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CONSIDERATION OF HUMAN NEEDS IN THREE ALTERNATIVE MODELS OF MOTIVATION AND THE IMPLICATIONS FOR SUPERVISION: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

DISSERTATION

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate School of The Ohio State University

By

Charles Allen Chance, B.A., M.A.

*****

The Ohio State University
1970

Approved by

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CHAPTER I

OVERVIEW OF STUDY

Problem Statement

There can no longer be any doubt that education as a social institution must undergo changes in the decades ahead. The present attempts to amend minor improvements in existing practice is simply not sufficient to meet the rapidly changing needs that face American Education. If meaningful changes are to be made in education, we must go beyond our present thinking and seek new variations.

One of the challenges facing education at the present time is exploring new organizational relationships that are more congruent with human needs. Great strides have already been taken toward the accomplishment of this linkage. However, further fundamental attempts toward organizational relationships based upon human needs are needed.

The first step that must be taken in this endeavor to effect change is the thorough analysis of the nature of human needs. If we are to begin developing educational changes that are adequate and relevant, we must start with the careful consideration of the nature
of human needs. Too often we have instituted change without such
previous analysis and thus our attempts have been viewed through the
traditional system. If we wish to make education truly responsive to
human needs, we can do so by paying close attention to these needs at
the outset. To proceed otherwise is to assure that tradition will
survive.

Within this framework of educational change supervision has
become a complex and difficult task. It is difficult to predict what the
supervisory function might be in the future, but there is some basis
for speculation that in a climate of change the function will be different.
In recent writings, Frymier (2:83-102) (3:103-104) has indicated that
supervision stands at a fork in the road.

He analyzes three different directions in which supervision
can go in relation to three different models of education. To provide
the institutional structure for this study, these three models of
education will be utilized.

First is the legal model. The basic source of authority is the
constitutional or statutory power of the state to demand compliance
with the law, and the primary group served under this arrangement is
the body politic of a particular state. Pursuant to this model, then,
education is a legal enterprise. The legal model relies upon a
hierarchy of authority and assumes that those higher up on the line of
authority know more than those lower down.
Second is the labor model. The labor model's source of authority is rooted in collective power.

Third is the professional model. The professional model derives its authority from the competence of the members of the group.

Also Frymier points out that the motivational bases for these three models differ. The source of motivation for the legal model is "compliance." Persons occupying positions of authority have directed to do or not to do particular things in their instructional activities. The source of motivation for the labor model is "reward." The motivation behind this model arises from a concern for what the group members want and need to satisfy themselves. The source of motivation for the professional model is "service." The motivation behind this model is to provide the highest quality of service to other people.

The general purpose of this study is to analyze the motivational bases of these three models in relation to the nature of human needs as they manifest themselves in an organizational setting.

More specifically an attempt will be made to:

1. Survey the current literature to develop ways of thinking about human needs in educational systems.
2. Utilize these concepts of human needs as a source of motivation to analyze and expand the motivational patterns of the three models of education.

3. Determine the implications for supervision within the three models of education.

Preliminary Review of the Literature

A preliminary review of the literature relating to human needs, human motivation, and organizational behavior has made us cognizant of the magnitude and complexity of the problem. However, this limited review has provided a point of departure for this study. For example, Maslow (11:21-43) describes basic needs related to deficiency motivation and growth motivation. He utilizes the theoretical constructs of survival, safety, belongingness, love, self-esteem, and self-actualization as basic human needs. Maslow's hierarchy of needs has stimulated and influenced many contemporary thoughts in organizational theory. Hampton, Summer, and Webber (6:14) point out that Maslow's ideas are the basis of the thinking of several authors concerned with the discontents of work and the classic conflict between man and organization.

MacGregor (9:45-57) points out that management has too often assumed that employees view work as punishment. He utilized these assumptions for Theory X. However, MacGregor emphasized
that management should shift its policies to recognize and appeal to higher needs. Based on this assumption, he has developed Theory Y based on the Principle of Integration. Theory Y assumes that people will exercise self-direction and self-control in the achievement of organizational objectives to the degree that they are committed to those objectives.

Argyris (1:27-157) concludes that there are some basic incongruencies between the growth trends of a healthy personality and the requirements of the formal organization. To deal with this incongruency, Argyris states that the individual adapts to the impact of the organization by any one or some combination of (1) leaving the organization, (2) climbing the organizational ladder, (3) using defensive mechanisms, and (4) becoming apathetic and disinterested. He concludes that these are all adaptive mechanisms and therefore need fulfilling.

Katz and Kahn (7:336-389) describe four types of motivational patterns of organizational effectiveness. Type A is legal compliance. Motivation is accomplished by the acceptance of role prescriptions of organizational directives because of their legitimacy. Type B is instrumental satisfaction. Motivation is attempted by the linking of rewards to desired behaviors, with the expectation that as rewards increase, motivation for performance increases. Type C is self-expression and self-determination. Motivation is derived directly
from role performance. Type D is the internalization of organizational goals. Motivation is linked to value expression and self-idealization as the goals become part of the individual's value system.

The writing of Kelley (8:1-212) provides theoretical notions concerning the nature of human organisms. Energy, change, growth, freedom, and cooperation are constructs employed by Kelley to describe the nature of man.

Gardner (5:19) posits that a self-renewing man is highly motivated. He states that motivation is an attribute of individuals, in part linked to their physical vitality, in part a result of social forces, patterns of child-rearing, tone of the educational system, presence or absence of opportunity, tendency of the society to release or smother available energy, social attitudes toward dedication or commitment, and the vitality of the society's shared values.

In summary, the preliminary review of the literature in the field of human motivation and organizational behavior has led to the recognition that an organization is a complex social and psychological phenomenon. An organization is a dynamic, unique system in which many activities, relationships, and interactions are woven into a complex whole. The individual lacks the rationality and simplicity that organizational theories assume he has. Individuals are complex and varied. They have needs, long before they come to the organization, and they do not give up these needs when they join. Individuals
are therefore motivated in ways that are not rational in terms of the organization. Supervision must seek ways to permit individuals to fulfill human needs in the organizational climate. This preliminary review of the literature provides a basic concern and a point of departure for attacking this concern.

Assumptions

From the preliminary review of the research, it is reasonable to make the following assumptions for the purpose of giving direction to this study.

1. The role of supervision is changing and will continue to change in the future.

2. Specific motivational factors based upon an analysis of human needs in an organizational setting should be identified to provide a base for planned educational change.

3. Human needs are linked to motivation.

4. Individual and organizational needs are clearly interrelated.

5. The primary concern of supervision is directed toward the seeking of organizational patterns to help teachers improve instruction.

6. Individuals can be motivated to be more effective by helping them fulfill their social and psychological needs.
Objectives

The primary objective of this study is to review the recent literature in the area of human needs as they manifest themselves in an organizational setting. It will seek to utilize those concepts of human needs as a source of motivation to analyze and expand the three models of education as reviewed by Frymier. Concurrently, it will also be the purpose of this study to determine the implications for supervision within these three models of education.

It will not be the purpose of this study to choose among the three alternative models of education, but to attempt to clarify their motivational relationships. The question of methodology is crucial to the attainment of these objectives.

Procedures

This study will consist of three phases. The first phase will consist of an extensive review of the research literature in the area of human needs as they relate to an organizational setting. The second phase will utilize these concepts of human needs as a motivational base for analyzing and expanding the three models of education. The third phase will attempt to determine the implications for supervision.

Initially, the first phase of this study will be exploratory and descriptive. The major purpose of this phase is to review the recent research literature in the area of human needs as they relate to
organizational behavior. The literature is voluminous; therefore, the following criteria will be employed to delimit the search of the literature. Any study which deals primarily with human needs in an organizational setting might be regarded as suitable for inclusion in this literature review. In establishing a minimum operational definition of human needs for the purpose of selecting studies, it is assumed that human needs could be linked to motivation. Motivation, by definition, affects behavior. Frymier (4) has stated that motivation gives direction and intensity to human behavior. Behavior then could become directed toward the satisfaction of needs. Depending upon a host of variables, we know that everyone's needs differ. Therefore, it would be impractical, if not impossible, to create a list of needs which would cover every individual in all types of circumstances.

For the purpose of this proposal, the above criteria will give sufficient direction to the selection of studies to be reviewed. On the basis of these studies, an attempt will be made to develop relationships between organizational behavior and human needs. Most of the studies which are reviewed will be findings from research and literature during the time period of 1960-1970. An attempt will be made to select studies that are representative of the literature.

During the first phase of this study a central concern is:

How can the data relating to human needs in an organizational setting be conceptualized for reporting? When one reads the research
literature pertaining to human needs in organizations, one finds that a bewildering array of hypotheses, measuring instruments, and research designs have been employed by researchers. An attempt cannot be made in this study to review, compare, criticize, or arrange the various definitions and research strategies in common use for reporting human needs. Because of this limitation, it seems best to group the findings into categories according to what is actually available rather than establishing any a priori arrangements of a theoretical nature concerning human needs and organizational behavior. By employing this methodology, it will be possible to look at the research available and describe it carefully and in considerable detail.

The second phase of this study will be to conceptualize and expand the motivational base of the three models of education as advanced by Frymier. The primary source of data for the second phase will come from the notions developed from the extensive review of the literature dealing with human needs in an organizational setting (phase one).

When one reviews the literature in supervision, one finds an array of functions of supervisors. Some of these include: setting objectives and standards for people, making goals clear, assigning work and checking it, defining the job clearly and correctly, clarifying authority, training, disciplining, settling grievances, stimulating people to greater efforts, installing new methods and techniques,
developing human beings, and calling to account. How supervisors perform these and other functions is the primary concern of this phase. As indicated earlier in this proposal, the three models of education have been reviewed. They are the legal model, the labor model, and the professional model. As it was pointed out, each model differs in its motivational base. The motivational base in this study will refer to the patterns of motivation or institutional expectations associated with the three models of education. The specific purpose of phase two of this study is to analyze and expand the motivational patterns of these three models.

The three dimensional model in Figure 1 will be helpful in organizing the data and the relationships for this section.

The categories of human needs for this model will be developed from the findings of the first phase of this study. It was stated that no attempt will be made to impose any a priori arrangements of a theoretical nature concerning human needs and organizational behavior. Each category of human needs will be analyzed, employing the motivational patterns associated with each model of education.

The patterns associated with each model of institutional expectations are: the legal model, "compliance"; the labor model, "reward"; and the professional model, "service." "Compliance" suggests that someone in authority has issued a course of action from which a person may not depart. It implies that a person must agree
Figure 1.

Relationship of Human Needs, Institutional Expectations and Individual Expectations.
or concur. "Reward" suggests that a person gives or does something in return for some form of compensation or satisfaction. "Service" suggests that assistance or benefits are afforded another person. It implies a helping relationship.

The term individual expectations, as used in the model, is a variable whose behavioral manifestations indicate a relationship between human needs and institutional expectations. It suggests an arrangement or relationship. These relationships will be inferred from the findings relating to human needs. To indicate perceived importance or high expectations for the satisfaction of a particular need category, the label high will be used. To indicate a perceived neutral or suspended condition, or normal expectation for the satisfaction of a particular need category, the label normal will be used. To indicate perceived unimportance or low expectations for the satisfaction of a particular need category, the label low will be used.

The third phase of this study will attempt to determine the implications for supervision within the three models of education. It was postulated in an earlier assumption that the role of supervision is changing and will continue to change. Supervision is conceptualized as a process directed toward the seeking of organizational patterns to help teachers improve instruction. At a time when our technological achievements are carrying us farther and farther into reorganizing our
schools, we have been lagging behind in the development of effective ways of working with individuals. It is hopeful that this study will generate some imperatives that are worthy of investigation in curriculum supervision.

Limitations

One of the major limitations of this study is the initial utilization of the "describe and infer" methodology. Employing current findings from research and literature as the primary source of data, initially this study must accept certain philosophical assumptions concerning the nature of man, research methodologies employed, and the meaning of language reported by other persons in the field. This limitation has been pointed out in the procedures. However, this study has established certain assumptions and criteria for selecting and utilizing data. Such methodology is useful in generating hypotheses. Without knowing the exact nature of previous thinking, it is difficult or impossible to determine what remains to be accomplished.

