

Basic Concepts of Motivation with Reference to Public Servants

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***Abstract:** Motivation is gaining more popularity in this competitive world. Because organisations are facing tougher competition and challenges from their counterparts for survival and effective employee motivation enables them to ensure survival by improving productivity. Motivating public servants is important as well as difficult as their separate job nature and commitment to the society should be taken into consideration while formulating and implementing motivational programmes. In this article, attempts have been made to critically analyse the major theories of motivation, the importance of motivating public servants giving due emphasis on their distinct job nature and mindset.*

1.0 Introduction

The importance of productivity and motivation are ever increasing in this globalised world. It is argued that most of the productivity improvement measures are characterised by restructuring of the organisation; rationalising the product/service range; introducing financial incentive schemes; introducing more sophisticated technology to reduce staff; redesigning products and/or processes; outsourcing/sub-contracting; implementing a quality improvement programme; conducting of productivity audits; and changing the management information system. But no measure for productivity improvement can achieve success without incorporating motivational issues like recognition for achievement, work environment, fairness in treatment etc (Baines, 1997).

2.1 What is Motivation?

Most of the human resource management strategies are ultimately aimed to the optimal utilisation of individual and group capabilities towards the achievement of organisational objectives (Hodgetts & Luthans, 2003). Motivation refers to a number of forces that energise, direct and sustain workers' efforts (Bateman and Snell, 2004). This willingness to act, and to behave is called motivation (Ratnam & Srivastava, 1999). Motivation influences the intensity, duration and direction of an action- coupled with experience and ability that leads to effective performance (Jindal-Snape and Snape, 2006). Motivation theories for the workplace emerged during the middle of the twentieth century. The main theme of the theory was

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that managers should find a way to take workers' 'minds and hearts' along with them for achieving organisational goals (Crawther & Green, 2004).

Now a days, most people including practitioners and scholars have developed and defined 'motivation' in their own ways. The common words found in most of the definitions include desires, wants, wishes, aims, goals, needs, drives, motives, and incentives. The term 'motivation' originates from Latin word *movere*, which means 'to move'. The mentioned meaning of motivation is found in the following definition: motivation is a process which starts with physiological or psychological deficiency (need) which activates a behaviour or drive which is aimed at a goal or incentive (Luthans, 2002). Therefore, the key to understand the motivational process lies in the meaning of, and relationships and various factors such as needs, drives and incentives. A physiological or psychological imbalance creates needs (Hodgetts & Luthans, 2003). For example, when cells of the body are in short of food and water or a person is deprived of other people (friends or companions), physiological needs emerge. Sometimes such needs exist without deficiency. In order to alleviate needs drives or motives are set up. A psychological drive is a deficiency with direction. Physiological and psychological drives are action oriented. They provide energising thrust towards reaching the incentives. Incentives are at the end of the motivation cycle. Anything that will alleviate a need and reduce a drive is incentive. The attainment of an incentive will try to restore physiological or psychological strength and thus reduce or cut off drive (Luthans, 2002). Motivation originates from a systematic analysis of how personal, task and environmental characteristics influence behaviour and job performance. Motivation is not a fixed trait and it refers to a dynamic internal state resulting from the influence of personal and situational factors. Motivation may change with changes in personal, social or other factors. It is argued that motivation affects behaviour, rather than performance (Nicholson, 1995).

2.2 Basic Principles of Motivation

Motivation is largely determined by the differences in the total amount of potential energy; basic needs or motives of individuals are considered the valves or outlets which channelise and regulate the flow of potential energy from this reservoir; most adults may have the same set of motives or energy outlets within a given socio-cultural system, and they differ

significantly in relative strength or readiness of various motives; actualisation of motives is determined by the specific situation in which a person finds himself/herself; different motives are originated from the characteristics of different situation; each motive leads to a different type of behaviour; and different motives are actualised by changing the nature of the situational characteristics, resulting in the energising of different behaviour patterns (Ratnam & Srivastava, 1999).

It is argued that if an employee lacks ability, appropriate and sustainable training can be imparted to that employee to improve individual and organisational productivity (Bateman & Snell, 2004). If there is an environmental problem, ensuring work-friendly environment to promote higher performance is the remedy (Dunham, 1984). However, if motivation is the problem, the solution is more complex as well as more challenging. In case of motivational problems, the best source of information is the employee. Employees must be asked on a regular basis what motivates and de-motivates them to work. Their responses are likely to lead the employer to redesign jobs, increase pay, change the working environment, or give more credit for better performance. But in many cases, managers avoid the assumption that what motivates them as well as their employees (Wessler, 1984).

It is revealed that there has been a paradigm shift in the outlook of employees regarding the importance of motivating factors. In 1946, the top motivator selected by employees revealed their need to be appreciated for work done. On the other hand, interesting work was the top concern in 1980 and 1990s. The focus was on changing the job to make it more interesting by 1980s. A national random sample (UK) of 845 job holders by the non-profit Public Agenda Foundation confirms this paradigm shift. Its findings indicate an impressive shift in attitudes towards work, from work as a means of survival to work as a means to enhance self-development and self-expression (Wiley, 1997). It is argued that initiatives designed to enhance job performance by increasing employee motivation may not be successful if the link between job performance and an employee's efforts is weak (Wiley, 1999).

Motivation theories are broadly categorised into two major groups, namely, content theories (need theory, two-factor theory, achievement theory etc.) and process theories (reinforcement theory, expectancy theory, equity theory etc.) (Tosie, et al., 1994).

2.3 Content Theories

(a) Maslow's Need Hierarchy

It is argued that all the motivation theories have been constructed on the need hierarchy developed by Abraham Maslow. He divided general human needs into five groups. The first or lowest level was physiological needs like food, clothing, shelter etc. The second and third were safety and social (acceptance, friendship) respectively. The fourth level was esteem (self-worth, respect from others). The final level was self-actualisation- full achievement of one's potential. According to Maslow, the achievement of this need was not easy. It is argued that one need appears after the previous level need has been fulfilled (Crowther & Green, 2004). It is recognised by psychologists that needs have a certain priority. As the more basic needs are satisfied, a person then goes for the higher needs. If the basic needs are not fulfilled, they claim priority, and efforts to satisfy the higher needs must be postponed. It is observed that although the exact order of priority may vary somewhat from person to person, the above catalogue of needs represents the normal order of priority for most people. Maslow's work has been termed 'complex' by some writers (Dye et al., 2005). Maslow's need hierarchy has been criticised for its bias towards western mindset that contrasts eastern culture (Nevis, 1983). For example, Chinese hierarchy of needs consists of belonging (social), psychological, safety and self-actualisation (Hodgetts & Luthans, 2003).

Maslow's need hierarchy is being used to guide the implementation of Customer Relations Management systems (Gentle, 2003) or to explain the limitation of money as an insufficient motivating tool for information systems (IS) professionals (Santosus, 2004). It is also used to support various perspectives for change management (Lucey et al., 2004), or to explain why industrial societies have discontinued to use certain manufacturing and materials practices (Luke, 2004). It is a tool used to measure the potential results of shifting immigrant demographics and the subsequent impact on a nation's workforce culture (Nicholson-Lord, 2004), or to theoretically distinguish between cultural populations in psychological studies (Kickul et al., 2004) and motivational differences (Kuo & Chen, 2004). It is an effective tool for the comparison of the main streams of literature concerning corporate reputation (Berens & von Riel, 2004), or to lower recidivism in convicted felons (Jones, 2004). It has

been used to define customer needs in marketing (Ritson, 2004), or to segment individuals based on those needs (Pincus, 2004), as well as to explain the mechanics of motivation to senior management personnel (Senter, 2004) and to facilitate the motivation of employees from a specific generation i.e. Gen Y workers (HR Focus, 2004).

(b) Herzberg's Two Factor Theory

Frederick Herzberg argued that an employee's motivation to work is best understood when the respective attitude of that employee is understood. In fact, the internal concept of attitude which originates from a state of mind, when probed, should reveal the most pragmatic information for managers regarding the motivation of workers (Tietjen & Myers, 1998). In his two-factor theory he found that motivating and de-motivating factors at workplace are not the same. He identified recognition; achievement; possibility of growth; advancement; responsibility; work itself as motivators. Issues identified as 'hygiene factors' are salary; interpersonal relations - supervisor; interpersonal relations - subordinates; interpersonal relations - peers; supervision - technical; company policy and administration; working conditions; factors in personal life; status; job security (Tietjen & Myers, 1998). The existence of motivators motivates people but their absence does not de-motivate people much. On the other hand the existence of 'hygiene factors' do not provide high motivation but their absence de-motivate employees seriously (Tosi, et al., 1994)). It is argued that the opposite of job satisfaction is not dissatisfaction, but rather a simple lack of satisfaction. On the other hand, the opposite of job dissatisfaction is not satisfaction, but rather "no dissatisfaction". For instance, consider the hygiene factor, work conditions. If the air conditioner breaks in the middle of a hot summer day, workers will be greatly dissatisfied. However, if the air-conditioner works throughout the day as expected, the workers will not be particularly satisfied by taking notice and being grateful (Herzberg, 1968). Recent research work also agrees with Herzberg's proposition that, beyond a minimum threshold, money does not motivate (Bassett-Jones, 2005). Herzberg's assertion that money was more likely to act as a hygiene factor was termed 'mystifying'. Although there has been some support for Herzberg's thesis, most empirical studies contradict the predictions based on his theory. Needs for salary, recognition and responsibility, for example, have been shown to operate both as motivators and as hygiene factors (Maidani, 1991). It was concluded that

there was no substantial support for a so-called differential role for money in leading to job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction (Opsahl & Dunnette, 1966). In response to criticism, Herzberg differentiated hygiene factors and motivators. He argued that movement (hygiene factors) stems from the animal nature of the humankind - the built-in drive to avoid pain from the environment as well as the learned needs that become conditioned as a result of the need to serve basic biological needs. To reinforce the distinction, He termed motivation as an internal self-charging battery. For an employee to be motivated, the energy or desire to move must come from within. In fact motivators are internally generated drives, not externally stimulated incentives (Bassett-Jones, 2005). Therefore, in order to extract optimal performance from the workers, they (workers) must be given recognition so that their internal drives are generated from within themselves (Hodgetts & Luthans, 2003).

(c) Achievement Theory

In the achievement theory, McClelland and associates focused on the need for achievement. Recently, the power motive has been emphasized much (Tosie, et al., 1994). Motive and the force of motives on behaviour are the foundations of this theory. Motives are defined as "effectively toned associated networks arranged in a hierarchy of strength and importance in a person (McClelland, 1965). There is a close relation between the level of achievement and entrepreneurial success because high achievement motives play a 'one man game' that need not involve other people (McClelland, 1975).

One of the criticisms of these theories is that they are based on the assumption that everyone's psyche works in the same way and is motivated or de-motivated by the same factors (Crowther & Green, 2004).

2.4 Process Theories

(a) Reinforcement Theory

Reinforcement is based on the correlation of extrinsic rewards to behaviour. Rewards like pay, benefits, praise and recognition are given when a person performs well. The effect of extrinsic rewards on people's intrinsic motivation has been questioned. Intrinsic motivation is termed as the drive to perform those results from a person's internalised values and beliefs that the task is rewarding in or of itself (Tosie, et al., 1994). It is also argued that the use of extrinsic rewards might have a negative effect

on intrinsic motivation (Staw, 1976). Because, if a person is rewarded for an intrinsically motivated task the value of the motivation will decrease (Tosie, et al., 1994).

It is argued that people's (employees) behaviour is encouraged or discouraged by four consequences of behaviour. These are: positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement, punishment and extinction. The person gains something positive and avoids something negative from positive reinforcement and negative reinforcement and thus motivated to behave in a particular way. Therefore, these are positive for the person concerned. On the other hand punishment and extinction have a negative impact on the behaviour of that person. Therefore, these are negative reinforcement (Bateman & Snell, 2004).

It is observed that managers very often reinforce the wrong behaviors (Kerr, 1975). For example, instead of motivating the executives to create real value to the stock price managers often motivate them manipulate these (Pearlstein, 2002).

It is suggested that behaviours to be reinforced and discouraged must be identified by the managers in objective manners. The reward system has to be supportive towards the achievement of the strategic ends of the organisation (Lawler, 2000). Creativity of the managers is vital for the successful reinforcement of employees' behaviour (Weber, 1990). In some organisations, people are awarded for recruiting talented people (Leonard, 2000). It is informed that non-monetary rewards such as intellectual challenge, greater responsibility, autonomy, recognition, flexible benefits and staff involvement in decision making are used as effective motivation tools by creative and innovative managers. Such tools are more effective in reinforcing employee behaviour when there is scarcity in pay and promotion (Bannett, 1990).

(b) Expectancy Theory

Expectancy theory (introduced by Vroom and developed by Lawler) is based on comparing outcomes with preferences, based on behaviour. People will expect certain outcomes (reward) if they perform in certain ways. It is involved in predicting people's behaviour and the assumption that people's behaviour will be thought-through and rational. Lawler stated that motivation would be possible if a person can combine his or her expectation to complete the task and the value attached personally to the task by him or her (Crowther & Green, 2004).

(c) Equity Theory

According to the equity theory, people are motivated for maintaining fair relationships with others and for rectifying unfair relationships by making those fair (Baron, 1983). Motivation is explained by interpersonal comparisons rather than intra-personal comparisons (Tosie, et al., 1994). Three key factors are used to explain and understand motivation. These are inputs, outcomes and references (Adams, 1965). It was found that morally mature people were more likely to respond to inequitable situations (Vecchio, 1981).

(d) Goal Setting Theory

In goal setting theory, it is assumed that conscious goals within the people energise them and their thoughts and behaviours are directed towards the desired goals by those conscious goals (Locke, 1968). While setting goals for subordinates, managers always keep it in mind that goals have impact on the mind-set of the employees. In order to ensure effective employee motivation by setting goals, the following conditions should be fulfilled by the managers: the goals set by the managers should be acceptable to the employees; the goals should be challenging but attainable; the goals should be specific quantifiable and measurable (Bateman & Snell, 2004).

It is argued that expectancy, equity, goal setting and reinforcement theory have resulted in the development of a simple model of motivational alignment. It is suggested by the model that once employees' needs are identified, and organisational objectives are defined, the next step is determining rewards and linking these to behaviours that both serve the organisational objectives as well as satisfy employee needs. If these are aligned properly, high motivation will result in; if poorly aligned, the outcome will be low motivation. However it is observed that the model fails to separate motivators from movers (hygiene factors). As a result, many organisations become over-reliant on extrinsic rewards that absolve managers of any responsibility to enrich work by creative and imaginative job design or recognition of individual growth needs (Bassett-Jones, 2005).

2.5 Why to Motivate Public Servants?

It is suggested that public sector managers need to focus more attention on employee development and motivation if they are to achieve high levels of performance. Transforming HR in the Public Sector is based on continuing research investigating the challenges public sector

organisations face in transforming their HR function because the public sector has to manage a significant change agenda. At the same time it is required to deliver "more for less" by making substantial reductions in manpower (CIPD, 2007). Moreover, Public sector organisations appear to be the place to work with employees generally more trusting and feeling more satisfied, committed and motivated than their private sector counterparts. A recent survey into employee attitudes from the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD) reveals that motivation amongst public sector employees has been steadily increasing over the years and employees are now 8% more motivated than private sector staff (CIPD, 2004).

2.6 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)

It is believed by many management thinkers that public sector employees are motivated by a sense of service, which is not found among private sector employees (Houston, 2000; Perry & Wise, 1990). Employees of government-run organisations are seen as motivated by a concern for the community and a desire for serving the public interest, and are more likely to be characterized by an ethic that places more importance on intrinsic rewards than extrinsic rewards (Crewson, 1997). The concept of public service motivation is used for explaining the different outlook of public and private employees regarding their jobs (Perry & Wise, 1990). It can be guessed that public employees will place a high value on pro-social job behaviour such as organisational citizenship behaviour - OCB (Kim, 2006).

It is observed that there is substantial support for the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB, and between organisational commitment and OCB (Murphy et al., 2002; Schappe, 1998). However, in the public sector, public service motivation might be more predictive of OCB compared with either job satisfaction or organisational commitment (Kim, 2006).

It is informed that the concept of public service motivation developed by the American academic James Perry is one of the most widely known ideas, which addresses these issues. His work is based on that of Elmer Staats who described public service as a concept, an attitude, a sense of duty and a sense of public morality. This public service ethic Perry and Wise chose to describe as 'public service motivation' or 'an individual's

predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations'. These motives are described as psychological deficiencies or needs, which can be satisfied by working in the public sector. Again building on Knoke and Wright-Isak's work Perry distinguishes three analytically distinct categories of motives - rational, norm-based and affective. Rational motives are grounded in individual utility maximisation, norm-based motives refer to actions generated by efforts to conform to values and affective motives refer to triggers that are grounded in emotional responses to different social contexts. Perry proceeded to identify six needs or motives. The first (rational) motive is the attractiveness of politics and policymaking; the second, (normative) motive is commitment to the public interest; the third (normative) motive is a sense of civic responsibility. The fourth, fifth and sixth motives are social justice (normative) compassion (normative) and self-sacrifice (emotive) (Horton and Hondeghem, 2006). Perry subsequently reduced these six factors to four in the process of operationalising the concept. The four are, the attractiveness of politics and policymaking; involvement with the public interest and civic responsibility; compassion; and self-sacrifice. Perry went on to develop his model in later articles and to test its theoretical merits (Perry, 2000).

It is suggested that having public employees with a high level of public service motivation is important for enhancing OCB among public sector employees. The ethos of service to a public good is a distinct feature of public service officials. They feel greater responsibility for the society compared with their private sector counterparts. Sometimes, metaphoric terms are used in this regard. For example, a chief executive claims that he/she hangs on to a thin silver line (symbolising) a public good and ethic; an ideal that is worth pursuing, the ideal of service. Another chief executive uses a metaphor of "lighting the flame" both within and through her staff and then to the wider community through her staff. Some of them prefer to be known as advocates for the stakeholders (workers and beneficiaries). The other issues related to the public service ethos include importance of ideals, ethics, integrity, transparency, and the need to be a role model to the peers and subordinates (Olsson & Pringle, 2004).

It gives several implications for public sector managers. Selection and retention of public employees with high public service motivation is important. Government organisations need to examine applicants with the

perspective of public service motivation in the selection process. Effective employee orientation and education programmes are also vital for retaining public employees with high public service motivation because the programmes can introduce the mission, goals, objectives, and norms of public sector organisations and narrate the ways to serve the public interest through formulating public policies and delivering public services. Public service motivation can be enhanced through appropriateness in the selection process and socialisation to the values of the organisation (Kim, 2006). Moreover, public sector managers need to recognise that public sector incentive structures must provide an opportunity for employees to satisfy their public service motives (Houston, 2006). Public employees are more likely to place a higher value on the intrinsic reward of work (delivering service to the nation) that is important and it provides a feeling of accomplishment, and they are less likely to place a high value on extrinsic reward motivators such as high income and short work hours. The managers need to give public service employees opportunities to experience a sense of accomplishment and achievement or to feel that they are doing something worthwhile to the nation. Public organisation managers also need to manage better and promote the relationship between organisational commitment and OCB. They should also recognise that the feelings of the employees for their organisations may manifest themselves in the form of pro-social job behaviours. Effective commitment (motivation) can be influenced through a strategic use of intrinsic incentives in the public sector (Kim, 2006).

