# MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS AND THEIR IMPACT ON EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE; LITERATURE REVIEW

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**Abstract**

Motivation is widely regarded as one of the most important determinants of how well employees perform, yet the research on its sources and effects is spread across several competing theories. This paper reviews the scholarly literature on motivational factors and their impact on employee performance. It first clarifies the key constructs, then examines the major theoretical traditions: content theories (Maslow, Herzberg, McClelland), process theories (expectancy, equity, goal-setting), and self-determination theory. It then synthesizes empirical evidence on the principal motivational factors in organizations: financial rewards, recognition, job design, goals and feedback, fairness, leadership and work environment, and opportunities for growth. The review finds that performance is shaped by the interaction of intrinsic and extrinsic factors rather than by any single driver; that well-designed work and clear, challenging goals have consistently strong support; that financial rewards influence performance but can weaken intrinsic motivation when experienced as controlling; and that the relationship between job satisfaction and performance is real but moderate. Limitations of the evidence and directions for future research are discussed.

**Keywords:** work motivation, employee performance, intrinsic motivation, extrinsic rewards, job design, goal setting, self-determination theory

## 1. Introduction

Employee performance decides if organizations reach their goals and managers have always tried to improve it. Even though performance relies on ability, resources and chances it also depends on if employees want to put effort into their work and keep doing it over time. That desire is what researchers call work motivation.
Work motivation has been studied for more than a hundred years and many theories have come out. These theories sometimes. Sometimes disagree. Practitioners are faced with a question: which motivation factors really make performance better when and why? To answer that, we need to look at evidence from psychology, management and human resource research.
This paper looks at four research questions:

1. How are work motivation and employee performance described and connected?
2. What do the main motivation theories say about where motivation comes from?
3. What does the real research show about the impact of motivation factors on performance?
4. What areas are not well understood in the current research?

### 1.1 Review approach

This is a narrative literature review. It uses theoretical works and important studies and meta-analyses from psychology and management journals. The sources were selected for their influence on ideas their methods and their relevance to the research questions. The review does not follow a process so the conclusions should be read as a thoughtful summary rather than a full list of all the evidence. Also for the employee performance influence ant career development, because every employe want to grow up in there career, that is why we can say it's the same important then other motivation. Career development is supported and sponsored by individuals and organizations. From an individual's point of view, career development is an ongoing process of planning and action toward personal work and life goals (Pietrofesa &

Splete, 1975; Super, 1957). In organizational settings, career development often includes skill training, performance feedback, coaching or mentoring, and continuing education (Cummings & Worley, 2005). Performance of individual team members does not simply add up to team performance when team members are interdependent. Each team develops its own patterns of interaction, which can be classified as either cooperative or competitive. Performance goals and incentives should support desired patterns of interaction. In our day-to-day living we also often talk about being unmotivated, that is, not wanting to do something. However, when one examines these situations carefully, it usually appears that it is not so much that we are unmotivated (although it sometimes feels that way) as it is that we do not *want* to behave in a particular way. For example, a student might say "I'm totally unmotivated. I can't force myself to open the book and read the chapter tonight." If 10 minutes later the same student is asked by friends to go out for coffe, the formerly unmotivated student may now be motivated to engage in this alternative to study. Even though we feel totally unmotivated, it is actually the case that we are motivated to do something other than what we need to do (such as studying). So, the concept of motivation would seem best understood not as an on-again, off-again mechanism but rather as a constant flow of behavior that can be directed in many different ways (Birch, Atkinson & Bongort, 1974). The company was making a multimillion-dollar investment in new computer-based technology to coat the "raw" film and paper with appropriate chemical solutions. Managers were confident that the new technology—by removing various manual tasks—would enhance the safety of the process and improve operational efficiency. Ultimately, they believed that the technology would give the company a clear competitive edge. More and more companies are formulating lists of questions such as those above. This trend is reflected in a burgeoning of new popular terms, such as *empowerment, high-involvement working,* and *high-performance work teams,* that promote particular kinds of job designs. As Littler suggested in 1985, recent market changes have "forced many Western corporations to re-examine their philosophy of job design and control from a solid 'down to earth' perspective—that of profits" (p. 21). Job design is thus becoming an increasingly important topic, one that deserves fresh As Davis and Taylor (1972) observed, "The history of the origin of jobs has a powerful grip on the present, for this historical residue is the present conventional wisdom in the world of work" (p. 21). Thus, we consider the influence of historical factors on contemporary job design.attention. Work is defined in management studies as a process involvingactivities performed to accomplish organizational ends (Schermerhorn, 1993)

## 2. Key Concepts

### 2.1 Work motivation

Work motivation is usually described as the mix of inside and outside forces that start work-related actions and decide how they look, where they go, how hard they are and how long they last. Latham and Pinder (2005) in their look at the field said that motivation is about the direction, energy and staying power of effort and that it is shaped by the person, the job and the work situation.

A main difference is between external motivation. Behavior that is internally motivated is done because the person finds the activity interesting or fun. Behavior that is externally motivated is done to get something like money, a raise or approval (Ryan and Deci 2000). It is argued that organizations can influence the three types of motivation through reward systems, job design, and socialization regimes, respectively. ( Lindberg 2001) .Thus, motivation is a dependent variable impacted on by various elements of an organization's management system. In the personality literature, it is suggested that motivation is also influenced by individual personality traits. It has, for example, been suggested that the personality trait conscientiousness includes

"volitional aspects."( Barrick and Mount,1991) The question has been raised elsewhere whether "general conscientiousness is actually the motivation variable that has been so elusive in personnel psychology."(Ones et al. 1993). Some of the above-mentioned competency frameworks include achievement orientation as a competency. Achievement orientation is one of the two components of conscientiousness, i.e., a personality trait. As such, it is robust and not subject to development. Appraising a stable personality factor may make sense in the context of staffing decisions or basic, competency-based pay determination. If the appraisal purpose is to motivate or control staff, it does not seem tomakemuch sense to appraise stable input factors such as conscientiousness. The motivation of individuals is then reflected in the extent to which they display the desired behaviors. That is, motivation is inherent in the behaviors displayed across all performance dimensions. It must not be evaluated separately, as this would result in double counting and distortion of overall ratings. If motivation depends on the personality trait achievement orientation (conscientiousness) and on the organizational system configuration, those factors are also reflected in the respective displays of performance. Motivation is the concept we use when we describe the *forces acting on or within an organism to initiate and direct behavior.* We also use the concept of motivation to explain differences in the intensity of behavior. More intense behaviors are considered to be the result of higher levels of motivation. Additionally, we often use the concept of motivation to indicate the persistence of behavior. A highly motivated behavior will often be persistent even though the intensity of the behavior may be low. We have discussed motivation as if we knew what it is. As noted earlier, each of us has some intuitive feeling for what is called motivation, and yet it has proven rather difficult to define. Kleinginna and Kleinginna (1981), for example, gathered 102 defining or criticizing statements concerning motivation, so it is obvious that theorists differ in their views of motivation.

## 2.2 Employee performance

Employee performance is not one thing. Borman and Motowidlo (1993) said that task performance includes the technical tasks of a job while contextual performance includes actions that help the organization, the people and the environment such as helping others and taking initiative. Motivation can affect both. Different motivation factors may be more important for one, than the other. Performance is also often described as a result of ability, motivation and opportunity which's why motivation can improve performance but can't take the place of skills or proper resources. Performance is a consequence of employees possessing the necessary competencies and deciding to put them to best use for their organization,Performance requires that competencies are applied whenever it is necessary and in the interest of the organization. In some jobs, certain competencies may only have to be applied rarely. Other competencies may have to be displayed on an ongoing basis. Performance of individual team members does not simply add up to team performance when team members are interdependent. Each team develops its own patterns of interaction, which can be classified as either cooperative or competitive. Performance goals and incentives should support desired patterns of interaction ( Deutsch, 1949a,bb) Following Adams (1963) perceptions of fairness in pay, procedures and treatment are motivational conditions. When employees feel rewarded relative, to others. They may reduce effort withdraw or seek compensating outcomes. Fairness perceptions also influence how employees Interpret incentives and performance management systems, which means that the same way of giving rewards can encourage people in one situation and discourage them in another.

Based on a research in the Republic of North Macedonia, where in that research were surveyed workers of organizations in the private sector and based on the results that came out. This study concludes that workplace design plays a very important role in ensuring employee productivity.

From the results of this research, it becomes clear that physical environment, ergonomics, autonomy, job rotation, and social interaction all play a vital role role in determining worker performance Based on the results of the study, social interaction shown the strongest positive association with workforce productivity.( Ameti, V., Emini-Deari, E., & Maksuti, A. (2026). Increasing workforce productivity through
workplace design: empirical evidence. *e-mentor, 2*(114), 30–40)

## 3. Theoretical Perspectives

### 3.1 *Content theories*

Content theories focus on what drives people by looking at the needs and incentives that influence behavior.
• Maslows hierarchy of needs. Maslow (1943) suggested that human needs follow a hierarchy starting with physiological and safety needs then moving to belonging, esteem and finally self-actualization. Higher-level needs become important after lower ones are satisfied. The theory makes sense and has had a big impact but research does not strongly support a strict fixed order. It works better as a guide than as a strict model that predicts behavior.
• Herzbergs two-factor theory. Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1959) said that some factors like pay, supervision and working conditions are hygiene factors. These do not motivate people directly. If they are poor they cause dissatisfaction. Motivators like achievement, recognition, responsibility and the work itself actually create satisfaction and drive motivation. The theory has faced criticism over its research methods. It helped show that job content matters and inspired efforts to improve jobs through enrichment.
• McClellands acquired needs. McClelland (1961) pointed out that people develop three needs—achievement, affiliation and power—and that one of these tends to be stronger in each person. This dominant need shapes what kind of work. Rewards a person finds motivating. His idea highlights how personal experiences shape what motivates individuals. The earliest suggested antidote to Taylorism and job simplification was job rotation, the productivity benefits of which were first demonstrated by the British Industrial Fatigue Research Board (Vernon, Wyatt, & Ogden, 1924).

### 3.2 Process theories

Process theories explore how motivation happens and how it gets directed.

• Expectancy theory. Vroom (1964) said motivation depends on three things: expectancy (belief that effort leads to performance) instrumentality (belief that performance leads to rewards) and valence (how value a person places on the rewards). A review by Van Eerde and Thierry (1996) found that expectancy models connect to work performance and other outcomes though the overall effect is small. The link is stronger when studies look at individuals than groups suggesting that personal expectations matter a lot.
• Equity theory. Adams (1963) believed that people compare their inputs— effort and time—with their outcomes—like pay and recognition—and compare this ratio to others. When people feel the ratio is unfair they feel tension. May change their behavior, such as reducing effort. This theory is a foundation for research on fairness and how people feel about their pay and treatment.
• Goal-setting theory. Locke and Latham (2002) reviewed about 35 years of research. Found that specific and challenging goals lead to better performance than easy or unclear goals. This

only works if people are committed have the skills to reach the goals and get feedback along the way. Goal-setting is one of the well-supported theories in organizational research.

### 3.3 Job-design perspective

Hackman and Oldham (1976) said that five core job features—skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback—create psychological states in workers. These states boost motivation improve performance quality and increase job satisfaction. Their model shows that motivation comes directly from how work's designed, not just from pay or supervision. This gives a link, between job structure and motivation. The two-factor theory was superseded by Hackman and Oldham's job characteristics model, which has also has proved more enduring. By building on earlier work, especially that of Turner and Lawrence (1965) and Hackman and Lawler (1971), and by using additional research findings of their own, Hackman and Oldham (1975,1976,1980) identified five "core job characteristics" that relate to the motivation and satisfaction of employees:

*1. Skill variety (SV): the degree to which the job requires different skills*
*2. Task identity (TI): the degree to which the job involves completing a whole, identifiable piece of work rather than simply a part*
*3. Task significance (TS): the extent to which the job has an impact on other people, inside or outside the organization*
*4.Autonomy (AU): the extent to which the job allows jobholders to exercise choice and discretion in their work*
*5. Feedback from the job (FB): the extent to which the job itself (as opposed to other people) provides jobholders with information on their performance*

These core job characteristics were posited to produce "critical psychological states," with the first three (skill variety, task identity, and task significance) affecting the *experiencedmeaningfulness* of the work, the fourth (autonomy) influencing *experienced responsibility* for the work, and the last (feedback) relating to *knowledge of results* of work activities. Moreover, the above effects, from core job characteristics to critical psychological states to outcomes, were said to be moderated by *growth-need strength,* or the importance that an individual attaches to challenge and personal development. The effects predicted by the model were held to apply more strongly to those with high growth need strength than to those with low growth-need strength. Hackman and Oldham (1976) also suggested a way to combine the five core job characteristics to give a single index of the overall potential of a job to promote work motivation. This they called the "motivating potential score" (MPS), the proposed formula for which is as follows:

$$MPS = [(SV + TI + TS)/3] \times AU \times FB$$

The additive relationships for skill variety, task identity and task significance mean that more of one of these job characteristics can compensate for lack of another.
The division by three signifies that all three together are only as important as each of the other two job characteristics alone: that is, autonomy and feedback. Moreover, as represented by the multiplicative function, the latter two are especially important in that if either has a value of zero, then the MPS is also zero. A job with no autonomy, for example, would have no motivating potential, irrespective of its level of feedback, skill variety, task identity, or task significance.

