person” is currently being researched. The internal and external environment of the workplace is constantly changing and people’s motivation changes and becomes more and more complex, therefore some kind of continually changing “organismic” model of motivation is required.
Progressive Strategies

Understanding employees' psychological needs as part of the manager's "tool-kit" in effective management should give the manager much insight into his/her own needs in the work environment. As a follow-up to this research, the researcher might choose to undertake research that focuses on managerial needs, since this area plays just as important a part of organisational effectiveness as does adhering to employees' needs. Another area of follow-up may be in the direction of a "Management Training Module", which would aim to equip the manager with a gamut of effective managerial tools including employees' needs and motivation as just one of the equally important factors in managerial development.

Conclusion

As companies grow larger and more competitive with the rest of the world, it is too easy for employees to become lost in a realm of technology and infrastructure, policies and procedures. Workers begin to feel insignificant and alienated, reducing their motivation and work performance, and yet, without a human resource, the organisation would be rendered useless. For this reason, it is imperative that managers develop human related skills just as they have developed technical and/or conceptual skills to become effective in their approach. It will take many years of research and exploration for managers to grasp how to apply the plethora of knowledge emerging about human resource. Once this knowledge is set in the wheels of effective functioning, management processes must be continually evaluated to keep pace with the rapidly changing business world, and the sensitive dynamics affecting human behaviour.

Everyone is different, their background and status such as culture, environment, age and gender can vary and their unique perspective of their environment will have their own outcomes on their behaviour. If managers are aware that no two people are exactly alike, and can adjust their strategies of influencing employees according to the employee's individual needs, then they are well on the way towards becoming maximally effective. Understanding human behaviour in the workforce can be complex, but is paramount.
Although not the only solution to effective management, adhering to the needs of individual employees with intent to improve motivation and develop rapport, remains an integral part of the whole concept of management. Incorporating an understanding and implementation of the psychosocial motivators in the workplace can act as catalysts for continuous learning processes to occur for everyone working within the organisation. This understanding can only be achieved by the manager taking an extrinsic view of organisational functions, putting aside his or her own values and beliefs so as to clarify the whole picture.

Employees will benefit from managers improving their "human" skills, providing there is not a major dysfunction in the technical or conceptual skills area. One most pertinent benefit to be gained, according to the research, is increased job satisfaction, which will ultimately benefit the whole organisation with improved worker performance resulting in higher productivity. The research question "Can jobs become more satisfying if the manager applies psychological theories to managerial practise?", can now be answered in the affirmative and the researcher's theory "Managers can increase levels of job satisfaction and ultimately improve staff performance with a better understanding and consequent application of behavioural psychology"- has reached a valid conclusion.

The investigation into employee psychosocial needs as a factor in managerial development has highlighted the fact that managers need to organise time so that they can not only strive to improve their communication with employees to determine these needs, but also for their involvement in their own training and updating of managerial skills.

Employees, employers and consumers will ultimately benefit from these measures, through managers retaining these three important traits: Vision, Flexibility and Imagination.


Miletic, R. (1994) (Notes presented during 'Management' lecture at Cumberland College of Health Sciences.)


Appendix A

The following example of an Employee Questionnaire compiled by the researcher, D.L. Smith, contains questions pertaining to levels of job satisfaction in a large organisation.

EMPLOYEE QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Valuable Staff Member,

The following questions have been devised in order to help management obtain a better insight into employee needs in relation to their position with the organisation. Your response will be of great value in assisting with the overall improvement of our organisation. Please note that we require your name on this questionnaire as management realises the importance of addressing individual needs in order to solve any problems that may be inherent in the system. All questionnaires will remain under the jurisdiction of Human Resources Board and will remain strictly confidential.

Please ensure that all answers are a true reflection of your feelings, attitudes and beliefs. Thank you in advance.

Yours sincerely

Name ..................................................

Division .............................................

Duty ................................................
1. I experience job satisfaction

☐ most of the time
☐ it varies
☐ rarely

2. I feel that I am accepted as a valuable employee in my division

☐ most of the time
☐ it varies
☐ rarely

3. I feel that I am accepted as a valuable employee in the organisation as a whole

☐ all of the time
☐ most of the time
☐ it varies
☐ rarely
☐ never

4. How motivated are you with regard to work performance?
(mark on the number line with an X which would best represent your level of motivation (1: very poor; 10: very high motivation))

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
5. Do you think your level of salary reflects your work output?

☐ Yes
☐ No
If no, please state your reasons

6. Is there any area of your division which you believe could be improved or should be changed?

☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ Unsure
If yes, do you believe that the area(s) relate to any of the following factors - please tick:

☐ employee/employer communications
☐ decision-making, problem-solving opportunities
☐ safety standards
☐ harmony of co-workers
☐ relationships between employee(s)/employer(s)
☐ collaboration (working in partnership) with other divisions
☐ time management/flexible working hours
☐ promotions opportunities
☐ job security
☐ training
☐ other (please state)
7. In your opinion, could there be an improvement in the overall functioning of the organisation, which in turn could be beneficial for you?

☐ yes
☐ no
☐ unsure

If yes, please state your opinions

________________________________________________________________________

8. Do any of these qualities describe elements of your workplace persona?

(Please tick as many as applies)

☐ social/communicator
☐ perfectionist
☐ creative/artistic
☐ investigative/inquisitive
☐ entrepreneurial (likely to be adventurous/risk taking in business)
☐ analytical/logical
☐ organiser
☐ leadership qualities
☐ facilitator/trainer
☐ good team members
☐ preference to work alone
☐ other(s)

Please state ____________________________________________________________
If you have ticked any qualities or added your own, please indicate those qualities for which you feel you are not given enough opportunity to practise.

__________________________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________________________

9. Can you see yourself working in another position and/or division?

☐ yes
☐ no
☐ unsure

If yes or no, please state why

__________________________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________________________

10. Do you feel that you have the need to participate in any staff development and training programs?

☐ yes
☐ no

If yes, please list the areas of training and development in which you are interested.

__________________________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________________________

Thank you for your participation and assistance.
Appendix B

Whole Brain Model

Cerebral Mode Thinking Processes

Left Mode Thinking Processes

Right Mode Thinking Processes

Limbic Mode Thinking Processes

Reference: