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## **Part 1 - Motivation:**

*Definition:* One of the simplest definition of motivation can be stated as the “the reasons underlying behavior” (Guay et al., 2010, p. 712). However, suggesting Broussard and Garrison’s (2004, p 106) definition, motivation is referred as “the attribute that moves us to do or not to do something”. As explained briefly by Ryan and Deci (2000), to be motivated means to be inclined and moved to do something. An individual that feels motivated is described as someone who is energized or activated towards an end. Conversely, an unmotivated person is the one that feels no impetus or inspiration. Most theorists reflect motivation as a unitary construct that ranges from very little motivation to a great deal. However, brief thought suggests that motivation is hardly a unitary phenomenon. Individuals not only have different levels of motivation (i.e. how much motivation), but also the orientation of motivation i.e. goals that give rise to actions (Ryan and Deci, 2000).

*Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation:* Ryan and Deci (2000; p 55) explained the difference between two broad categories of motivation as “... intrinsic motivation, which refers to doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable, and extrinsic motivation, which refers to doing something because it leads to a separable outcome”. Covington (2000) has created the distinction and suggests that individuals are extrinsically motivated to act when they expect some kind of tangible payoff such as recognition, appreciation etc. The rewards are referred to as extrinsic as they are unrelated to the action i.e. the action becomes means to an end. By contrast, individuals are intrinsically motivated when they are engaged in activities for their own sake i.e. rewards and reinforcement lies in the actions itself.

## **Theories of Motivation**

*Maslow’s Hierarchy Theory:* Maslow (1954) theorized that motivation is a complex phenomenon and that individuals are motivated by a set of needs. Maslow (1954) further asserted that the triggering

needs are resided in a hierarchy - hence the title Maslow's hierarchy of needs. The general idea of the theory is that people are motivated by unsatisfied needs, and that lower needs are to be satisfied before moving on to higher level needs. Starting from lowest level, brief explanation of need levels as stated by Maslow (1954) are:

*Physiological Need:* Individuals need to sustain their life and are motivated by the most basic needs i.e. food, water air. Fulfillment of these needs is a pre-requisite before moving on to next level.

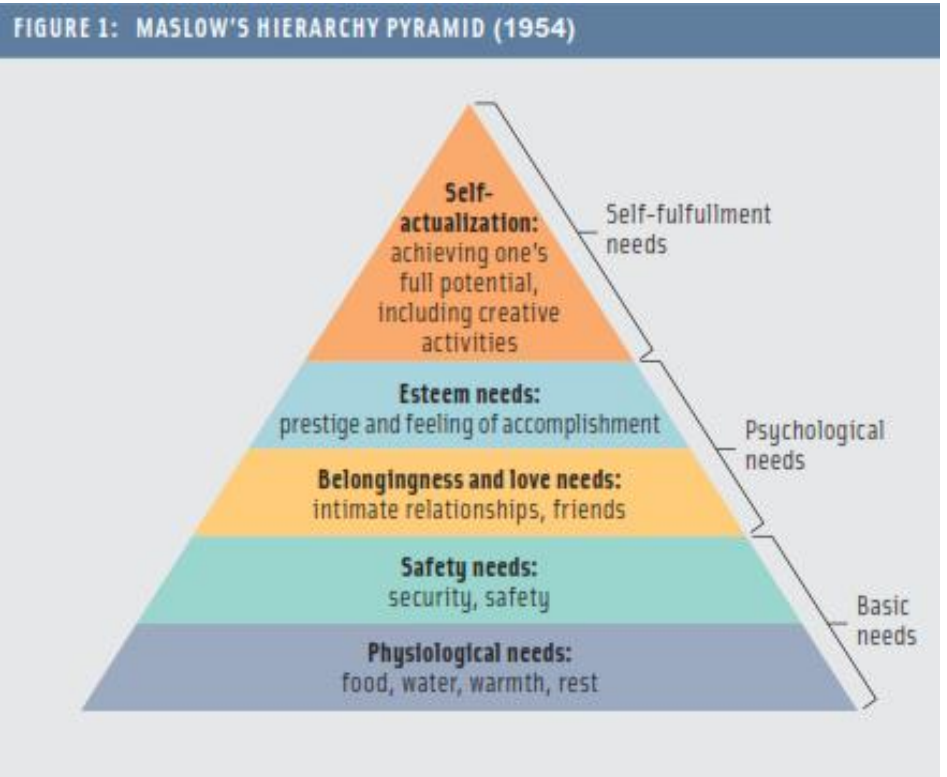
*Safety Needs:* Includes security of life, job etc. Maslow suggested that a threatened person cannot move up the pyramid.