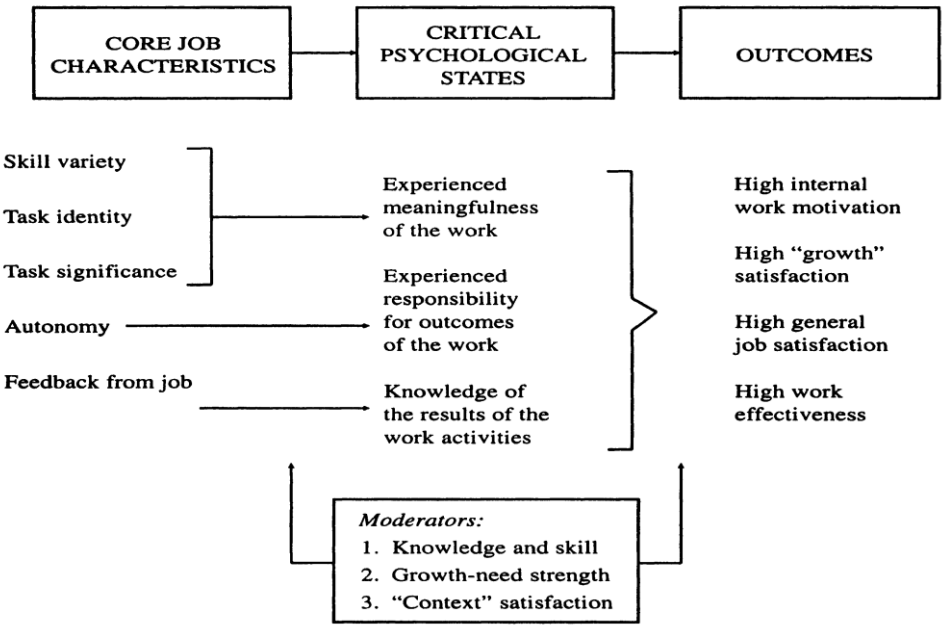
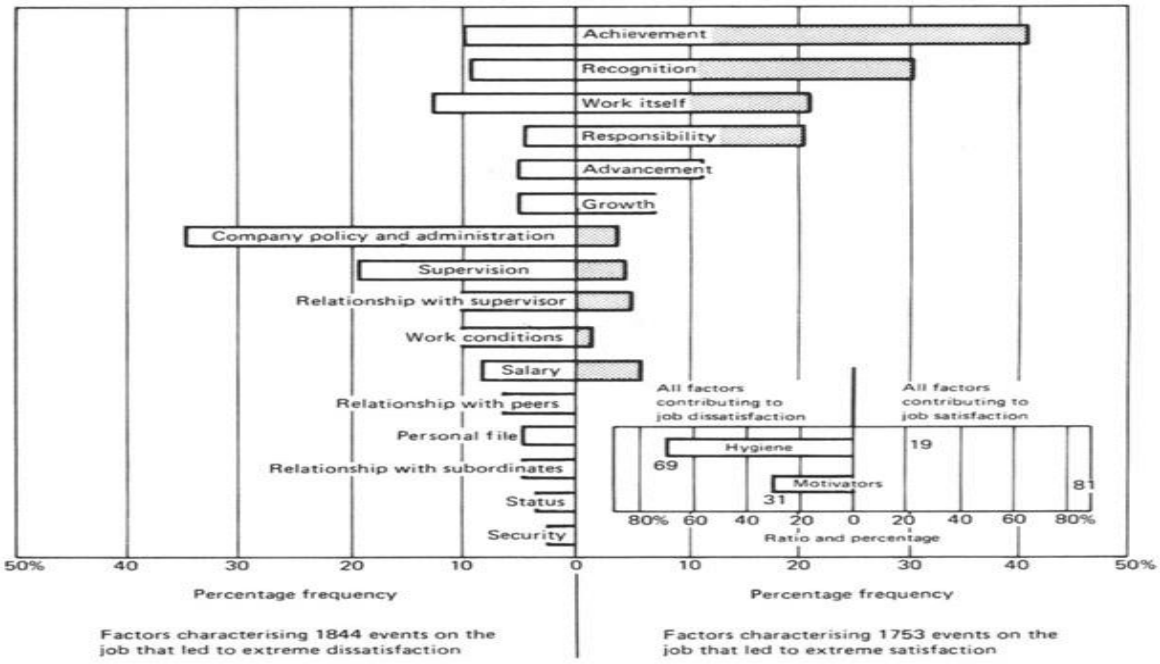



**Figure 2.1.** The Job Characteristics Model
SOURCE: From "Job Design," by G. R. Oldham, 1996, *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 11.* Copyright John Wiley & Sons Limited. Reprinted with permission.

The job characteristics model has proved to be the most widely used theoretical approach to job design yet proposed. By drawing together much previous thinking on job design in a digestible form, and by developing a set of measures covering the key variables (the Job Diagnostic Survey; Hackman & Oldham,
1975), the authors provided an attractive research package and a set of user tools. Nevertheless, the model is not without problems. Research has revealed five key limitations (for reviews, see Fried & Ferris, 1987; Roberts & Glick, 1981; Wall & Martin, 1987). Finally, the job characteristics model fails to identify the relationships among the outcome variables and contains implications for these that are at odds with known evidence. Satisfaction, internal work motivation, performance, and (originally) absence and labor turnover are grouped together as outcomes. The relationships among them remain unclear. Because all these are posited to be the consequence of the same job characteristics (and critical psychological states), it follows that they should also be positively interrelated. Even at the time the theory was first proposed, it was already established that there was little consistent relationship between job satisfaction and either performance or absence (see Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985, and Podsakoff & Williams, 1986, on this topic). Evidence for the importance of job design is substantial. Fried and Ferris (1987) reviewed research on the job characteristics model. They found support for relationships between core job characteristics and outcomes. Such as motivation, satisfaction and performance. With relationships generally stronger for outcomes than for objective performance. Humphrey, Nahrgang and Morgeson (2007) in a analysis of work design research. Found that characteristics such as autonomy, task variety and task significance. Were related to job satisfaction commitment and performance. Bakker and Demerouti (2007) add that job resources such as autonomy, feedback and social support. Foster. Engagement. Whereas excessive job demands without resources contribute to exhaustion.