It has been argued that the performance of the public sector in most of the countries is not satisfactory because unlike the private sector - which operates in an open market and has a decentralised model of decision-making- public sector lack proper incentive (motivational) programmes (Bhatta, 2001). Moreover, public sector (in the current environment) aims to achieve seemingly paradoxical objectives - ensuring welfare to public and a sustainable competitive advantage (Mathews & Shulman, 2005). Therefore, in order to survive in this competitive environment, public servants need to be motivated for their own survival through improving the level of efficiency (Argus et al., 2007).

2.7 Public Service Motivation (PSM)

Public Service Motivation (PSM) has been defined by Perry and Wise (1990) as the predisposition of the individual to respond to motives primarily or uniquely grounded in public institutions and organisations. Therefore, this definition is directly applicable to the unique and specific mission of government. Moreover, research studies reveal that public sector organisations are more likely to employ individuals who nurture the values and needs compatible with the public service mission of the organisation (Baldwin, 1984; Perry & Wise, 1990; Perry, 1997; Crewson, 1997). It is argued that the composition of the public sector workforce has been expected to reflect the nature of the work in the public sector by attracting employees who desire greater opportunities to fulfill higher-order needs and altruistic motives by performing public service. Moreover, it is these individual attributes often viewed as the key to motivate the behaviour of public sector employees (Wright, 2003). It is suggested that understanding the values and reward preferences of public managers is a prerequisite to reshape organisational environments and incentive systems to satisfy those preferences (Wittmer, 1991).

It is argued that PSM is closely linked to motivation, productivity, improved management practices, accountability, and trust in government, making it one of the major current topics of investigation in public administration (Brewer et al., 2000). The relevance of PSM is relatively high for government. Although it is not limited to this sector, as employees in the private and non-profit sectors also exhibit PSM to varying degrees (Wittmer 1991). PSM therefore not only helps us to understand the traditional differences between the public, non-profit and private sector, but given the increasing blurring of the boundaries between sectors, PSM is useful in understanding public behaviour at workplace (Bozeman, 1987). Although some empirical work shows no evidence of difference between public and private organisations on extrinsic and intrinsic motivators (Buchanan 1975; Gabris & Gloria 1995). A number of the empirical evidence demonstrates support for the existence of public service ethic among public employees. (Brewer et al., 2000; Coursey & Pandey, 2004; Perry 1996; 1997). Support for PSM is also found in cross-section comparisons. Significant differences have been found among public and private service managers in the perceptions of the importance of different types of rewards. Unlike private managers,

public managers considered service and work that is helpful to others as important and higher pay, status and prestige as less important (Rainey, 1982).

PSM therefore provides a theory of motivation that links the pursuit of public interest with administrative behaviour. Perry and Wise (1990) argue that individuals with a high sense of the public interest are more likely to select public service careers (Houston 2000; Rainey 1982; Wittmer 1991). Having joined the organisation, members with high levels of PSM appear to contribute in positive ways: they are more willing to engage themselves to protect the public interest (Brewer et al., 1998); they exhibit higher levels of organisational commitment (Crewson 1997); they believe that their jobs are important, which in turn leads to employees working harder (Wright, 2003); they are more likely to be high performers, enjoy higher job satisfaction and less likely to leave their jobs (Naff & Crum 1999). There has been some research into PSM and individual employee performance but Brewer (2008) concludes that there is little solid evidence to support such a link. A section of researchers demonstrated that employees with a high level of PSM perform better, but others came up with contradictory results. Various sorts of measurement problems also haunt these studies. An interesting study of organisational performance was carried out by Kim in 2005. He showed that while PSM did have a positive effect on organisational performance, three other factors namely, job satisfaction, affective commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour influenced it more. However, Brewer notes that this study also has its limitations, including incomplete measures of PSM and self-reporting measures of performance (Leisink and Steijn, 2009).