*Love and Affection:* Once basic needs are fulfilled, individual moves toward belongingness to a group, friends, seeking partners etc.

*Esteem Needs:* Individual aspires to fulfill higher level needs i.e. self-esteem including personal sense of achievement and social esteem i.e. recognition, respect and appreciation from others.

*Self-Actualization:* The highest level needs referring to individuals' desire and best defined as what we appear and want to achieve in life. These needs can only be reached once some level of lower level needs is addressed.

McClelland's Theory of Needs: Presented by McClelland (1961, 1975) the needs theory suggests that individuals are motivated to act by three basic drivers: achievement, affiliation and power. Winter



(1992) argued that the drivers not only motivate individuals, but subsequently, address many of most important human goals and concerns. As explained by McClelland (1961, 1975):

*Achievement Needs:* Need for achievement contends a person's drive and aspiration to excel with respect to some established benchmarks and standard. Individuals that desire high achievement needs dislike succeeding by chance; rather, they seek for success through personally identifiable sources.

*Power Needs:* Need for power refers to an individuals' desire to be influential on its surroundings. This means individuals attempts to make others behave, as one would like or in a manner they would not have otherwise. As further explained by Veroff (1992), those high in need of power prefer being status driver and in competitive positions. Additionally, they are concerned influencing others' behavior within their control.

*Affiliation Needs:* The desire to have close friends and build inter personal relationships with others are categorized under need for affiliation. Individuals high in need for affiliation tend to spend more time with others. Further, strong affiliation results in pursuing team activities in which cooperation, interaction and interdependence on others is paramount (Yamaguchi, 2003).

*Herzberg Two Factor Theory:* With a detailed study conducted in 1950's Herzberg presented his theory of motivation in relation to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Herzberg (1968) suggested that employees' motivation at work place is driven by motivators and hygiene factors. Motivators or motivation factors encourage employees to work hard and enjoy their jobs. Presence of these factors creates intrinsic motivation for employees, and subsequently enhanced productivity (Herzberg, 1976). Conversely, hygiene factors do not necessarily create motivation or satisfaction. However, as briefed by Herzberg, the role of hygiene factors is to prevent discontent and dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 1976, 1984). Specific examples of motivators include personal growth, achievement, recognition, advancement, respect and responsibility itself. Subsequently, hygiene factor as identified

include organizational policies, relationships with superiors and peers, working conditions, salary, supervision, job security etc (Daft, 2003).

Reflection: Comparison and Contrasting of Three Motivation Theories: All the theories mentioned above are content theories of motivation. The basic similarity between the three theories is the premise that all three can be used to identify and understand what motivates individuals and employees in particular. Further, all three theories illustrate what employees generally need and want in order to be more productive and satisfied. Further, all three theories agree on the idea that workers have some ego that can be interpreted as recognition and respect for what they do. If we discuss theory of needs and Herzberg's theory specifically, the need for power can be equated to job empowerment while need for achievement can be considered somewhat similar to job enrichment. On the other hand, Maslow's physiological and safety needs are equivalent to Herzberg's hygiene factors while Maslow's higher level needs of esteem, social and self-actualization equates to Herzberg's motivational factors. Maslow's theory of hierarchy is relatively more specific than the other two theories. It clearly explains with specific examples of what is in each level of need. Because of this specificity, it is being criticized for not being able to apply to all situations. Subsequently, if we talk about McClelland's need theory, there is no specific level of needs i.e. there is no order of needs as which need would come first or last. Moving on to the Herzberg theory, he has used the connotation of factors instead of needs like the other two. Furthermore, among the three theories, Herzberg's theory is the only one that talks about criterion of the tasks managers should assign. Also, this is the only theory among three that suggests some needs are already expected of in the firm (Ounkomol, 2011).

## **Part 2 – Communication:**

*Definition:* “Communication” that can be considered etymologically related to both, community and communion is derived from the Latin word communicate, which means “to make common” (Weekley, 1967, p 338) or to share. Devito (1986, p 61) further expanded on this definition suggesting that communication is “[t]he process or act of transmitting a message from a sender to a receiver, through a channel and with the interference of noise”. While others have elaborated on this definition stating that the message transmission is meant in order to bring about a change and is always intentional. Devito (1986) stated that since process is an ongoing non static activity, therefore, communication is referred to as a process and therefore, is a series of actions that may be thought better of as a continuum rather than a point.

*Verbal Communication:* All forms of communication are either verbal or nonverbal. Much of the interpersonal verbal communication between individuals is based on broad category of vocal or non-vocal. Vocal category includes linguistics i.e. spoken language while non-vocal verbal communication refers to message that is transmitted through sign language, Braille, finger spelling etc. that are alternates to verbal language. Verbal communication as suggested by Ross (1989) has some unique features i.e. a) its principal function is to transfer factual information b) human language makes pre dominant use of symbolic signs that are iconic and indexical c) it takes place in a social environment with particular defined communication setup.