## 4. Motivational Factors and Their Effects on Performance

Financial rewards and incentives Pay is the debated motivational factor. Rynes, Gerhart and Minette (2004) noted a discrepancy. Employees often rank pay than other factors when asked directly.. Their behavior suggests that pay is a stronger motivator than they admit. Stajkovic and Luthans (2003) in a analysis of behavioral management interventions found that monetary incentives, social recognition and performance feedback were all associated with improved task performance. The basic technique employed by
Herzberg is known as the critical incident technique in which workers are asked to think of a time when they felt exceptionally good or exceptionally bad about their present job or any other job they had had. These incidents were then classified and the results are shown in Diagram 1
The results show clearly that the hypothesised motivators are given more frequently, but not exclusively, when talking of satisfying incidents.




The relationship is not simply additive. However. Deci, Koestner and Ryan (1999) reviewed 128 experiments. They found that tangible rewards, those that were expected and contingent on task performance tended to undermine intrinsic motivation. Whereas verbal rewards tended to enhance it. Cerasoli, Nicklin and Ford (2014) found in a analysis. Intrinsic motivation was a predictor of performance. Incentives were a predictor of performance quantity. Intrinsic motivation was a predictor of performance quality. Gerhart and Fang (2015) similarly argued. The effects of pay on performance depend on how pay's designed and perceived. The overall implication is that incentives can raise performance. Especially when output is easily measured.. That they should be designed with their possible side effects on intrinsic motivation in mind. King (1970) and Gardner (1977), in reviewing the work undertaken on Herzberg's theory, take up the point about the ambiguous way in which Herzberg states his theoretical position.
King lists five possible interpretations of the theory, from the view that motivators contribute only to satisfaction and hygienes only to dissatisfaction (Theory 1, the 'strong' theory), to the view that motivators contribute more to satisfaction than do hygienes and vice versa for dissatisfaction (Theory 5, the 'weak' theory). Two comments are perhaps in order at this point. First, even in Herzberg's own work, hygiene factors are sometimes reported as leading to actual

satisfaction. The general stateme11t, therefore, that only motivators satisfy must be qualified. Second, Herzberg equates hygiene seekers with poor adjustment, but there is ample evidence (e.g. Kasl, 1973) that poor working conditions can also lead to bad adjustment.

### 4.1 Job Enrichment

Job enrichment (also referred to by Kelly, 1982, as "vertical role integration") can be of two broad forms. The first involves increasing employee responsibility for those decisions traditionally made by a supervisor, such as decisions about scheduling of work and the allocation of tasks. The second involves upgrading jobs to include extra skilled tasks that are not necessarily elements of supervisory work (e.g., production employees undertake basic maintenance or diagnostic work, or office staff perform more skilled tasks, such as ordering supplies). In terms of the actual process of work redesign, various principles, or "design criteria," can be used to enrich work. Recommendations from a range of sources (e.g., Aldag & Brief, 1979; Birchall, 1975; Herzberg, 1968) include the following:

**Arrange work in a way that allows the individual employee to influence his or her own working situation, work methods, and pace. Devise methods to eliminate or minimize pacing.*

- *Where possible, combine interdependent tasks into a job.*
- *Aim to group tasks into a meaningful job that allows for an overview and understanding of the work process as a whole. Employees should be able to perceive the end product or service as contributing to some part of the organization's objectives.*
- *Provide a sufficient variety of tasks within the job, and include tasks that offer some degree of employee responsibility and make use of the skills and knowledge valued by the individual.*
- *Arrange work in a way that makes it possible for the individual employee to satisfy time claims from roles and obligations outside work (e.g., family commitments).*
- *Provide opportunities for an employee to achieve outcomes that he or she perceives as desirable (e.g., personal advancement in the form of increased salary, scope for development of expertise, improved status within a work group, and a more challenging job).*
- *Ensure that employees get feedback on their performance, ideally from the task as well as from the supervisor. Provide internal and external customer feedback directly to employees.*
- *Provide employees with the information they need to make decisions.*