A second limitation of this study is the present state of development of supervision theory based on human needs. This approach is not yet fully developed, and the language is sometimes strange to curriculum supervision. Many studies selected have been conducted in a noneducational setting or in an industrial setting. Caution must be exercised when one begins to generalize across
disciplines or from one setting to another setting. At the present it is necessary to provide input from other disciplines and other settings to enable us to reshape our thinking in education and supervision.

This study will attempt to add another dimension to supervision by pulling together research in the field of human motivation and relating it to curriculum supervision.
REFERENCES


OVERVIEW OF SECTION I

In this section the human needs of individuals will be explored as they relate to organizational behavior. In establishing a minimum operational definition of human needs, it was assumed that human needs are linked to motivation. Motivation by definition affects behavior. Behavior then could become directed toward the satisfaction of human needs.

Keeping the above framework in mind, the specific objective of section one then becomes to develop ways of thinking about human needs in educational systems. Section one contains four chapters.

Chapter II points out that interest in the field of human needs and motivation in organization has been increasing. Specific criteria for inclusion of studies to be used are developed in this chapter. After an initial examination of the empirical studies utilized, approaches to the study of human needs are explored.

Chapter III deals with the reporting of the findings from the literature relating to maintenance needs. Maintenance needs are conceptualized as those needs that indicate a means of support for individuals when engaging in some type of behavior.

Chapter IV examines the findings from the literature concerning relatedness needs. It is suggested that relatedness needs cause a person to turn his interest toward his environment or toward persons other than himself.
Chapter V points out the findings from the literature relating to growth needs. Growth needs were conceptualized as those needs that bring out the capabilities or potentialities in a person.
CHAPTER II

TOWARD A FRAMEWORK OF HUMAN NEEDS

Introduction

After a long period of neglect, patterns of motivation in organizational settings have become the subject of an increasing number of empirical studies. This interest apparently has been influenced by the recent writings of Maslow (14:80-106), Herzberg (7:44-49), McClelland (17:5-50), McGregor (19:33-48), Argyris (1:15-54), Likert (12:97-118), and Katz and Kahn (9:336-389). The purpose of this chapter is to develop ways of thinking about the relationship between human needs and organizational behavior. An exploratory search of the literature was made to identify these relationships from empirical findings.

The first finding from the study indicates that interest in the field of human needs and motivation in organizations has been increasing. In order to insure complete coverage, a systematic search was made of a series of journals over a ten-year period (1960-1970). Any references to investigations during or prior to 1960 that specifically referred to a theory of human needs were also
included in the search. For example, Maslow's and Herzberg's basic theories developed prior to 1960 are included. The three major criteria for the initial inclusion of studies are as follows:

1. Any study which deals primarily with human needs or motivation in an organizational setting was included. No attempt was made to employ or develop any theoretical model or constructs during this initial search. The only restriction imposed was that the study must deal with human behavior.

2. The review was purposely restricted to studies of industrial and business organizations, governmental agencies, educational institutions, military units, and the like.

3. With very few exceptions, only those studies providing empirical data are included. Articles based wholly or mostly on the opinion of the author and unsupported by actual data have been excluded. A few case studies based on observation are included.

In general, most investigations were limited to studies relating human needs and motivation to some variable of the organization. As the studies developed, it became apparent that these organizational variables could be classified as properties of the organization. The most common properties reported were: organizational levels, line and staff hierarchies, span and control, size, shape (tall or flat), and shape (centralized or decentralized).

The organizational properties used in these studies are broadly defined. Organizational levels usually refer to occupational boundaries; for example, managers--non-managers, white collar--blue collar, professional--nonprofessional. Line and staff hierarchies refer to the line position in the chain of command and the staff position providing auxiliary services. Span of control refers to the number of persons for whom a manager or supervisor is responsible. The size of the organization varied from study to study. The shape (tall or flat) refers to the number of levels in the organization in relation to the total size of the organization. The shape (centralized or decentralized) usually refers to decision-making. Most of these properties became the independent variables in the studies.

In most studies the dependent variable, in its broadest sense, was related to job attitude, job satisfaction, morale, or some other attribute of human behavior. Most of the studies suggest a direct association between these dependent variables and human needs.
As each study was reviewed, each specific human need identified or mentioned in the study was placed on a 3 x 5 card indicating the relationship between the need, organizational property, and disposition. Then the card was filed under the broad category of the need and if the need reported related to a specific theory, a notation was made. Therefore, from this review of the literature, it was evident that there must be a way to order the mass of data that had been collected in the field of human behavior in organizations.

**Approaches to the Study of Human Needs**

An examination of the empirical studies utilized indicates that different theoretical constructs and theories have been employed by investigators for the purpose of conceptualizing human needs. Much of the literature refers to a need as a "motive," "motive base," "drive," "tension system," "instinct," "interest," "desire," or "wants."

An analysis of distribution indicates that the following need categories are utilized most frequently in the studies. For the purpose of reporting the category, the needs are listed in alphabetical order. The needs are: achievement need, affiliation need, autonomy need, belongingness need, deference need, dominance need, existence need, extrinsic need, growth need, hygiene need, intrinsic need, motivator need, power need, recognition need, relatedness need,
safety need, security need, self-esteem need, self-actualization need, and social need. When one examines this list it becomes apparent that many studies have utilized Murray's list, Maslow's hierarchy, Herzberg's two-factor theory, and McClelland's achievement motive.

A second interesting finding was that three theories of needs and motivation provided the base for more than half of the empirical research in the area of human needs and motivation in an organizational setting. These are the motivation-hygiene concepts formulated by Herzberg, the need hierarchy concept advocated by Maslow, and the need-achievement proposed by McClelland. From all the sources examined, only 125 studies were relevant to the purpose of this study.

Thirty of the studies related directly to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, 15 studies related to McClelland's achievement need, 20 studies related to the Herzberg's two-factor theory and 60 studies have used other sources for their theoretical framework. Approximately 250 articles were reviewed and rejected due to their speculative discussion or opinion relating to human needs, motivation, or other attributes of human behavior in organizations. Examples of these studies unsupported by actual data or not related are: Rogers (31:290-293), Frohlich (5:90-94), Campfield (2:425-428), Lawrie (10:42-49), Levinson (11:370-390), Howard (8:32-37), Egmond et al. (3:230-231), Parker (21:37-44), Livingstone (13:37-44), Paine and Hykes (20:26-32), Porter et al. (27:415-435), Pondy (22:296-320), McCall (16:289-303),
Rothbart (30:809-816) and Fishman (4:809-816). From these findings it seems that the three theoretical positions of Maslow, Herzberg, and McClelland have achieved considerable attention from previous investigation and they should be briefly described here.

Maslow (14:80-106) (15:21-43) postulates seven innate basic needs arranged in a hierarchy from the more prepotent to the less prepotent. The hierarchy of needs are: physiological needs, safety needs, belongingness and love needs, esteem needs, self-actualization need, desire to know and to understand, the aesthetic needs. Maslow states that there are basic or primary needs, such as those for food, water, and sleep, which an individual satisfies at least minimally first, after which he turns to the higher-order needs, such as those for belongingness, love, and esteem. Finally, if the individual has achieved some degree of gratification of these first-order and middle-order needs, he may strive to satisfy the higher order need, of self-actualization. Maslow describes self-actualization as the desire to become more and more what one is, to become everything that one is capable of becoming. As Maslow has pointed out, this hierarchy of needs is not a rigid, fixed order that is the same for all individuals. Especially in the area of middle-order needs such as belongingness and esteem, the order varies somewhat from person to person. However, this theoretical approach to motivation carries with it the idea that physiological and safety or security needs are the most
prepotent needs and that self-actualization needs are usually the least prepotent for most individuals. The only needs which motivate behavior, according to this theory, are those needs which are unsatisfied.

In applying Maslow's theory of motivation to an organizational setting, most studies utilized a modified Maslow-type categorization to determine how persons felt about their jobs. The first deviation noted was that no study included physiological needs. It was assumed that these needs are adequately satisfied for any person; therefore, they would be irrelevant. The second major deviation in most studies from Maslow's need hierarchy was the addition of an autonomy need category. This was apparently due to the influence of Porter (24:141-148), (25:267-275), (26:386-397), (23:1-10), (28:135-148) and (29:139-144) studies employing a modified Maslow hierarchical system. This classification system includes the following categories: security needs, social needs, esteem needs, autonomy needs, and self-actualization needs. Specifically, the security needs refer to the feeling of security in a person's position. Social needs refer to the opportunity to develop close friendships. Esteem needs refer to the feeling of self-esteem a person gets from being in his position or the prestige his position has both inside the company and outside the company. Autonomy needs refer to the authority connected with a person's position, the opportunity for independent thought and action
in a person's position, the opportunity for participation in the setting of goals or for participation in determination of methods and procedures. Self-actualization needs refer to the opportunity for personal growth and development in a person's position. They also refer to the feeling of self-fulfillment a person gets from being in his position, the feeling of being able to use his own unique capabilities and to realize his potentialities, the feeling of worthwhile accomplishment in a position.

In summary, it could be concluded that Maslow's need hierarchy system has influenced the writing and studies in the attempt to understand human behavior in organizations.

The motivation-hygiene theory is best summarized by Herzberg (6:393-402) (7:44-49). The theory is derived from the examination of the sequences of events in the work situation which proved to have marked effect on job attitudes. These events are elicited by asking the respondents to think of a time and to describe the circumstances in which they felt exceptionally good or bad about their jobs, either their present job or any other job they have had. Following these questions are many specific probes designed to clarify the nature of the events and the respondents' reactions to those events. Usually, each respondent is required to provide one or more sequence of
events for satisfied and dissatisfied periods of job morale. From an analysis of these sequences, the following principles about job attitudes are found.

First, job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are not the obverse of each other; rather, they are best viewed as two separate and parallel continua.

Second, the opposite of job satisfaction is no job satisfaction; the opposite of job dissatisfaction is no job dissatisfaction.

Third, job satisfaction is determined by the feeling of the individual toward the content of his job. These include: task achievement, recognition for achievement, intrinsic interest in the task, increased task responsibility, advancement or occupational growth, and the possibility of occupational growth.

Fourth, job dissatisfaction is determined by the feelings of the individual about the context or the environment in which his task is accomplished. Ten separate factors which have been found to describe the job environment are: company policy and administration, supervision, working conditions, salary, personal life, status, interpersonal relationships with subordinates, interpersonal relationships with peers, interpersonal relationships with superiors, and job security.

Fifth, the satisfiers serve to provide for the human need to exercise one's capabilities or the surplus potentiality of the brain as
an instrumentality for psychological growth. The experience of growth can only arise when there is the opportunity to achieve success in the performance of some task. To be creative requires a creative task.

Sixth, the dissatisfiers serve to provide for the animal side of man's nature which needs to avoid unpleasant environments. This is an intrinsic property of all organisms, which is directed by the laws of biological evolution. Being more capable, however, will not make man less hungry or thirsty, or less concerned with status, money, interpersonal relationships, and hygienic working conditions.

Seventh, the dissatisfiers are called "hygiene" factors, because they serve to prevent dissatisfaction and they relate to the environment. These elements primarily serve to maintain the person rather than to spur him to positive behavior and feeling toward his job.

Eighth, the satisfying aspects of the job are named the "motivator" factors in order to emphasize the individual's active responsibility for psychological growth in contrast to the passivity which characterizes the avoidance nature of the responses to the hygiene factors.