A recent study reveals that public service motivation increases with age. Thus it appears that older public sector workers are more likely to demonstrate such motivation. It also enhances with educational level. Gender, too have a significant role in the analyses of affective commitment, willingness to exert effort and job performance. Women report significantly higher scores on affective commitment and willingness to exert effort compared with men. Gender studies suggest that women are more relation-oriented and supportive than men, and both of these aspects can be related to affective commitment and willingness to exert effort. On the other hand, men report significantly higher scores on job performance than women. It appears that men are more inclined to

boast of their own performance than their women counterparts (Leisink and Steijn, 2009).

It is suggested that to make the PSM a success, the employees must be provided with clear unequivocal goals and prioritisation of goals irrespective of whether employees receive their instructions from one or more sources. Furthermore, the employee-leader relations antecedents have a positive outcome on PSM, however this influence is indirect. Managers should provide the following in order to develop and enhance PSM: allow the employees to influence the decisions being made by being more approachable and inviting them to provide their input; take the role of a facilitator by clarifying expectations, assigning specific tasks and identify procedures to be followed, thus minimising the negative effect of the role states; and regular feedback to the employees regarding their performance and how well they are doing on the workplace (Camilleri, 2007).

It is argued that employees with greater public service motivation are expected to be more satisfied with their jobs and therefore perform better because they value the opportunities to serve the public that government employment provides. Consequently, employees with high public service motivation are more likely to see their work not only as rewarding but also compensating for the limited availability of economic rewards often associated with public employment. In other words, public employees are expected to work harder, perform better, and be more satisfied with their jobs because they are working to provide services that they see as important and therefore rewarding (Pandey and Wright, 2008).

It is argued that content theories of motivation narrate behaviour as the outcome of intrinsic psychological characteristics, such as, needs. On the contrary, it is expressed that process theories of motivation attempt to describe how behaviour is energised, directed, and sustained. Therefore, as PSM basically explains behaviour in terms of intrinsic psychological needs it may be concluded that the basis of PSM lies within the content motivation theories domain. Moreover, it is held that content motivation theories are more receptive to the identification of a multiple dimensional construct compared with process theories. The main reason behind this is that a multiple dimensional construct of motivation, such as Public Service Motivation, has the objective of identifying the factors that plays

a decisive role in building the construct (the what) rather than explaining the operations of the individual decision making system as it relates to his/her behaviour (Camilleri, 2007).

It is suggested that the following factors should be considered while formulating motivational programmes for employees: individual needs with complex combination; financial benefits is not the only means for ensuring effective management of motivation and retention; the broader potential predictors of motivation and/or dissatisfaction must not be overlooked; and the importance of the regular measurement of the impact of the predictors of motivation and/or dissatisfaction on employee performance and as a whole on the effectiveness of the organisation. A comprehensive matrix, consisting of the following factors is developed for facilitating the managers to motivate their employees in an appropriate manner : establishing different profiles at different levels' organisational process; role challenge; values; work-life balance; information; key/leverage/reward/recognition; management; work environment; and product/service (Glen, 2006).

From the above discussion, it is evident that Public Service Motivation is vital for extracting the optimal performance from the employees and thus ensuring organisational development. Moreover, motivating public servants is not an easy task. Public sector managers should possess the necessary traits and skills to achieve this objective for creating the environment needed for Public Service Motivation (PSM).