### 4.2 Recognition and feedback

Recognition is positively related to performance. In the behavioral management evidence reviewed by Stajkovic and Luthans (2003). It is a core motivator in Herzbergs framework. Feedback also plays a role in goal-setting theory.. In the job characteristics model. Where it provides knowledge of results. Recognition appears to work in part by satisfying the need for competence and esteem.. Verbal praise. As noted above. Is less likely than rewards to undermine intrinsic motivation (Deci et al., 1999). In addition to the feedback people receive from the job itself (one of the core work features in the job characteristics model), feedback from supervisors or coworkers is likely to be important (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). This type of feedback has been found to reduce role ambiguity (Sawyer, 1992). For many individuals, achievement sooner or later requires external validation (recognition) if it is to be sustained. For example, the researcher who has his research reports consistently rejected by editors of learned journals, rapidly becomes discouraged and his confidence (self-esteem) is likely to suffer. Thus, success produces a series of externally validated rewards,

all of which have the effect of increasing the individual's selfesteem, where failure leads to a reduction in feelings of selfesteem. In many industrial and commercial organisations, as well as in cademic life, success is often externally signalled by promotion.
Promotion does not universally signal recognition of achievement, however, as in some organisations promotion may result from seniority or length of stay in the organisation rather than from achievement on the job. Locke (1976) argues that virtually all employees value being praised for their work by supervisors and colleagues. He found recognition to be one of the single most frequently cited events causing either satisfaction or dissatisfaction, and points out that those using Herzberg's theoretical framework frequently found recognition to be a major source of satisfaction. Praise has the effect of increasing the self-esteem of the individual and also gives feedback as to how he is progressing.
Feedback on job performance is, of course, essential if the individual is to have a chance of modifying his behaviour in the light of his past performance. If one does not know that one is screwing bolts too tight because no one is feeding this information back, any improvement in performance is impossible, so that the individual has no chance to develop his capacities and skills, which will lead in turn to recognition.

### 4.3 Goals and performance expectations

Goal setting has been among the consistent supports of any motivational intervention. Locke and Latham (2002) reported that challenging goals. Improve performance across tasks, settings and countries. By directing attention mobilizing effort increasing persistence and encouraging strategy development. The effect is conditional. Goals that are too difficult imposed without commitment or set for tasks without adequate learning support. Did you know that your job satisfaction soars when you are achieving the goals you set yourself? In time and with practice, we want goal-setting to become a core part of the new proactive you. Can be counterproductive.
Job satisfaction and job performance are posited to be joint outcomes of job design in the job characteristics model, yet this does not account for findings that these outcomes are typically not empirically associated (Podsakoff & Williams, 1986). Nor does it account for the well-established finding that there are stronger and more consistent relationships between job redesign and job satisfaction than there are between job redesign and productivity. We therefore need a better understanding of the latter relationship, especially the underlying mechanisms.
*A Motivational Mechanism.* The most common assumption is that job redesign promotes better performance via a motivational mechanism: that is, by encouraging people to "work harder" (Campion & McClelland, 1993; Locke & Henne, 1986; Wall & Martin, 1987). For example, one is that performance is enhanced because people in enriched jobs are more motivated and therefore less inclined to behave in dysfunctional ways, such as by avoiding boring tasks (Berlinger et al., 1988). Another is that job satisfaction (hence motivation and performance) is enhanced because employees in enriched jobs feel that they are making better use of their skills (Cordery et a l , 1992).
*Additional Mechanisms (Kelly's Twin-Track Model).* The dominance of the assumed motivational pathway, however, was questioned by Kelly (1992), who outlined a series of associations that need to exist if the specific motivational mechanism posited by job characteristics theory is to hold
Let’s look at SMART goal setting, which is a sure-fire way of setting outcome-driven goals.

- Identify and write down your goal. What is the outcome you want to achieve from this goal?
- Does your goal fit the SMART criteria? SMART is…
- **Specific –** can you pinpoint the outcome you want to achieve?

- **Measurable –** can you measure this outcome objectively? What are the key milestones you need to hit?
- **Achievable –** is it a realistic goal, given your skills and resources?
- **Results-oriented –** what is the key function of your goal?
- **Time-bound –** do you have a timeframe or deadline allocated to the goal?

### 4.4 Job satisfaction

The idea that happy workers do better's common but has a complicated history in research. Judge, Thoresen, Bono and Patton (2001) did a study that looked at how job satisfaction and job performance're connected and found that the average link was about.30, which shows a real but not very strong connection. Since satisfaction and performance both have causes and since one can affect the other in both directions satisfaction should be seen as one of many things that help performance, not the only thing that guarantees it. Thus Locke ( 1976) defines job satisfaction as 'a pleasurable or positive emotional state, resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences'. There is no one agreed definition, however, and Wanous and Lawler ( 1972) list nine different operational definitions, each based on a different theoretical orientation and each resulting in different measures. The major difference between definitions is in terms of the different ways in which aspects of job satisfaction are combined. When the relationship between job satisfaction for different aspects of the job and overall job satisfaction is analysed, considerable differences in the extent of the correlation are found. Wanous and Lawler also found three of the nine measures of satisfaction correlated significantly with absenteeism, whilst others did not. Despite the diversity of measures, one measure, the Cornell Job Descriptive Index (JDI), is regarded by many workers as the most carefully developed instrument for measuring job satisfaction (Smith, Kendall and Hulin, 1969). The scale consists offive sub-scales for pay, promotion, people, supervision, and work, and each scale consists of a number of items. Present-day theories of job satisfaction have been divided by Campbell *et al.* (1970) into two categories, content theories and process theories. Content theories give an account of the factors which influence job satisfaction; Maslow's (1943) Needs Hierarchy Theory and its development by Herzberg into the twofactor theory of job satisfaction will be considered under this heading. Process theories try to give an account of the process by which variables such as expectations, needs and values interact with the characteristics of the job to produce job satisfaction. Equity theory, for example, argues that job satisfaction occurs when we compare what we put into a job and the rewards we receive with those of others, and find that we are equitably treated.