In summary, Herzberg has suggested that the critical factors of how a person feels about his work are lodged in the intrinsic characteristics of the work itself, not in the environmental characteristics surrounding his work.
The principal interest of investigators in employing McClelland's work stems from his assumptions that entrepreneurs have a high n Achievement and that in business situations this high n Achievement will lead them to behave in certain ways and have certain behavioral tendencies. The Achievement Motive can best be summarized by McClelland (17:5-50) (18:99-112). Research shows that it is not profit per se that makes the businessman tick, but a strong desire for achievement, for doing a good job. The McClelland theorist says that if a man spends his time thinking about doing things better, he has a concern for achievement. This concern for achievement has been identified by projective techniques such as responding to pictures and writing feelings about them. McClelland describes the characteristics of the achiever. First, he likes situations in which he takes personal responsibility for finding solutions to problems. Self-confidence is related to high achievement motivation. Second, he has a tendency to set moderate achievement goals and to take calculated risks. If he is too safe and conservative, and refuses to innovate, he might lose out. Third, he wants concrete feedback as to how well he is doing. The professional (teacher) with high n achievement must accept sketchy, occasional evidence what his pupils did about some of his ideas. With low n achievement he is satisfied with the affection and recognition which he gets from his work and which gratify his other needs.
McClelland also poses the question of sources of achievement need. He indicates that values, beliefs, and ideology are important sources of achievement motivation.

In summary, the work of McClelland on the achievement motive suggests that some people derive satisfaction from the successful performance of tasks.

To summarize briefly, it can be stated with some degree of assurance that the available literature on human needs as they relate to organizational settings shows that consensus about terminology is lacking. This is supported by the number of studies clustering around the positions of Maslow, Herzberg, and McClelland, and studies using other sources for their theoretical framework. Some examples of the other sources of conceptual systems employed are: Atkinson's achievement and affiliation motive; French and Ravens' concept of social power; Ghiselli's list of personal traits relating to occupational success; Getzel and Guba's framework of nomothetic and idiographic behavior; Murray's list of needs; and studies employing eclectic theoretical framework. In addition, it was found that 20 categories of needs were utilized most frequently as a conceptual base for the studies.

The findings also suggest that, even with the limitation of terminology and the different categories of needs, a great deal of conceptual content was held in common. Earlier in this study
it was assumed that human needs could be linked to motivation and that motivation by definition affects behavior. Behavior then could become directed toward satisfaction of needs.

Carrying the discussion further, needs and motivation could be thought of as forms of energy. As pointed out earlier, motivation is that which gives direction and intensity to human behavior. Implicit in this statement is that motivation is initiated by some disturbance in the individual. Behavior then could become directed toward the satisfaction of this disturbance. This disturbance could be called a need. Therefore, a need could be thought of as that which incites and triggers action to human behavior. Needs connote some impulse within a person that impels him to act with a sense of purpose. This sense of purpose could be linked to motivation. Motivation is the putting forth or exerting energy to accomplish this sense of purpose.

A person's behavior apparently depends upon three factors: first, the amount of energy of the need; second, the person's expectation that he can satisfy this need; third, the amount of energy a person puts forth to accomplish this purpose.

In summary, needs incite and trigger human behavior to act with a sense of purpose; motivation provides direction and intensity to accomplish this behavior. Therefore needs could be thought of as that which incites and triggers action to human behavior. Needs connote some impulse within a person that impels him to act with a sense of purpose.
Utilizing the above framework, a re-analysis was made of the need categories and slowly there emerged from the findings of these studies three dimensions which seem to comprise the framework of what may be termed "human needs." These are: maintenance needs, relatedness needs, and growth needs.

Maintenance needs suggest that a person needs a means of support when engaging in some type of behavior. For example, security and safety provide a person with a sense of confidence. This enables him to engage in a task feeling free from danger, risk, or injury. It provides a means of support that is conducive to good health.

Relatedness needs suggest conditions which bring an individual in touch with his environment. Relatedness also suggests that a person turns his interest toward the outside world or toward persons other than oneself. For example, affiliation, belongingness, and social tendencies bring a person into a connection or relationship with other persons. Affiliation suggests that a person is inclined to join or associate himself with other persons. Belongingness means that a person wants to be a part of some activity. Social characteristics suggest that a person is inclined to seek company or that he has an interest in other people.

Growth needs suggest that a person is in the process of growing and developing. Growth also means to expand or bring out the capabilities or potentialities in a person. For example, achievement,
autonomy, self-esteem, and self-actualization suggest a process of growing. Achievement means attainment. Achievement also suggests carrying out a task with a purpose or accomplishing or finishing successfully. Autonomy indicates self-determination. It suggests that a person carries out a purpose or function independently. Self-esteem provides a person with a good opinion of himself and a feeling of worth and excellence. Self-actualization suggests a process of growth pertaining to the nature of a person. Implicit in the definition is to make real a person's potential.

This formulation is obviously very close, except in terminology, to that expressed in the studies employed in this study. As indicated earlier, studies utilizing the Maslow, Herzberg, and McClelland theories of human needs and motivation provided more than half of the empirical research in this area as it relates to organizations. Also it was pointed out that there were many studies employing other theoretical systems for their work. Figure 2 provides a model to relate these three clusters of human needs to the various research studies selected for this study.

It is important to remember that each of these three dimensions appears, sometimes separately, sometimes in combination, sometimes in all, and sometimes not at all in the studies. This model will provide
Figure 2.
Constructs of Human Needs to Concepts of Different Investigators.
the theoretical framework for reporting the findings from the literature. These three dimensions are not considered indivisible, but capable of further subdivision according to some regularity of occurrence.
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CHAPTER III

MAINTENANCE NEEDS: MASLOW RELATED, HERZBERG RELATED, MCCLELLAND RELATED, AND OTHER RELATED

Introduction

The tentative findings of this study suggest that three clusters of human needs were basically reported in the literature. This chapter will analyze the maintenance needs cluster. It was suggested that maintenance needs indicate a means of support for individuals when engaging in some type of behavior. The behavior described here will refer to perceived job satisfaction as it relates to human needs. For clarity in reporting, when possible, human needs will be linked to some variable of the organization. As reported earlier the most frequently reported organizational variables are: organizational level, line-staff hierarchies, span of control, organizational size, shape (tall or flat), and shape (centralized or decentralized).

Maslow Related Literature

It will be recalled from the review of Maslow's theory of motivation that no study included physiological needs. It was assumed
that these needs are adequately satisfied for any person; therefore, they would be irrelevant. However, most of the studies included security needs. Security needs have been classified in this study as maintenance needs.

**Needs Satisfactions (Job Context)**

Haire, Ghiselli, and Porter (13:95-117) interpreted in a general way security needs as the feelings of safety and assurance that a manager gets from a particular managerial position. From a sample of 3500 managers from 14 countries (about 200 per country), the findings indicate that the need for security was third in importance among the five needs. American managers felt it was less important than managers from most countries. For the American managers it ranked from second to fifth as most dissatisfied.

In a study conducted by Beer (3:209-222) involving 129 clerical workers, perceived needs were ranked in their order of importance. The results of the ranking were: self-actualization, autonomy, social, esteem, and security. It can be seen that security or maintenance needs are considered less important. In reporting need satisfaction, security needs are fairly well satisfied.

Also in another study of Beer (2:7365-6) it was found that satisfaction of security needs was positively related to the leadership dimension of Initiating Structure and Production Emphasis. The
findings of this study, involving clerical workers in a large insurance company, were reported by analyzing types of supervisory behavior and employees' need satisfaction.

**Organizational Level**

In a study involving 470 professionals, managerial-office, clerical, service and trades-manual, Blai (4:383-388) reports that the strongest needs as job satisfiers appear to be: interesting duties, job security, and self-actualization. Specifically, the findings indicate that the lesser prepotent needs of self-actualization, advancement, interesting duties, and leadership were all selected in greater amounts, beginning with the trades and ending with the professions. Conversely, the more prepotent needs of respect, money security, congenial independence, and job security were all selected in greater amounts in the lower socioeconomic group decreasing to least amounts among the professional groups.

In a study of managerial motivation involving 58 first-line supervisors and 63 middle managers in a federal agency, Edel (6:31-38) found that, in terms of general patterns of need fulfillment, middle managers perceived significantly fewer deficiencies in need satisfaction in job security.

In another study utilizing a sample from a government agency, Paine, Carroll, and Leete (18:247-249) found that government managers
have considerably less need satisfaction with respect to every item than similar managers from private industry. Differences are especially pronounced for the security needs. The security needs of the managerial personnel of industry were much more satisfied in both a relative and absolute sense than were the security needs of governmental managers.

Porter (19:1-10) reports in a study of perceived need satisfactions of bottom and middle management that the greatest differences in the frequency of need fulfillment deficiencies between bottom and middle management positions occur in the esteem, security, and autonomy need areas. These needs are significantly more often satisfied in middle than in bottom management. Security was seen as one of the more important areas of need satisfaction by individuals in both bottom and middle management positions. Security referred to the feeling of security in "my management position." The study involved 64 first-level supervisors and 75 from middle management positions.

Employing the Decision-Making Approach Scale in a study of 456 managers, Eran (7:424-430) reported that lower middle managers who are high on the scale are characterized by the following job attitudes relative to those who are low on this scale. Those high on the scale feel that they receive significantly more fulfillment of security, esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization needs; and they are
significantly more satisfied than the lows in the needs for security, autonomy, and self-actualization. Also he concluded that at least two factors are strongly related to job attitudes: the environment as indicated by the level of management, and personality as measured by self perception.

Rhinehart et al. (23:230-235) reports, from a study involving 2026 supervisors from the Department of Medicine and Surgery of the Veterans Administration, that security need ranked fourth in deficient needs satisfaction.

In a study of need satisfactions comparing military hierarchies to business hierarchies, Porter and Mitchell (22:139-144) indicate that the second most dissatisfied needs for the officers were esteem needs, but for the enlisted men it was the security need area. The 703 commissioned officers and 694 non-commissioned personnel were compared to a previous study by Porter. Military officers tend to be much more dissatisfied at each rank than their civilian managerial counterparts.

Johnson and Marcrum (17:457-461) reported the need fulfillment of 504 officers (Captains, Majors, Colonels), indicating that safety ranked fourth on a continuum of eight. The safety need contained a subcategory of financial security.

Ivancevich (16:274-278) studied the perceived need satisfaction of 127 overseas American managers compared to the findings of a
study conducted by Porter of domestic managers. The findings of the
Porter study show that domestic managers at both levels of the
managerial hierarchy reported that the need for security was highly
fulfilled. However, Ivancevich's study is contrary to that finding.
This study indicates that overseas middle managers report that
security needs are perceived to be less satisfied as compared to the
overseas top managers.

Shape (Tall or Flat)

Porter and Lawler (21:135-148) reported the need satisfaction
of 1913 managers from the American Management Association.
Respondents from tall organizations indicated smaller need fulfillment
deficiencies for the security need category. This category includes
the feeling of security in "my management position." For companies
employing more than 5,000 persons, the data indicates that the
security, social, and esteem need categories all produced trends toward
more satisfaction in tall than in flat organizations.

Age

Porter (20:141-148) reported that the perceived importance of
needs from 1916 managers from all levels indicates that security needs
ranked relatively higher among the five categories of needs for the
older respondents, while esteem needs tended to increase their rank
among the younger managers. The data also indicates that security
and social needs are about tied for third place and that they are fairly close to esteem needs which ranked fifth for all of the subgroups combined.

**Summary: Maintenance Needs, Maslow Related**

A review of these studies suggest that the vertical location in the organizational level appears to be an important factor in determining the extent to which maintenance needs are fulfilled. The data also suggest that shape (tall or flat) and the chronological ages of management might be a factor in maintenance need satisfaction. However, one cannot conclude with considerable confidence that shape (tall or flat) and chronological ages of managers are variables in the perception of fulfillment and satisfaction of maintenance needs. More studies are needed.

**Herzberg Related Literature**

In the review of Herzberg's theory it was noted that dissatisfiers are called "hygiene" factors because they serve to prevent dissatisfaction and they relate to the environment. These elements primarily serve to "maintain" the person rather than to spur him to positive behavior and feelings toward his job. Included in the hygiene factors are both maintenance needs and relatedness needs as used in this study.
An attempt is made in this section to report only studies that specifically mention maintenance needs. This was difficult because of the reporting procedures employed by the various investigators.