2.8 Customers' Satisfaction, 'Burnout' and 'Empowerment'

It is argued that researchers have focused almost exclusively on the underlying causes of burnout, without adequate attention given to the consequences of burnout. It has become common to assume that burnout has significant negative consequences. Moreover, what research does exist on the consequences of burnout generally finds very little shared variance between burnout and its consequences. Finally, for the most part, burnout researchers have limited their investigations of burnout consequences to outcomes associated with the individual experiencing burnout e.g., their performance, job satisfaction, or commitment and have done little to explore the manner in which an employee's burnout influences other people (Halbesleben et al., 2008).

Compared with other professions, burnout is more common in the service professions (Yagil, 2006). Burnout has been manifested as a syndrome consisting of emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation, and a reduced sense of personal accomplishment (Maslach et al., 2001). The constant contact with customers along-with the nature of the interpersonal encounters give rise to major causes of service provider burnout, which has a negative impact on the service quality and customer satisfaction. A potential remedy to overcome the stress involved in service roles is thought to be the empowerment of service providers through increasing the employees' control of the situation, which enhances their ability to provide satisfactory service. Empowerment has been defined as 'the process of gaining influence over events and outcomes of importance to an individual or group'. It is argued that the service provider's need for power influences the buffering effect of empowerment, as well as the stressful effect of unsuccessful relationships with customers (Yagil, 2006).

Empowerment is termed as a fundamentally motivational process by which individuals experience a sense of enablement (Yagil, 2006). It is considered an effective safeguard against stress because it provides individuals with necessary resources like autonomy, participation in decision-making and a sense of competence, which help them cope with stress (Spreitzer et al., 1997). Moreover, empowerment affects employees' appraisal of various stressful organisational events, such as downsizing and problem-focused coping. It enhances the employees' evaluation of their ability to cope with threats (Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998). It is found that job autonomy negatively influences service providers' appraisal of the stress involved in customer aggression, and thus indirectly influences emotional exhaustion. As empowerment neutralises the effect of stress, it may be expected to be negatively related to service providers' burnout as well as moderating the relationship of burnout with service outcomes (Grandey et al., 2004). Moreover, empowerment has a positive impact on employees' performance both directly (Bradley & Sparks, 2000) and through its effect on service providers' sense of job-related control and thus it has a close relation with customers' satisfaction (Yagil, 2006). On the other hand employee empowerment is not a very easy process. Any plan for empowering employees will become unsuccessful if the organisation is unaligned. If people do not share the common vision, mental models about business reality, employee

empowerment will have a negative impact on the performance of the entire organisation (Senge, 2006). It is argued that empowerment attempts become successful when employees intend to attain more power and a large proportion of such attempts failed because the employees were not willing to have more power (Foster-Fishman & Keys, 1997).

3.0 Conclusion

There is abundant theoretical support regarding employee particularly public servant motivation. In this regard theories as well as some real issues such as organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), public service motivation (PSM), empowerment, burnout, gender, age and education should be taken care of. If these issues are given due importance public service managers can harvest the optimal benefit from the motivational programmes.

A recent research suggests that the followings should be done to motivate public servants effectively: more efforts on addressing the hygiene factors (i.e. removing the negatives) rather than introducing new incentives; ensuring opportunities for setting up national and international networks to meet the need for affiliation with the stakeholders; evaluating the effectiveness of present incentive schemes and use them in a differential manner with different levels of public servants; managers should be proactive in providing constructive feedback; organisational structure needs to be well understood and roles clearly defined; non-financial methods for recognising success and hard work should be investigated; consideration to the physical layout of the organisation to facilitate communication and avoid groups and individuals feeling isolated; the criteria for appointing managers should be whether they want to manage, know how to manage and how to get maximum output from minimum input; Judging managers on their ability to manage; and managers should spend more time talking to their staff and understanding their needs and motivations (Jindal-Snape and Snape, 2006).

As motivation is a dynamic process there will be changes in this regard in course of time and managers need to update them with the ever changing scenario to extract better performance from their subordinates.

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