*Maslow's .Needs Hierarchy Theory ;*

Perhaps the most popular account of job satisfaction at present is that job satisfaction involves fulfilling the individual's needs. of the first needs theories is that of Maslow (1943), who postulated a needs hierarchy, with needs divided into those of a lower order and those of a higher order.
The needs are (1) basic physiological needs, (2) safety and security needs, (3) social (affection) needs, (4) esteem needs, and (5) self-actualisation needs.
Whilst the theory has great intuitive appeal, as Locke ( I976) points out, it has some major drawbacks. First and foremost, there is no evidence for this hierarchy of needs, intuitively appealing as it might be. Those in lower level occupations are likely to be motivated by lower order needs such as pay and security whereas those in higher level occupations who have these basic needs fulfilled are more interested in fulfilling higher order needs (see Centers and Bugental, Ig66). Related to Maslow's needs hierarchy theory is Herzberg's famous two-factor

theory of job satisfaction. Herzberg distinguishes two classes of factors involved in job satisfaction. The relationship between success in a task and satisfaction has been examined by Locke ( 1965). He notes the difficulty in deciding upon the cause-effect relationship, particularly if one asks individuals after the event how satisfied they were with the task. The most successful might report themselves satisfied because of their success, when in fact, it was their enjoyment of the task which led to greater effort and hence greater success (achievement).

### 4.6 Intrinsic versus motivation

Studies that compare intrinsic and extrinsic motivation show that they have different effects on work results. Gagné and Deci (2005) said that when people are motivated by themselves they get results than when they are forced. Cerasoli et al. (2014) Found that being interested in the work itself can lead to performance even when there are rewards and how well the two work together depends on how closely the rewards are connected to the work. Kuvaas, Buch, Weibel, Dysvik and Nerstad (2017) found that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation have links to how employees do and feel about their jobs with intrinsic motivation usually having better links to performance and attitude. Overall the results show that companies should not use rewards instead of work that is meaningful. This job satisfaction measure was developed by Warr, Cook and Wall (1979) as a robust instrument that is easily completed by employees at all levels and is psychometrically sound

### 4.7 Leadership, work environment and growth opportunities

Supportive leaders a good work atmosphere and chances to learn and move up are often mentioned in the research as things that keep motivation going. Self-determination theory sees them as help for being independent feeling capable and connecting with others while the job demands-resources model sees them as resources that help with the job (Bakker and Demerouti 2007; Ryan and Deci 2000). Their effect, on performance is usually not direct. Happens through satisfaction being engaged and feeling committed.

| Motivational factor | Main mechanism | Strength of evidence for performance |
|---|---|---|
| Specific, challenging goals with feedback | Directs effort, increases persistence | Strong (Locke and Latham, 2002) |
| Job design (autonomy, variety, significance) | Meaningfulness, responsibility, internal motivation | Strong for motivation and attitudes; moderate for performance (Fried and Ferris, 1987; Humphrey et al., 2007) |
| Financial incentives | Instrumentality, valued outcomes | Supported, especially for quantity; may reduce intrinsic motivation if controlling (Stajkovic and Luthans, 2003; Deci et al., 1999) |
| | | |
| Recognition and feedback | Competence, esteem | Supported (Stajkovic and Luthans, 2003) |
| Fairness | Equity comparisons | Theoretically strong; effects depend on context (Adams, 1963) |

| Motivational factor | Main mechanism | Strength of evidence for performance |
|---|---|---|
| Job satisfaction | Positive attitude toward work | Moderate (Judge et al., 2001) |
| Autonomy-supportive environment | Basic need satisfaction | Supported across studies (Gagné and Deci, 2005) |

Three broader conclusions follow.