**Needs Satisfaction (Job Context)**

In a study of 1021 full-time life insurance agents, Ewen et al. (8:544-550) found that intrinsic factors are more strongly related to both overall satisfaction and overall dissatisfaction than the extrinsic factors of pay. He suggests that the functioning of the extrinsic variable may depend upon the level of satisfaction with the intrinsic variable.

This finding was supported by Halpren (14:198-200) when 93 employed males indicated that the motivator factors contributed significantly more to overall satisfaction than did the hygiene factors.

However, Herzberg (15:393-402) reported from a study of 139 Finnish supervisors that approximately 80 percent of the events describing dissatisfaction stem from the hygiene factors as opposed to only 15 percent for the events describing job satisfaction.

**Organizational Level**

It was reported by Friedlander (9:160-164) in a study involving 1935 governmental employees that the total sample of employees can be said to exhibit a predominant value of neither the more intrinsic content areas of the job nor the extrinsic contextual characteristics.
A sharply different picture emerges, however, when the value hierarchies of white-collar workers were compared with those of blue-collar workers. Blue-collar workers tend to place paramount importance on the interpersonal comfort and security of their work environment.

In support of Friedlander, Centers and Bugental (5:193-197), in a study of 692 employed adults, found that blue-collar workers placed more emphasis on extrinsic sources of pay and security.

It was concluded by Wernimont (25:41-50) that both intrinsic and extrinsic factors can be sources of both satisfaction and dissatisfaction, but intrinsic factors are stronger in both cases. Salary and working conditions were not so important to the satisfaction on the job of the high level people. This study included 50 accountants and 82 engineers.

Summary: Maintenance Needs, Herzberg Related

In summary, the lack of research studies dealing specifically with maintenance needs makes it impossible to state any final conclusion. What data there are suggest a weak association between organizational level and the perceived satisfaction of certain maintenance needs, e.g. pay and security.
McClelland Related Literature

A review of the literature revealed that no studies employing the theoretical framework of McClelland related to maintenance needs as conceptualized in this study.

Other Related Literature

Needs Satisfaction (Job Center)

The hypothesis that need type moderates the prediction of job satisfaction finds support by Graen, Davis, and Weiss (11:286-289). In a study involving 113 industrial scientists working in research and development for one company, there appears to be at least two need groups for which the relationship between need level and satisfaction on several dimensions is quite different. The largest difference between correlations was that of security. Therefore security need type moderated the relationship between preference (need) for an outcome and satisfaction with that outcome only on those most closely related to the company itself, in this case security.

In a study of motivational factors of security, financial reward, power, and self-actualization, Ghiselli (10:431-440) compared 400 middle managers to a cross section of 300 employed population using an adjective checklist. Those for whom job security is important appear to be persons for whom reliability, perseverance, and carefulness are significant values. They seem to be tidy sorts of
people. Those for whom job security is not important tend to emphasize self-reliance, intellect, and imagination. They seem to be persons who are willing to take chances. It would appear that job security and self-actualization are somewhat polar motivational factors. The results of this study give some support to the popular notion that job security is of no great importance for those in management positions.

Alderfer (1:440-460) posed the question: How does satisfaction with pay, respect from superiors, and use of skills and abilities relate to job complexity? From a study involving 300 employees in the largest division of a manufacturing company, satisfaction with pay is significantly higher in the enlarged jobs than in the regular jobs. However, there is a slight tendency for satisfaction with pay to increase as job complexity increases.

Organizational Levels

In a study by Gruenfeld (12:303-314), 52 male supervisors in 11 companies identify the order by which 18 job characteristics identified by King are preferred by supervisors. The results indicate that supervisors at the higher occupational level appear to be more secure in their position than the supervisors at the lower echelon. This was indicated by the relatively low preference for greater job security by the higher occupational group.
In a study of organizational factors, personality traits, and leadership attitudes involving 336 managers and supervisors from 5 to 6 levels from 3 companies, Siegel (24:2662-3) reported that utility managers reported more security fulfillment and satisfaction, lower "initiating structure," and more other-directed role perceptions. These results were explained in terms of lower competitive, risk-taking and decision-making climates generally attributed to utilities.

Age

In a study reported earlier by Gruenfeld (12:303-314) involving 52 male supervisors in 11 companies, it was also found that older supervisors were more concerned with working conditions and the absence of stress. The younger supervisors were more concerned with personal security in terms of higher wages and additional benefits. Moreover, both the younger and the older supervisors were more concerned with greater job security than the middle-aged group.

Chapter Summary: Maintenance Needs

This chapter began with the objective of analyzing maintenance needs in relation to the literature concerning Maslow's motivation theory, Herzberg's theory of motivation, McClelland's theory of achievement, and other theoretical frameworks. Maintenance needs were conceptualized as those needs that indicate a means of support for
individuals when engaging in some type of behavior. It was suggested that the need for security and need for safety provide a person with this sense of confidence. These enable him to engage in a task feeling free from danger, risk, or injury.

Security has been interpreted in a general way as a feeling of safety and assurance that a person gets from a particular position. The question arises: How does a person perceive the importance of security as a need to be fulfilled? Apparently in relation to other needs, security needs are perceived as being less important to certain occupational groups. For high level managers security is perceived as being of no great importance, according to Haire, Ghiselli, and Porter (13:95-117); Porter and Mitchell (22:139-144); Ghiselli (10:431-440); Friedlander (9:160-164); Centers and Bugental (5:193-196); and Johnson and Marcrum (17:457-461). It was reported by Blai (4:383-388) that security was perceived as being least important among the professional group. Porter (20:141-148) indicated that security was perceived as being more important by the older respondents than by younger respondents. Blue-collar workers tend to place paramount importance on the interpersonal comfort of security and the work environment as compared to white-collar workers, according to Friedlander (9:160-164); Centers and Bugental (5:193-197); and
Blai (4:383-388). Those to whom job security is important appear to be persons for whom reliability, perseverance, and carefulness are significant values, according to Ghiselli (10:431-440).

An analysis of the patterns of perceived satisfaction or fulfillment of security needs indicates that apparently different variables influence this satisfaction. Middle and higher level managers perceived fewer deficiencies and more fulfillment in job security than lower level managers, according to Porter (19:1-10); Edel (6:31-38); Ivancevich (16:274-278); Ghiselli (10:431-440); and Gruenfeld (12:303-314). Eran (7:424-430) reported that managers high on the decision-making approach scale receive significantly more fulfillment in security than those low on this scale. Porter and Lawler (2:135-148) reported that security need produced trends toward more satisfaction in tall than in flat organizations.

Two studies by Halpren (14:198-200) and Herzberg (15:393-402) reported that job dissatisfaction could be linked to maintenance needs. Therefore the feeling one has about his job or the organization could become an important psychological variable in effectiveness.

From these findings one could infer that the vertical location in the organizational level appears to be an important factor in determining the extent to which maintenance needs are perceived as being important to the individual or being perceived by the individual as being satisfied or fulfilled. The data would suggest that as one goes
from the lower occupational levels to the higher occupational levels the opportunity for maintenance needs to be fulfilled or satisfied is greater. The same would hold true for the perceived importance of maintenance needs.

It could be concluded that maintenance needs as conceptionalized in this study appear to affect human behavior in organizations. Also it can be concluded that safety and security could be subsumed under maintenance needs. Maintenance needs incite and trigger human behavior as a means of support that is conducive to good health. Apparently organizational structures affect some people's behavior largely through influence on employee motivation. How maintenance needs relate to educational systems needs to be explored.
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CHAPTER IV

RELATEDNESS NEEDS: MASLOW RELATED, HERZBERG
RELATED, MCCLELLAND RELATED,
AND OTHER RELATED

Introduction

The tentative findings of this study suggest three clusters of human needs as reported in the literature. The purpose of this chapter is to analyze the relatedness needs cluster. It was suggested that relatedness needs cause a person to turn his interest toward the outside world or toward persons other than oneself. It was also suggested that affiliation, belongingness, and social tendencies were specific needs reported in the literature that could be incorporated into this theoretical framework.

Maslow Related Literature

Maslow (21:80-106) (22:21-43) states that there are basic or primary needs, such as those for food, water, and sleep, which an individual first satisfies at least minimally, after which he turns to the higher-order needs, such as those for belongingness, love, and esteem. In applying Maslow's theory of motivation to an organizational
setting, it was pointed out that most studies referred to social needs as the opportunity in a position to give help to other people and the opportunity to develop close friendships.

Need Satisfaction (Job Context)

In a study by Anant (3:1137-1138) one hypothesis was that there is an inverse relation between the "sense of belongingness" and anxiety, i.e., the higher the sense of belongingness, the lower the anxiety and vice versa. Also a hypothesis was stated that there is a positive relation between "belongingness" and self-sufficiency. Belongingness was redefined as personal involvement in a social system to the extent that the person feels himself to be an indispensable and integral part of the system. The results from this study of 33 female and 14 male nursing students indicated an inverse relationship between belongingness and anxiety and between self-sufficiency and anxiety. However, the positive relationship expected between belongingness and self-sufficiency was not supported. To the extent that belongingness means involvement, love, affection and acceptance by others in the group, dependence may be an important component in belongingness.

In a study by Goldberg (15:253-257), 30 male schizophrenic patients indicated that, irrespective of program, the patients' need for belongingness were satisfied when they were working. The results
also indicate that a positive relationship between need satisfaction at work and progress in rehabilitation is consistent with the theoretical explanation that basic need gratification is a prerequisite for the healthy development of the individual.

In a study by Haire, Ghiselli, and Porter (16:95-117) involving 3500 managers in 14 countries, social needs referred to the desire to develop close friendships and the opportunity to give help to other people; thus social needs are both ingoing (from other persons) and outgoing (from the person to others). On a Maslow-related scale the findings indicate that for all managers social needs ranked in fourth place as being dissatisfaction. The U.S. managers ranked social needs third out of the five.

In a similar study Rhinehart, et al. (31:230-235) compared need satisfactions in governmental and business hierarchies and found that social need ranked fifth in deficient needs satisfaction. This study included 2036 supervisors from the Department of Medicine and Surgery of the Veterans Administration and their scores were compared to a study by Porter.

However, in a study involving 129 clerical workers who ranked needs in the order of importance, Beer (4:209-222) reports that esteem, social, and security needs are clustered together and are considerably less important than other needs.
Organizational Level

In a study examining the extent of individual need fulfillment of 504 regular United States Army Officers Johnson and Marcrum (18:457-461) concluded that perceived deficiencies in need fulfillment tend to increase at successively lower levels in the organizational hierarchy. The results indicated that the relative importance which officers attached to the eight needs used, the social need of opportunity to associate with high-caliber persons ranked fifth in importance. The results also suggest need-fulfillment opportunities are better at successively higher levels in the organizational hierarchy.

Also using a military sample, Porter and Mitchell (30:139-144) compared the perceptions of need fulfillment and satisfaction of 703 commissioned officers and 594 noncommissioned personnel to corresponding levels of managers in a similar study by Porter (26:375-384). The following pairings were made: brigadier generals and colonels to vice-presidents; lieutenant colonels and majors to upper-middle management; and captains and lieutenants to lower-middle management. One interesting finding indicated that only in the social need area did officers indicate greater fulfillment than managers across all three levels. Also security and social needs are the best satisfied for both samples. In general, military officers tend to be much more dissatisfied at each rank than their civilian managerial counterparts.
In another study, Ivancevich (17:274-278) compares the perceptions of need satisfactions of 127 American managers currently working in overseas locations to the findings of a study by Porter (28:386-397) of domestic managers. Again, as in the previous study, social needs are the most satisfied for the entire sample. However, it was also found that the social needs of domestic managers are generally more satisfied than those of their overseas counterparts.

Edel (8:31-38), in a study of managerial motivation, compared the degree of satisfaction between levels of management and differences in the importance of need satisfaction as perceived by 58 first-line supervisors and 63 middle managers in a federal agency. Contrary to expectations, middle managers displayed a greater deficiency in the fulfillment of social needs than did the first-line supervisors. Edel suggested that this may be a function of "social distance," i.e., the greater physical and social separation of middle managers from the work force necessitated by organizational hierarchy. A similar study by Porter (25:1-10) reported that the needs satisfaction of 64 first-level supervisors and 75 middle managers from three different companies supports this finding.