*Non Verbal Communication:* Nonverbal communication refers to the communication and interpretation through behavioral and or expressive channels such as facial expression, bodily movements, vocal tone and gestures without any involvement of language. As explained further by Ambady and Rosenthal (1998, p 775) “The communication and interpretation of nonverbal behavior draws on tacit, implicit knowledge that all human beings possess. Such communication is

often subtle, uncontrollable, spontaneous, rapidly and unconsciously communicated and interpreted, and provides a great deal of information regarding affective states”

*Difference between Verbal and Non Verbal Communication:* Laura and Farinelli (2009) compiled differences between the two categories of communication and that are explained in Table 1.

<b>Function</b>	<b>Verbal Communication</b>	<b>Non Verbal Communication</b>
<b>Analogic Vs. Digital Processing</b>	<i>Verbal communication is processed by individuals digitally i.e. people make sense of it by looking at all parts that make the whole (Andersen, 2008)</i>	<i>Nonverbal messages are processed analogically i.e. people see big picture when processing information (Andersen, 2008)</i>
<b>Iconic Vs. Symbolic Communication</b>	<i>Most verbal communication is symbolic i.e. it has an arbitrary relationship between the word and the meaning</i>	<i>Most forms of non-verbal communication is iconic and intrinsic meaning they would resemble what they stand for and reflects the sender’s personal state.</i>
<b>Multimodal Vs. Uni-modal (Face to Face Context)</b>	<i>Verbal communication is uni-modal i.e. an individual can only say one word at a time (Andersen, 2008)</i>	<i>Non-verbal communication is multimodal i.e. an individual can smile while leaning forward at the same time (Andersen, 2008)</i>
<b>Spontaneity Vs. Intentionality</b>	<i>Most verbal communication is sent with intent and is considered as strategic in nature (Andersen, 1991)</i>	<i>Many forms of non-verbal communication are sent spontaneously without intent (Andersen, 1991)</i>
<b>Displacement and Reflexivity</b>	<i>Displacement refers to the ability to refer to information in time and space i.e. verbal communication allows transmitting information related to future or discussing the past.</i>	<i>Non-verbal communication in contrast happens here and now only (Burgoon et al, 1996)</i>

Table 1: Difference between verbal and non-verbal communication

*Advantages and Disadvantages of Verbal-Nonverbal Communication:* Table 2 presents some briefly compiled advantages and disadvantages of both styles of communication (Laura and Farinelli (2009)

	<b>Advantages</b>	<b>Disadvantages</b>
<b>Verbal Communication</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- More precise than non-verbal communication</li> <li>- Can refer to incidents in different tenses</li> <li>- Can explain intangible concepts</li> <li>- Timely understood</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Uni-modal i.e. can say only one word at a time</li> <li>- Can speak directly to limited audience</li> <li>- Receiver may not be active listeners</li> <li>- Lacks longevity as message may be forgotten</li> </ul>
<b>Non-Verbal Communication</b>		

## Models of Communication:

*Lasswell Model of Communication:* As highlighted by Shoemaker et al (2004), Lasswell's model of communication is regarded as the most influential and earliest theories on the subject of verbal communication. According to Lasswell (1948), answering 5 W's (Figure 2) would serve as a convenient way to identify if an act of communication has taken place. These W's include

- Who: refers to the sender of the message who is responsible for composing the message
- Says What: refers to the message itself
- In Which channel: refers to the medium used for communication
- To Whom: indicates about the audience for which the message is intended
- With What effect: identifies the effect that the message has on the receiver

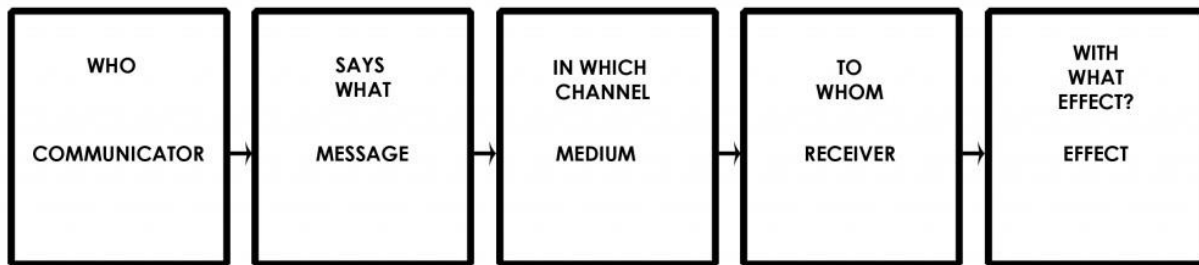


Figure 2: Lasswell's communication model (1948)