First motivation is not driven by a factor; the best way to predict performance is by looking at many factors together rather than, at just one.
Second, the design of work and the setting of goals are the reliable levers to influence motivation; rewards have a weaker more conditional effect.
Third perceptions matter a deal: employees' interpretation of a reward a goal or a management practice often determines whether it motivates them.
Career development  A career development intervention is a deliberate action aimed at enhancing some aspects of a person's career, including influencing the career decision-making process, clarifying career goals, and skill-building activities (Sampson, Lenz, Reardon, & Peterson, 1999).
Major interventions may include the following:
• *Career Guidance or Career?* Planning one's career is a broad activity encompassing many strategies. It has been used traditionally as a rubric under which all career development interventions were initiated.
• *Career Education*. This is a systematic attempt to influence career development of participants through various types of educational strategies, including providing occupational information, infusing career-related concepts into the academic curriculum, and offering training devoted to the study of careers interests or choices.
• *Career Counseling*. This is a service provided to a single client or group of clients who come seeking assistance with career choices or career adjustment issues.
• *Career Coaching*. This is a term used in business and industry to signify managers' efforts in facilitating the career development of employees.
Career coaching efforts are directed at helping employees identify opportunities that exist within their work settings and to prepare them for these careers. Therefore, developing career is one of the main tasks through which a person may improve the total quality of his or her life. ( William J. Rothwell, Robert K. Prescot, 2012). There are at least two broad implications of work redesign for career development (Oldham & Hackman, 1980). The first is that some employees might be overstretched by their new jobs, resulting in raised anxiety, absence, or other negative outcomes (Turner & Lawrence, 1965). Such reactions can be temporary, arising because years of simplified jobs can engender among employees a sense  of "learned helplessness" and passivity (Argyris, 1964; Parker, 1996). Consideration also needs to be given to employees who are unable to adapt to group forms of working, and the provision of counseling has been suggested as a minimum requirement (Neumann et al., 1995). People need to reconceptualize their view of careers away from "hierarchical progression"—a change in mentality that is difficult to achieve and that will certainly require reward systems that encourage sideways development (Lawler, 1990; Mohrman et al., 1995). Gruneberg, Startup and Tapsfield ( 1974a), for example, in a study of university teachers' satisfaction with promotion procedures, found promotion procedures to be the aspect of their job with which they were least satisfied, a finding confirmed in a study of American academics by Nicholson and Miljus (1972). In the study by Gruneberg *et al.* (1974), only 20 per cent of senior lecturers were actually satisfied with the very promotion procedures from which they had benefited.

## 6. Critical Discussion

### 6.1 Strengths of the literature

The literature has the advantage of a range of theories decades of testing and several meta-analyses that allow conclusions to be made beyond individual studies. Goal-setting and job-design research in particular have gathered a lot of evidence from laboratory and field settings.

### 6.2 Limitations

- Theoretical fragmentation. Theories are often tested on their integrated models remain limited (Latham and Pinder 2005).
- Measurement of performance. Studies use supervisor ratings, self-ratings and objective output which can lead to results and ratings may be biased.
- Causality. Many studies are correlational and cross-sectional reverse causality, such as high performance leading to higher satisfaction cannot be ruled out.
- Context and culture. Much of the evidence comes from Western often large-organization contexts and the relative importance of motivators such as pay, security or recognition may differ across cultures and economic conditions.
- Individual differences. Needs and values vary among employees. Organizational practices often assume a uniform response.
- Short-term focus. Laboratory and short-term field studies may not capture long-term effects for example of incentives, on motivation.

## 7. Implications for Practice

1. Design meaningful jobs. Increase autonomy, variety, significance and feedback wherever possible before relying on rewards.
2. Set challenging accepted goals and provide regular feedback.
3. Use incentives carefully. Tie rewards to valued outcomes make criteria transparent and avoid designs that feel controlling so that motivation remains genuine.
4. Recognize work promptly and specifically because recognition fuels motivation.
5. Build fairness into pay, appraisal and promotion decisions and explain the reasoning because fairness drives motivation.
6. Support managers, since supervisors shape how motivational practices are experienced and support helps maintain motivation.
7. Recognize differences and where feasible tailor motivators to employee needs.

## 8. Directions for Future Research

- experimental field studies that clarify the causal effects of motivational practices on performance to strengthen motivation research.
- Research in studied contexts, including small and medium-sized enterprises and transitional economies to test the generalizability of Western findings on motivation.
- Studies of how remote and hybrid work change the conditions for autonomy, relatedness and feedback which affect motivation.
- Integrative models that combine content, process and self-determination perspectives to better understand motivation.
- Research on the interaction between incentives and intrinsic motivation over time frames.

• Work on the effects of digital performance monitoring and algorithmic management, on motivation.

## Conclusion

The research shows that employee performance is shaped by a mix of factors not just one single force. Job design that gives meaning goals that are both clear and challenging fair treatment, regular recognition and supportive work environments all have support in the evidence. Financial rewards can help boost performance. They must be designed carefully. If not they can actually reduce motivation. Job satisfaction does relate to performance. It doesn't explain performance fully on its own. For organizations the key takeaway is that motivation depends on how work's structured and how employees experience daily practices. For researchers the focus should be on causal evidence more integrated theories and broader context, in their work.

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