Another study by Porter (27:141-148) focused on the perceived importance of needs of 1916 managers from all levels. The findings indicate that security and social needs are about tied for third place, and they are fairly close to esteem needs which ranked fifth or last.
However, in the social need category, the opportunity to give help to other people becomes increasingly more important at the higher levels of management, while the opportunity to develop close friendships becomes increasingly less important at higher levels of management.

In a study comparing the need satisfaction of 71 managers in field work with the need satisfactions of 102 similar managers in central office work in a government agency, Paine, Carroll, and Leete (24:247-249) indicate that the government managers have considerably less need satisfaction with respect to every item than similar managers from private industry. Regarding the satisfaction of social needs, no significant differences were found between the field managers and the central managers. However, a significant difference was found between the governmental agency managers when compared to the managers reported in the Porter study.

Organizational Size

In a study concerned with the relationship between size of organization and perceptions of need satisfaction and need importance in management jobs, Porter (28:386-397) found that only in the social need area was there a significant trend among the three sizes of companies. In this area, individuals in larger companies consistently regarded social needs as more important than did individuals in smaller companies. It was also apparent that the results of this study
indicate that at the two lowest levels of management, small organization size seemed to be related to smaller perceived deficiencies in social need fulfillment. However, the picture was almost exactly reversed at the upper-middle and vice-president levels, where the managers in larger organizations indicated greater need satisfaction than those in smaller companies. The results from this study were obtained from a nationwide sample of 1916 managers at the presidents, vice-presidents, upper-middle, lower-middle, and lower-level positions.

**Shape (Tall and Flat)**

Porter (29:31-36) conducted a study to determine if perceived need satisfactions of managers were greater in flat or in tall organizations. In all companies respondents from tall organizations indicated smaller need fulfillment deficiencies for the social need items compared with respondents from flat organizations. These items were: the opportunity in my management position to give help to other people and the opportunity in my management position to develop close friendships. When all sizes of companies are considered, the study also indicated there is no tendency for mean need deficiencies for most items to be smaller in flat than in tall organizations. These results were obtained from 1913 managers from the American Management Association.
Summary: Relatedness Needs, Maslow Related

Relatedness needs were conceptualized as needs which bring an individual in touch with his environment. The potential of work to serve as a satisfier of relatedness needs was examined. The studies reviewed that relate to Maslow's theoretical framework suggest the following relationships between relatedness needs and organization.

First, the positive relationship between need satisfaction at work is a prerequisite for the healthy development of the individual. This was supported by the study of Goldberg (15:253-257).

Second, most of the positive relationships between need satisfaction and work were found to be associated with vertical location of the management position. Apparently fulfillment and satisfaction increase in relation to the position. The higher the position, the more fulfillment. This was confirmed by studies examining the need satisfaction in business hierarchies, military hierarchies, comparison of military hierarchies to business hierarchies, the comparison of overseas managers to domestic managers, and the comparison of government managers to civilian managers.

Third, to the degree that motivation is a function of needs, need satisfaction or fulfillment could be linked to the vertical position in the organization for certain needs.
Herzberg Related Literature

It has been pointed out that Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation contains ten separate factors describing the job environment. These factors have been labeled dissatisfiers or extrinsic factors. These factors include supervision, working conditions, interpersonal relationships with subordinates, interpersonal relationships with peers, and interpersonal relationships with superiors. All of these factors would clearly be subsumed under the category of relatedness needs as conceptualized in this study. Again it will be pointed out that in this section an attempt is made to report only studies that specifically mention the above factors. This is sometimes difficult because of the reporting procedures employed by the various investigators.

Need Satisfaction (Job Context)

Svetlik, Prien, and Barrett (36:320-324) investigated the relation of job attitudes to selected situational factors, personal characteristics of the employees, and job characteristics. The findings indicate that correlations between employee's attitude dimensions indicate increasing complexity of job content and increasing contact with people as part of the job are possibly related to an employee's attitude toward his job. The data also suggest that an employee's general morale is colored by his environment or perhaps his personal characteristics in terms of his needs and expectations.
rather than his perception of his job. Perhaps the controlling factor is the employee's perception of the company as a place to work in the community.

It has been suggested by Herzberg that job dissatisfaction can be linked to the job environment. Wernimont (39:41-50) conducted a study involving 50 accountants and 83 engineers and found that both intrinsic and extrinsic factors can be sources of both satisfaction and dissatisfaction, but intrinsic factors are stronger in both cases. Included in his job environment factors were: salary, company policies and practices, technical aspects of supervision, and working conditions. Four of these factors would relate to relatedness needs as used in this study. The results of this study were somewhat different from those predicted by Herzberg.

In support of the above study, Levine and Weitz (20:263-271) conducted a survey of job satisfaction among 93 graduate students who held assistantships in two universities. They found that a major source of dissatisfaction at both universities was found to be student voice in influencing department policy. This factor was conceptualized in the study as relating to the environment of the job context.

In a study involving 350 telephone operators, Ott (23:1767-8) found that the major source of job satisfaction was interpreted as job
context factors. The major source of job dissatisfaction consisted of items dealing with the lack of considerate and competent supervision and was interpreted as a job context factor.

Ewen (9:161-164) also found, in a study of 1021 full-time life insurance agents, that certain work-situation variables, satisfiers, produce positive, but not negative, job attitudes, while other variables, dissatisfiers, produce negative, but not positive, job attitudes. The results indicate that work itself and prestige or recognition emerged as satisfiers in this study. Ewen concluded that generalizing the Herzberg results beyond the situation in which they were obtained is not warranted.

In a study of self-actualization, which was interpreted as better adjustment in mental health, Whitsett (40:2616) reported one of his findings. It indicated that those who were judged better adjusted were more oriented toward the environmental conditions of the work situation than those who were judged less well adjusted. These findings were reported by 115 accounting and clerical employees in a manufacturing company.

Weissenberg and Gruenfeld (38:469-473) investigated the relationship between motivator and hygiene satisfaction variables to job involvement. Job involvement was considered to be a quasi-indicator of motivation. Based on a sample of 92 civil service supervisors, the findings show that, as predicted, job involvement is
unrelated to all but one of the hygiene variables: satisfaction with interpersonal relations with the superior. Also, as predicted, the motivator total satisfaction score correlated significantly with job involvement.

Organizational Level

Friedlander (11:160-164) conducted a study in an isolated community of about 12,000 people to explore the most dissatisfying factors in an employee's environment (necessarily those which are most important to him). He also asked the question: Does the nature of the environmental factor bear on the importance of the satisfaction relationship? The study involved 1935 governmental employees. The findings indicate that the satisfaction and the importance attributed to various environmental factors are unrelated when mean satisfaction or importance scores are correlated across all factors. Also, satisfaction and importance are significantly related if environmental factors are dichotomized into satisfying and dissatisfying experiences. Satisfying and dissatisfying environmental factors are of approximately equal importance. Friedlander suggests that this study adds empirical weight to earlier studies suggesting a dual motivation theory.

Friedlander (12:143-152), utilizing the same research setting, explored the relationships between job performance and job motivation.
The white-collar sample was composed of 1047 employees largely of technical personnel. The blue-collar sample of 421 was composed of hourly workers. In this study extrinsic need refers to the environment. It encompasses the interpersonal, social, and technical aspects of supervision, of the work group, and of the working conditions. The findings indicate that within the white-collar groups, low-performance employees place significantly greater importance upon the social and interpersonal characteristics of their work environment than do high performance employees. In the blue-collar sample, no significant relationships were found between any of the motivational measures and job performance. Although the importance of the social environment increased for both high and low performers, the data also indicate that, with advancing age and tenure, work became more meaningful for high performers but less meaningful for low performers.

It was hypothesized by Centers and Bugental (6:193-197) that individuals at higher occupational levels would place a greater value on intrinsic job factors than would individuals at lower occupational levels who were expected to place greater value on extrinsic job factors. Satisfying co-workers was included as one of the variables under the extrinsic source of job satisfaction. The extent to which extrinsic or intrinsic job components were valued by 692 employed adults was found to be related to occupational level. At higher
occupational levels, intrinsic job components were more valued. At lower occupational levels, extrinsic job components were more valued.

**Summary: Relatedness Needs, Herzberg Related**

It was conceptualized that relatedness needs are those needs that bring an individual in touch with his environment. The environmental or hygiene factors are referred to as dissatisfiers. Within this theoretical framework, the following relationships emerged utilizing the concept of relatedness needs for this study.

First, when utilizing the two-factor theory of motivation, one must exercise caution in comparing or inferring relationships. This is linked to the classification of satisfiers and dissatisfiers and the reporting style of the investigators.

Second, the data suggest that need satisfaction and job motivation have expected relationships to occupational levels. In general, intrinsic job factors were perceived as being more important in the higher levels, and extrinsic factors were perceived as being more important in the lower levels.

Third, in terms of overall need satisfaction or motivation, some studies suggest the hypothesis that intrinsic factors are more
important in the intrinsic-extrinsic dichotomy. The findings indicated that the dichotomy is sometimes inaccurate. Ewen (19:161-164), Levine and Weitz (20:263-271), and Wernimont (39:41-50) would support this conclusion.

Fourth, it is reasonable to conclude from the data that apparently either extrinsic or intrinsic factors can cause both satisfied and dissatisfied feelings about a person's work.

The above implication suggests that if motivation is a function of needs, then a further clarification of the relationship between relatedness needs and their perceived satisfaction or dissatisfaction as they relate to organizational behavior must be clarified.

McClelland Related Literature

Introduction

According to McClelland, it is not profit per se that makes the businessman tick but a strong desire for achievement— for doing a good job. Implicit in this assumption is the possibility that an individual must relate or come into contact with another person to fulfill this strong need for achievement. McClelland's theoretical framework of need achievement would not be subsumed under the cluster of relatedness need as conceptualized in this study. The individual who is highly motivated by the need for achievement may need other people to help him satisfy this need, but his relationship with other persons
will be determined by other needs. Affiliation need is an example of this relationship. If the study is McClelland related and it differentiates this relationship, the other needs for example affiliation would be included under the theoretical framework of relatedness needs as used in this study.

Need Satisfaction (Job Context)

Cummin (7:78-81) hypothesized, in a study involving 52 businessmen and using a specially constructed Thematic Apperception Test (TAT), that more successful executives would score high in n Achievement, n Power, and n Autonomy, whereas less successful executives would have high scores in n Affiliation, n Aggression, and n Deference. The deference motive was chosen because Whyte states that one of the major drives of the potentially unsuccessful executive is to become a part of the organization, whereas the potentially successful executive, with his well-defined self-identity, chooses to remain emotionally disconnected from his firm. The power motive was chosen primarily because of research findings which suggest that successful executives are constantly struggling for increased responsibility. The results of the study indicate that the successful group had higher scores in n Achievement and n Power than unsuccessful ones.
In another study focusing upon the relationship between their motivation and company performance, 51 technical entrepreneurs were studied. Wainer and Rubin (37:178-184) hypothesized a direct and positive relationship between an entrepreneur's n Achievement and the performance of his company. No directional hypothesis were specified concerning the relationships between n Power, n Affiliation, and company performance. The data suggest that within this sample, n Achievement, n Power, and n Affiliation appear to be positively related to n Power and negatively to n Affiliation, while n Power is negatively related to n Affiliation. The data also indicated that the highest performing companies were led by entrepreneurs who exhibited a high n Achievement and a moderate n Power.

Summary: Relatedness Needs, McClelland Related

It is difficult to interpret the findings of these studies utilizing the McClelland theoretical framework with regard to relatedness needs. Analysis of the results tend to suggest the following relationships.

First, the relationship among n Achievement, n Power, and n Affiliation are not completely independent. This was supported by Wainer and Rubin's (37:178-184) study.

Second, even though this relationship is not completely independent, the behavioral manifestation of n Achievement, n Affiliation, and n Power are different. The n Power and n Affiliation
are interpersonally oriented needs. They imply in their definitions the existence of other people who can influence and control a person or with whom he can be friends. A person that has a high need for achievement may or may not relate to other people.