*Shannon – Weaver Model of Communication:* Shannon and Weaver (1949) presented their model of communication consisting of six elements: an information source that produces the message, a transmitter that is responsible for encoding the message into signals, a channel that through which signals are adapted, a receiver on the other end that decodes the received message from the signal and finally, destination where the message arrives. Another sixth element that is dysfunctional and present in Shannon Weaver's model is noise. Noise is interference within the communication channel that creates distortion. With the presence of noise, the channel is not decoded with the intention it was encoded by the sender.



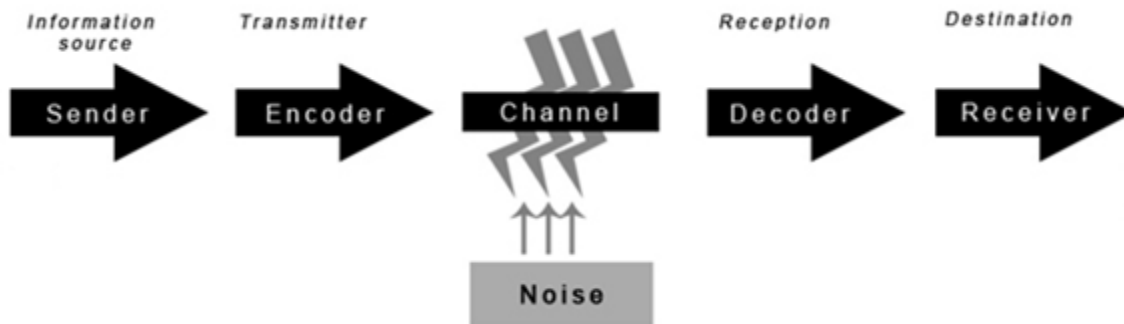


Figure 3: Shannon-Weaver Model of Communication

*Schramm Model of Communication:* Schramm (1954) presented his extension of Shannon-Weaver model of communication to include the element of human behavior in communication process. Shannon Weaver model was more of mathematical in nature. Schramm suggested that communication is always a two way circular process between the sender and the receiver.

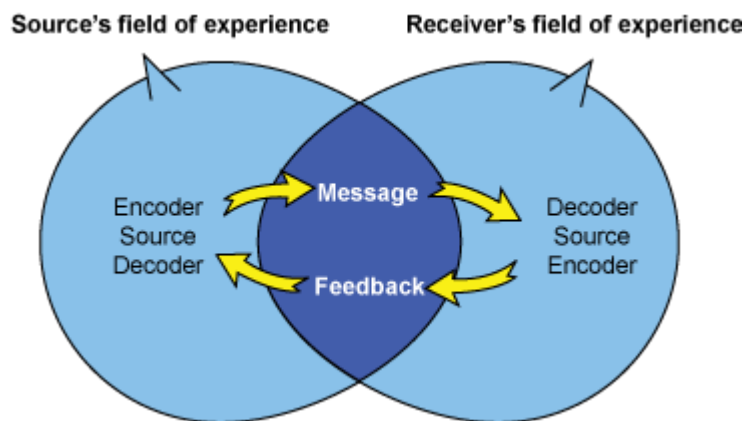


Figure 4: Schramm (1954) model of communication

Therefore, Schramm (1954) added two new factors to the communication process.

- **Feedback:** Feedback is the process through which the receiver transmits a signal or message to the sender regarding the receipt of the message and subsequently decoding it.

- Field of Experience: Refers to an individual's set of beliefs, values, experiences and learned meanings both as an individual and as being part of the group. Schramm (1954) added that message complications increases when different people have different learned meanings. Furthermore, within the field of experience, other factors that affect communication are body language, facial expressions, gestures etc.

Reflection: Comparison and Contrasting of Three Models of Communication: There are a number of similarities and differences that can be identified between the three models above. Both Lasswell and Shannon-Weaver model are linear i.e. one directional while Schramm's model is more interactive with no specific direction. Shannon-Weaver model and Schramm's model has incorporated the element of noise in the communication process while Laswell has not. Similarly, Shannon-Weaver and Schramm have used the notion signal while Laswell has not included this in his model. Also, Laswell model has specific questions to be asked while Shannon-Weaver and Schramm have identified steps of communication. All three models identify the basic elements of a communication process in their own way. Laswell model and Schramm model is more focused towards people while Shannon-Weaver model refers to encoding forms (Lee, 1993).

### **Part 3: Reflective Writing**

*Definition:*

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