Other Related Literature

Needs Satisfaction (Job Context)

Forward (10:2772) in a study involving 24 four-man groups, hypothesized that tendencies based on the relative strength of individual motives to achieve success and to avoid failure are aroused in the group situation. Based on the desire to avoid group failure and the strength of the desire to achieve group success, these tendencies will constitute independent sources of motivation. The finding indicates that members who are strongly motivated to seek social approval (high in n Affiliation) reveal significantly stronger tendencies to conform to the majority aspirations of other members than members who are weakly motivated to gain social approval (low n Affiliation).

There has been a good deal of speculation about the functions of various motivational factors in the performance of managers. In a study by Ghiselli (13:431-440), 400 middle management men were compared to 300 men from a cross section of the employed population. One of the motivational factors studied was the need for power over other people. Using an adjective checklist, it was found that people
who regard themselves as solid, mature, and careful regard power over others as a matter of moment. Tolerant and considerate persons are likely to be those with little desire for such power. The findings indicate that on the scale concerned with power over other people, the average of the scores of middle management people is precisely the same as that of the general population. Ghiselli concluded that power over other people apparently is almost completely unrelated to success in middle management positions.

The influence of needs on interpersonal selection was examined in a study by Rychlak (33:334-340). The influence of need similarity, for example, need dominance and need compatibility or need nurturance and need succorance and of need incompatibility, for example, need order and need change, on interpersonal selection was studied. The study involved 96 males who were beginning their business careers in a large telephone company. The data indicate that persons high in nurturance are more likely to choose persons with high needs for succorance as neighbors than are persons low in nurturance. Persons who have a high need for exhibition are more likely to reject persons as possible employees on the ground of their low need for affiliation than are persons who have a low need for exhibition. This finding is essentially in support of the compatibility of needs, even
though it suggests that the less affiliative persons were rejected because the more exhibitionistic persons sensed an incompatibility in interpersonal relations.

In another study dealing with the compatibility of needs, Kuhlen (19:56-64) hypothesized that those individuals whose measured needs are relatively stronger than the potential of the occupation for satisfying those needs (as they perceive this potential) will tend to be frustrated and hence to be less well satisfied with their occupation. A questionnaire was administered to 108 men and 95 women teachers, and the findings indicated that both sexes agreed that needs for affiliation, intraception, dominance, nurturance, and endurance might be readily satisfied in the teaching profession, but that the individuals with strong needs for autonomy, succorance, abasement, and aggression would likely be extremely frustrated.

Sexton (34:337-343) hypothesized that a person has a need to feel that he is valued by others, that his achievements are acknowledged, and that his achievements are communicated to others. The findings indicate that there was a significant negative correlation between job structure and the satisfaction discrepancy of affiliation need of 83 hourly paid employees in a large manufacturing plant.
Leadership

The relationships between decision-making ability and the dominance needs and other aspects of dominant behavior were explored by Gibby, Gibby, and Hogan (14:450-452). The results indicate that while neither perceived nor desired dominance was related to decision-making, it was related to the degree of discrepancy between the two dominance need measures. The greater the discrepancy between the perceived and desired dominant need scores, the higher the decision-making ability was found to be. The study involved 56 male military and civilian personnel.

In another study of leadership style, Bowers (5:23-28) assumed that foremen are more motivated personally to achieve than to affiliate (although by no means were they necessarily adverse to the latter), and it followed that their self-esteem, their judgments of themselves regarding their performance, will be in terms of the satisfaction which they perceive to exist. The study involved 17 foremen and 330 subordinates, and the findings indicate that the comparative scores on need for achievement and need for affiliation demonstrate that they are more achievement than affiliation oriented.

Rowland and Scott (32:365-377) investigated a combination of a number of psychological attributes hypothesized to be related to effective leadership among first-line supervisors. Fifty-eight first-line supervisors and their 673 subordinates participated in this study.
The results show only two meaningful and significant positive correlations between the four manifest needs (achievement, autonomy, dominance, aggression) of the leader and the measures of work group satisfactions and performance. These two correlations are between the need for aggression and work group satisfaction with the supervisor (his success as a leader) and work group performance. It seems that successful leaders in this situation have the need to be aggressive but no strong need for achievement or success. A number of significant positive correlations are noted between the need for aggression and the measures of upward influence. Significantly positive correlations are noted between the need for aggression and the need for autonomy and dominance.

Organizational Level

In a study involving 300 randomly selected employees in the largest division of a manufacturing company, Alderfer (2:440-460) found that satisfaction with respect from superiors decreased as job complexity increased and as seniority increased. Relatedness need in this study referred to the respect from superiors. Also reported in the same study was a job enlargement project which had been carried out in the same company, and the same effect was evident. Compared with employees holding analogous but narrowly delimited jobs, the
employees holding enlarged jobs showed less satisfaction with respect from superiors and more satisfaction with opportunities to use their skill and abilities.

A study to determine critical factors of the internal organizational environment as identified by managers at various levels in the formal organization was carried out by Abrahamson (1:3819-3820). Of the five factors that received the greatest mention in the extremely important category, two were related to relatedness needs: participation in decision-making and mutual trust existing between superiors and subordinates.

A study to identify the relative importance of needs purportedly related to work, as well as the accuracy with which supervisors are able to predict job-needs of subordinates by simply requiring the ranking of a list of job-need items in order of their relative overall importance was conducted by Schwartz, Jenusaitis, and Stark (35:185-194). In this study 154 utility employees and 84 utility supervisors, 113 manufacturing employees and 95 manufacturing supervisors indicated that for all age groups, belonging, loyalty, tactful disciplining, and help with personal problems are obviously less highly valued satisfactions than those ranked in the high cluster of security, wages and working conditions, and interesting work.
Summary: Relatedness Needs, Other Theoretical Framework

In summarizing the studies employing other related theoretical framework concerning relatedness needs, the following relationships emerge.

First, it appears that the role relationship within which people relate is an important factor in determining whether need compatibility will be sought or whether need incompatibility will be tolerated. This relationship examined and supported by Rychlak (33:334-340) dealt with the influence of needs on interpersonal selection. Also Kuhlen (19:56-64) explored the compatibility of needs to the potential occupation for satisfying those needs.

Second, apparently there is a positive relationship between a number of relatedness needs attributes and styles of leadership behavior. The results of a study by Gibby, Gibby, and Hogan (14:450-452) indicated that while perceived or desired, dominance need was related to decision-making; it was related to the degree of discrepancy between the perceived and desired dominance score. In another study, Chiselli (13:431-44)) reported that in a position at the middle management level the desire for power over others appears to be unrelated to success. However, in another study, Bowers (5:23-28) found that supervisors were more achievement than affiliation oriented, and Rowland and Scott (32:365-377) found positive relationships between the need for aggression and the need for autonomy and dominance.
Third, the findings relating to organizational levels suggest that no clear patterns emerged from these studies. Alderfer (2:440-460) suggested that as job complexity increased and as seniority increased, satisfaction with respect from supervisors decreased. He conceptualized this as a relatedness need.

**Chapter Summary: Relatedness Needs**

The purpose of this chapter was to analyze the relatedness needs to the findings from the literature relating to Maslow's theory of motivation, Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation, McClelland's theory of n Achievement, and studies utilizing other theoretical frameworks. Relatedness needs were conceptualized as those needs which bring an individual in touch with his environment. Relatedness needs also suggest that a person has a need to relate to people, to have friends, to have the feeling of belonging, and to be accepted by other people. It was offered for exploration that affiliation needs, belongingness needs, and social needs could be thought of as specific examples of maintenance needs.

Affiliation needs suggest that a person is inclined to join or associate himself with other people. Forward (10:2772) found that persons who are strongly motivated to seek social approval (high in n Affiliation) reveal significantly stronger tendencies to conform to the majority aspirations of other members than members who are
weakly motivated to gain social approval. These findings would tend to suggest that a person who is highly motivated in n Affiliation might have a tendency to manifest power or aggressive behavior to fulfill these needs. Wainer and Rubin (37:178-184) found that need achievement, n Power, and n Affiliation appears to be positively related to n Power and negatively related to n Affiliation, while n Power is negatively related to n Affiliation. However, Ghiselli (13:431-440) concluded that power over other people apparently is almost completely unrelated to success in middle management.

Belongingness needs have been conceptualized as those needs that cause a person to desire to be a part of some activity. It implies that a person desires a personal involvement in an activity to the extent that he feels himself to be an integral part of the activity. This activity could be linked or interpreted as organizational activity. Goldberg (15:253-257) has indicated that needs for belongingness were satisfied when schizophrenic patients were working, irrespective of program or activity. In another study, Anant (3:1137-1138) found that the higher the sense of belongingness, the lower the anxiety, as reported by his sample.

Social needs suggest that a person is inclined to seek company or that he has an interest in other people. In general, social needs as
utilized in the literature have referred to the opportunity in a position to give help to other people and the opportunity to develop close friendships.

The studies report several relationships concerning the importance of social needs as perceived by individuals in organizations. Beer (4:209-222) reported that social needs in a cluster are considerably less important than other needs. However, Porter (27:141-148) found that, in the social need category, the opportunity to give help to other people became increasingly more important and to develop close friendships became increasingly less important at higher levels of management. In another study by Porter (28:386-397) it was found that individuals in large companies regarded social needs as more important than did individuals in smaller companies. In white-collar groups, low-performance employees place greater importance than do high-performance employees upon social needs, as reported by Friedlander (12:143-152).

In relation to other needs or clusters of needs, the findings of several studies indicate that social needs were generally perceived as satisfied or fulfilled. This is supported by Haire, Ghiselli, and Porter (16:95-117), reported from managers from 14 countries; Rhinehart, et al. (31:230-235) in governmental and business hierarchies; Johnson and Marcrum (18:457-461), reported that opportunities are better at
successively higher levels in the hierarchy; Porter and Mitchell (30:139-144), from military officers and business managers; Ivancevich (17:274-278), from domestic managers and overseas managers; Porter (29:31-36), reported greater in flat than in tall organizations; and Centers and Bugental (6:193-197), reported better satisfied in the upper hierarchy.

The above patterns emerging from these studies give some support to the notion that relatedness needs in individuals have a great impact upon the organization and that the organization has a great impact upon the individual. Apparently most of the positive relationships between relatedness needs perceived satisfaction or perceived importance were found to be associated with the vertical location of the occupational positions. It would appear that the higher the position, the more opportunities the person has to fulfill or satisfy relatedness needs.

In summary, it could be stated with some degree of assurance that the organization, through its structure and organizational and environmental climate, has a deep impact on the individual's relationship to the organization. Each individual with his own particular patterns of relatedness needs, his perceptions, his level of aspiration, or his tendency to conform to or deviate from organizational norms is of primary importance in working with people in the organization. The organizational environment in which the individual
will relate in an attempt to fulfill or satisfy his relatedness needs is of great importance in examining motivational patterns of organizational behavior in educational organizations.
REFERENCES


CHAPTER V

GROWTH NEEDS: MASLOW RELATED, HERZBERG RELATED
MCCLELLAND RELATED, AND OTHER RELATED

Introduction

Three clusters of human needs emerged from the literature findings of this study. The purpose of this chapter is to report the findings from the literature concerning growth needs. Growth needs were conceptualized as those needs that bring out the capabilities or potentialities in a person. Growth needs also suggest that a person is in the process of growing or developing. Examples of growth needs might include achievement need, autonomy need, self-esteem need, and self-actualization need. How these growth needs relate or influence organizational behavior is the primary concern of this chapter.

Maslow Related Literature

Maslow (36:80-106) (37:21-43) states that there are basic or primary needs that an individual satisfies at least minimally first, after which he turns to higher-order needs. Finally, if the individual
has achieved some degree of gratification of these first-order and middle-order needs, he may strive to satisfy the highest order need, that of self-actualization. Maslow describes self-actualization as the desire to become more and more what one is, to become everything that one is capable of becoming.

**Needs Satisfaction (Job Context)**

In a study designed to test an aspect of Maslow's motivation theory extended to rehabilitation, Goldberg (21:253-257) found that patient's needs for esteem were satisfied when they were working, irrespective of program. The results based on 30 male schizophrenic patients also indicated that a positive relationship between need satisfaction at work and progress in rehabilitation is conducive to the healthy development of the individual.

Also in a study involving 81 mental health patients and 77 non-patients Goldstein (22:2123-2124) attempted to clarify the relationship of ungratified needs to mental health. The findings of this study suggest that ungratified needs appear to influence the following factors. The greater the number of unsatisfied needs, the poorer the mental health of all subjects. The more unmet basic needs, the greater the anxiety in patients. The more needs that go unfulfilled, the weaker the patient's ego strength. The greater number of ungratified needs, the greater the patient's reaction to threat. When
there is an increase in unmet needs, patients decrease their ability to control their impulse. As ungratified needs increase, the discrepancy or dissatisfaction with real self as compared to ideal self increases.

According to Maslow, self-actualizing individuals are seen as those who more fully use their "talents, capacities, potentialities, etc." Such people seem to be fulfilling themselves and to be doing the best they are capable of doing. On the basis of the above rationale, Knapp (32:168-172) examined the relationship between self-actualization and mental health in 136 university students. The study focused on the relationship of a measure of self-actualization to neuroticism and extroversion. The findings indicate that self-actualization is seen to be positively and significantly related to the lack of neurotic symptoms and tendencies.

The chief aim of a study by Beer (4:209-222) was to determine if differences in need satisfaction exist between jobs of differing complexity. The data for this study were collected from 129 clerical workers. The important finding is that clerical employees rank needs in the following order of importance: self-actualization, autonomy, social, esteem, and security. Self-actualization was by far the most important need, with autonomy second but considerably less important. Also there was no substantial difference in need satisfaction patterns
between clerical employees in routine jobs and those in more complex jobs. Self-actualization was the least satisfied need; however, autonomy was fairly well satisfied among the clerical employees.

In a study to examine Maslow's proposed hierarchy of motivational needs for estimating job satisfaction from a measure of need satisfaction, Blai (5:81-82) reported that in general, without reference to individual occupations, the strongest needs as job satisfiers appear to be: interesting duties, job security, and self-actualization. Occupations selected for this study of 470 people were professional, managerial-official, clerical, service, and trades-manual. The data also indicated that the less prepotent needs of self-actualization, advancement, interesting duties, and leadership were selected with increasing frequency from low by the trades group up to high by the professionals.

In a study involving 310 managers Patinka (45:1862) attempted to identify basic dimensions of job preferences. With regard to the Maslow theory of motivation, the data seem to corroborate his postulation of the existence of a hierarchy of relative prepotency within the realm of basic human needs. When confronted with a choice situation, the tendency was for those men least satisfied in terms of lower job needs to indicate a greater desire for satisfaction of such needs. As regards to the higher-order job needs, it is apparent that those already most satisfied tended to express the desire for still
greater satisfaction. Thus, while the lower-order job needs appear to have a point of satisfaction, the desire for higher-order needs seem almost unlimited.

Leadership

Eran (15:424-430) investigated the job attitudes of lower-middle managers in relation to their scores on a self-perception personality instrument. The results from 456 managers from 3 companies indicated that managers who are high on the self-perception personality instrument are characterized by the following job attitudes relative to those who are low on this scale. First, they feel that they receive significantly more fulfillment of security, esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization needs. Second, they are significantly more satisfied than the lows in the needs for security, autonomy, and self-actualization, and they are also somewhat but not significantly more satisfied in the esteem need. Third, they perceive esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization needs as being significantly more important to themselves than do the lows. Fourth, they perceive their own positions to require significantly more emphasis on the necessity for inner-directed behavior when compared to the lows.

In a study examining the relationship between individual needs and supervisory behavior, Beer (3:7365-7366) found from a sample of clerical workers in an insurance company that the leadership
dimensions of consideration and freedom of action were related positively to the perceived satisfaction of esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization needs.

**Organizational Level**

In a study to investigate the perceptions of need fulfillment deficiencies and need importance, Porter (52:1-10) reported the following findings from 64 bottom management and 75 middle management individuals in three separate industrial organizations. The greatest differences in the frequency of need-fulfillment deficiencies between bottom and middle management positions occurs in the esteem, security, and autonomy needs areas. These needs are significantly more often satisfied in middle than in bottom management. Higher-order psychological needs are relatively the least satisfied needs in both bottom and middle management. Self-actualization and security are seen as a more important area of need satisfaction than the areas of social, esteem, and autonomy by individuals in both bottom and middle management positions. The highest order need of self-actualization is the most critical need area of those studies, in terms of both perceived deficiency in fulfillment and perceived importance to the individual. This was true in both bottom and middle management. This need is not perceived as significantly more satisfied at the middle management level than at the bottom management level.
Another study by Porter (49:141-148) involving 1916 managers focused on the perceived importance of needs to the individual rather than on the perceived satisfaction or fulfillment. The findings indicate that there was some relationship between vertical level of position within management and degree of perceived importance of needs. Higher-level managers placed relatively more emphasis on self-actualization and autonomy needs than did lower-level managers. For each of the other three types of needs, however, there were no differences between responses from higher-level versus lower-level managers.

Porter and Mitchell (56:139-144) examined the relationship of the perceptions of need fulfillment and satisfaction with fulfillment of commissioned officers from an Air Force Command; and these results were compared with those of analogous levels of managers in civilian industries as reported previously by Porter. Involved in the study were 703 commissioned officers and 594 noncommissioned personnel. The findings showed that the military officers were less fulfilled and less satisfied than their civilian counterparts. However, fulfillment and satisfaction increased in relation to military rank in the same way as for civilian managers. The data also showed that both managers and military officers indicate that the most dissatisfied are the self-actualization needs. However, the two samples differ in terms of the next most dissatisfied need. For the managers it is autonomy, while
for the officers it is esteem. Another interesting finding indicated that when commissioned officers were compared with noncommissioned officers, higher-ranking NCO's reported more fulfillment but less satisfaction than lower-ranking commissioned officers.

Another study to examine the extent of individual need fulfillment of regular United States Army officers at three different levels in the organizational hierarchy was conducted by Johnson and Marcrum (31:457-461). A total of 504 regular Army officers ranked the feeling of worthwhile accomplishment, the opportunity to realize full potential, and the opportunity for independent through and actions as the three most important needs. Other needs were financial security, opportunity to associate with high caliber persons, recognition, opportunity to exercise authority, and prestige. In addition, the findings showed that perceived deficiencies in need fulfillment tend to increase at successively lower levels in the organizational hierarchy. Also in general, need-fulfillment deficiencies are greatest for the needs in the ego and self-actualization categories.

Ivancevich (30:274-278) compares the perceptions of need satisfactions of 127 American managers currently working in overseas locations to their domestic counterparts in a study utilizing the data reported by Porter. The findings indicate that no matter how the
Managers were classified, by job level or domestic and overseas, the autonomy and self-actualization need categories are the least fulfilled.

In another study involving 3500 managers in 14 countries (about 200 per country) by Haire, Ghiselli, and Porter (24:95-117), the following results were reported regarding the cultural patterns in the role of the managers. The most striking finding concerning managerial feelings about the importance of different needs is the relative similarity of thinking from country to country with regard to a particular need. Those types of needs which are considered most important in one country tend to be regarded as most important in other countries. Likewise, those needs considered least important in a particular country are usually also thought to be least important by managers in other countries. In every country, without exception, needs for self-actualization were deemed most important. This means that, at least at the level of response, managers put primary emphasis on opportunities for growth, for realizing their potential, and for worthwhile accomplishment. Also in all countries (except Japan) self-actualization was the least satisfied of all the five needs.

Three studies are reported that deal with need satisfaction in governmental agencies. The first study compares the need satisfaction of upper-middle level managers in field jobs with those in central office jobs. Paine, Carroll, and Leete (44:247-249), in a study
involving 71 field managers and 102 central office managers, indicate that the field managers felt significantly more satisfied than central-office managers with respect to their needs for self-esteem, independent thought and action, growth and development, and sense of self-fulfillment. They conclude that in this agency field work was somewhat more satisfying than central office work, especially in the self-actualization need category. They also indicate that the government managers have considerably less need satisfaction with respect to every item than similar managers from private industry as reported by Porter.

The second study was designed to assess those aspects of the job which were perceived as satisfying or dissatisfying to first-line supervisors and middle managers employed by a large government agency. Edel (13:31-38) involved 58 first-line supervisors and 63 middle managers from a federal agency. Among the findings of the study were the following. First, the greatest differences in the frequency of need-fulfillment deficiencies between first-line supervisors and middle managers occurred in the esteem, security, and autonomy need areas. These needs were reported as satisfied more often in middle management than in first-line supervisory position. Second, higher order needs are relatively the least satisfied in both first-line supervisory and middle management positions. Third,
middle management positions are seen as providing less need satisfaction in the social and self-actualization categories than is the case for first-line supervisors.

The third study, reported by Rhinehart, et al. (57:230-235), involved 2026 supervisors from the Department of Medicine and Surgery of the Veterans Administration. The results of this study were also compared to a business and industry sample reported by Porter. Among the conclusions of this study are: First, both groups show positive relationships between vertical location in the management hierarchy and a need satisfaction, with satisfaction decreasing as the management scale is descended. Second, for both groups the two highest order needs, autonomy and self-actualization, are less satisfied at all management levels. Third, although the position-level satisfaction patterns and need deficits were similar, the degree of dissatisfaction of the government group was markedly greater when assessed in terms of the overall needs at all four management levels.

**Line Staff Hierarchies**

In a study focused on differences in perceptions of the degree of fulfillment and importance of several types of psychological needs associated with line versus staff types of management jobs, Porter (50:267-275) reports the following findings from 1082 vice-presidents, upper middle level, lower middle level, and lower level managers
from a wide variety of types of companies. First, the data indicate that the esteem needs, autonomy needs, and self-actualization needs produced definite trends for perceived need fulfillment deficiencies to increase from line to line and staff to staff jobs. Second, the trend for line managers to be more satisfied than staff managers is significant in the self-actualization need area and approaches significance in the esteem need area. Third, the data clearly show the absence of trends in the security, social, esteem, and self-actualization areas, and the presence of a strong trend in the autonomy area. The autonomy need produces a highly significant trend for line personnel to attach more importance to this need than staff or combined line-staff managers. Fourth, the conclusion then is that line managers tend to be more satisfied for almost all types of specific needs, with the single exception of chances to exercise independent thought and action.

Two studies previously reviewed in this section have bearing on need satisfactions or need importance at the line-staff hierarchies.

Porter (49:141-148) found that line managers tend to be more satisfied for almost all types of needs. The needs of esteem, security, and autonomy were perceived as having the greatest deficiencies between first-line supervisors and middle managers as reported by Edel (13:31-38). Middle managers reported more perceived satisfaction.
**Organizational Size**

Another study by Porter (51:386-397) was concerned with the relationship between size of organization and perceptions of need satisfaction and need importance in management jobs. The data for this study was from a nationwide sample of 1916 managers. The data indicate that the lower and lower-middle management levels of small company managers were more frequently satisfied in all five need areas of security, social, esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization. But at higher levels of management, large company managers were more satisfied than small company managers.

**Shape--Tall or Flat**

Porter and Lawler (55:135-148) investigated the relation of tall versus flat types of organizational structure to managerial job satisfaction in a study involving 1913 managers from the American Management Association representing all levels of management in all sizes and types of companies. An examination of the data indicates that a tall type of structure seems especially advantageous to producing security and social need satisfactions, whereas a flat structure has superiority in influencing self-actualization satisfactions. For the esteem and autonomy areas, the type of structure seemed to have relatively little effect.
In another study examining the hypothesis that organizational variables tend to be interrelated in their relationships to managerial motivation, ElSalmi, and Cummings (14:465-477) report from 425 managers that tall organization structures were found to produce relatively less need fulfillment deficiencies than flat structures but more than intermediate structures. However, when the variable of job level is taken into consideration it is apparent that at top levels of management taller structures produce significantly less need fulfillment deficiencies than both flat and intermediate structures. On the other hand, at lower levels of management tall structures produce significantly more need fulfillment deficiencies than the other two types.

**Summary: Growth Needs, Maslow Related**

Growth needs were conceptualized as those needs that tend to expand or bring out the capabilities or potentialities in a person. In order to study individual behavior in organizations, an attempt has been made to examine the literature in terms of Maslow's hierarchy-of-needs motivation theory. In summarizing the studies employing the Maslow hierarchy-of-needs theoretical framework, the following relationships emerge.

First, it can be concluded, with considerable confidence from the findings of these studies, that the vertical location of management
position appears to be an important variable in determining the extent to which growth needs are perceived as being important or perceived as being fulfilled or satisfied. Apparently the higher the level in the organization, the more importance is placed on the opportunity to fulfill or satisfy certain growth needs as compared to lower levels in the organization. In support of the above, Porter (52:1-10) suggests esteem and autonomy have the greatest deficiencies between bottom and middle management and that they are more often satisfied in middle than in bottom management. In another study, Porter (49:141-148) found high-level managers placed more emphasis on self-actualization and autonomy needs than did lower-level managers. Porter and Mitchell (56:139-144) reported that fulfillment and satisfaction increased in relation to military rank in the same way as for civilian managers. Johnson and Marcrum (31:457-461) reported that perceived deficiencies in need fulfillment tend to increase at successively lower levels in the organizational hierarchy. Edel (13:31-38) indicated that esteem and autonomy needs were satisfied more often in middle management than first-line supervisory positions. Rhinehart, et al. (57:230-235) reported a positive relationship between vertical location in the management hierarchy and need satisfaction, with satisfaction decreasing as the management scale is descended.
Second, the findings would suggest that apparently the highest order need of self-actualizing is the most critical need in terms of both perceived deficiency in fulfillment and perceived importance to the individual in all levels of management. The following studies reported support this conclusion. Beer (4:209-222) found that self-actualization was by far the most important need reported by clerical workers. Porter (52:1-10) found that self-actualization in both bottom and middle management is the most critical need area of those studied, in terms of perceived deficiency in fulfillment and perceived importance to the individual. Porter and Mitchell (56:139-144) reported that both managers and military officers indicate that the most dissatisfied are the self-actualization needs. Johnson and Marcrum (31:457-461) reported that army officers ranked self-actualization as one of the three most important needs. Haire, Ghiselli, and Porter (24:95-117) found that in all 14 countries studied, without exception, needs for self-actualization were deemed most important.

Third, the results of the studies reviewed offer some support and suggest an interesting implication in that military officers tend to be much more dissatisfied at each level or rank than their civilian counterparts. However, the military hierarchy appears to correspond to the business hierarchy in that the opportunity for growth need fulfillment is greater at successively higher levels. The studies of Porter and Mitchell (56:139-144) and the study of Johnson and
Marcrum (31:457-461) lend support to this finding. Also, according to the findings of Paine, Carroll, and Leete (44:247-249), Edel (13:31-38), and Rhinehart, et al. (57:230-235), apparently managers working in governmental agencies indicate much less satisfaction in need fulfillment than private industry managers.

In summary, it appears that one of the most critical aspects of the organization would be to find ways to permit and encourage the continual growth and development of the individual.

**Herzberg Related Literature**

**Introduction**

It has been pointed out that Herzberg's (27:44-49) two-factor theory of motivation contains job satisfiers that are determined by the feeling that the individual has toward the content of his job. These included: task achievement, recognition for achievement, intrinsic interest in the task, increased task responsibility, advancement or occupational growth, and the possibility of occupational growth. These satisfiers serve to provide for the human need to exercise one's capabilities or the surplus potentiality of the brain as an instrumentality for psychological growth. The experience of growth can arise only when there is the opportunity to achieve success in the performance of some task.
Need Satisfaction (Job Context)

A study by Herzberg (26:393-402) involving 139 Finnish supervisors was designed to replicate studies pertaining to the motivation-hygiene theory. The data from this study indicate that almost 90 percent of the positive feelings at work were brought about by one or more of the motivator factors while less than 10 percent of the negative attitudes involved the motivators. Five of the six motivators are found to be significantly uni-directional in the predicted direction; the only one not found more frequently in the high versus the low feeling sequence was the possibility for growth. It was also concluded that job attitudes of low-level managers in Finland are the same as the attitudes of American engineers and accountants reported in an earlier study by Herzberg.

It should be noted that the motivator-hygiene theory does not predict level of satisfaction with any single factor, whether it be hygiene or motivator. Using this rationale Halpren's study (25:198-200) involving 93 employed males obtained ratings of 4 motivator job aspects and 4 hygiene job aspects and overall job satisfaction. The data indicated that two of the job aspects--work itself and opportunity for achievement, both motivators--accounted for 74 percent of the variance in ratings of overall satisfaction. Opportunity for achievement was conceptualized as the opportunity to achieve something one considers worthwhile, opportunities for successful accomplishments. It was
also found, as predicted by the motivator-hygiene theory, that the motivator factors contributed more to overall satisfaction than did the hygiene factors.

Weissenberg and Gruenfeld (63:469-473) investigated the relationship between motivator and hygiene satisfaction variables to job involvement. Involving 96 civil service supervisors, the findings indicate that motivator, but not hygiene, satisfaction variables correlated with job involvement. Specifically, job involvement is related to satisfaction with recognition, achievement, and responsibility. The relationships between job involvement and satisfaction with work itself, and between job involvement and advancement, are not quite significant. The total motivator satisfaction scores accounted for considerably more variance in overall job satisfaction than did hygiene variables.

The salient reasons for current job satisfaction were compared for high and low levels of job satisfaction from 613 technicians in the framework of the two factor hypothesis in a study by Hinrichs and Mischkind (23:191-200). Four findings about the relative frequency of positive and negative reasons were reported in relation to motivated factors, positive and negative reasons, and level of job satisfaction. First, it was confirmed that hygiene variables were mentioned relatively more often as negative than as positive reasons by high satisfaction persons. Second, it was confirmed that hygiene variables
were mentioned relatively more often as positive than as negative reasons by low satisfaction persons. Third, it was confirmed that motivators were mentioned relatively more often as positive than as negative reasons by high satisfaction persons. Fourth, it was not accepted that motivator variables were mentioned relatively more often as negative than as positive reasons by low satisfaction persons. However, the relationship between level of job satisfaction and the type of motivation factors was analyzed and the following was reported: greater proportion of hygiene factors are mentioned as negative as opposed to positive reasons, and a greater proportion of motivator factors are mentioned as positive as opposed to negative reasons.

Myers (41:73-88) reports the results of a six-year study at a large instrument company to determine the factors that motivate workers. The study indicates that the factors in the work situation which motivate employees are different from the factors that dissatisfy employees. For most individuals, the greatest satisfaction and the strongest motivation are derived from achievement, responsibility, growth, advancement, work itself, and earned recognition. Dissatisfaction more often springs from factors peripheral to the task. When opportunities for meaningful achievement are eliminated, the employees apparently become sensitized to their environment and begin to find fault.
Ewan, et al. (16:544-550), in a study designed to test empirically the two-factor theory, report the following results from the findings of 793 male employees. The data indicate that intrinsic factors are more strongly related to both overall satisfaction and overall dissatisfaction than extrinsic factors and suggest that the functioning of the extrinsic variable may depend on the level of satisfaction with the intrinsic variable.

Organizational Level

The major purpose of a study by Wernimont (64:41-50) was to test the Herzberg findings that the five major factors related to the doing of the job itself (recognition, achievement, work itself, advancement, and responsibility) are the primary determiners of job satisfaction and that the five major factors related to the job environment (salary, company policies and practices, technical aspects of supervision, interpersonal relations in supervision, and working conditions) cause job dissatisfaction. It was concluded, from the findings of 50 accountants and 82 engineers from a variety of companies, that both intrinsic and extrinsic factors can be sources of both satisfaction and dissatisfaction, but intrinsic factors are stronger in both cases.

A study conducted by Centers and Bugental (7:193-197) was intended to extend the available information on the role of intrinsic and extrinsic job factors as motivators by studying the motivational
strength at higher occupational levels and lower occupational level. The extent to which extrinsic or intrinsic job components were valued was found to be related to occupational level in this study involving 692 employed adults. At higher occupational levels, intrinsic job components were more valued. At lower occupational levels, extrinsic job components were more valued.

In a study Friedlander (18:160-164) attempted to determine if the most dissatisfying factors in an employee's environment are necessarily those which are most important to him and if the nature of the environmental factor bears on the importance satisfaction relationship. The findings from 1935 governmental employees may be summarized as follows: First, when mean satisfaction importance scores are correlated across all factors, the satisfaction and the importance attributed to various environmental factors are unrelated. Second, satisfaction and importance are significantly related if environmental factors are dichotomized into satisfying and dissatisfying experiences. Third, satisfying and dissatisfying environmental factors are of approximately equal importance.

In another study by Friedlander (19:143-152) involving 1047 white-collar primarily engineers and scientists and 421 blue-collar workers, the relationship between job performance and job motivation is explored. The data indicate that in the white-collar sample low performers were motivated primarily by the social environment of
the job and, to a lesser extent, by the opportunity to gain recognition through advancement, but few significant relationships were found between intrinsic self-actualizing motivations and job performance. In the blue-collar sample, no significant relationships were found between any of the motivational measures and job performance. The data also indicate that, with advancing age and tenure, work became more meaningful for high performers but less meaningful for low performers, although the importance of the social environment increased for both high and low performers. In summary, comparisons among the three potential motivators for high performers only indicate a clear hierarchy: intrinsic work is of greatest importance, recognition is second, and the social environment is valued least. The motivational hierarchy contrasts with that of low performers, for whom the social environment is most important, intrinsic work second, and recognition least important.

Summary: Growth Needs, Herzberg Related

The motivation-hygiene theory of motivation has emphasized that there are factors associated with a job that are positively related to growth needs. First are perceived opportunities to achieve something that a person considers worthwhile or perceiving the opportunities for successful accomplishment. Second are factors associated with the amount of personal responsibility a person is given
for his own work. Third are the perceived opportunities available for getting ahead or for being promoted. These aspects of the two-factor theory of motivation have usually been labeled as motivator needs or intrinsic needs. These needs clearly relate to growth needs as conceptualized in this study. From the review of the literature relating to the motivator-hygiene theory of motivation, three findings are readily apparent.

First, the findings from the studies reported give some support to the idea that motivator factors which include growth needs contribute significantly more to overall job satisfaction. Supporting this would be the findings from Halpren (25:198-200), Herzberg (26:393-402, Weissenberg (63:469-473), and Gruenfeld (23:303-314).

Second, apparently both intrinsic and extrinsic factors can be sources of both satisfaction and dissatisfaction, but intrinsic factors are stronger in most cases. This would be supported from the findings of Ewen, et al. (16:544-550) and Wernimont (64:41-50).

Third, in general, the extent to which extrinsic or intrinsic job factors are valued was found to be related to occupational level. This would be confirmed by Friedlander (19:143-152) and Centers and Bugental (7:193-197).
McIntire Related Literature

Introduction

It has been pointed out by McClelland (38:5-50) that if a man spends his time thinking about doing things better, he has a concern for achievement. A person who has this concern likes situations in which he takes personal responsibility for finding solutions to problems. Self-confidence is related to high achievement motivation. Also, a person who has a concern for achievement has a tendency to set moderate achievement goals and to take calculated risks. In taking these calculated risks, he wants concrete feedback as to how well he is doing.

Need Satisfaction (Job Context)

In a study involving 55 college graduates some 14 years after graduation, McClelland (39:389-392) attempts to answer the critical question of whether men who end up in entrepreneurial occupations had higher n Achievement years earlier than men who end up in other occupations of equal prestige. The findings of this study indicate that 83 percent of the entrepreneurs in business had high n Achievement as college sophomores whereas 79 percent of the non-entrepreneurs in business had been low in n Achievement. Also McClelland concludes in this study that it is worth saying a word about what happens to those who enter the professions with high and low n Achievement. While the
occupational information was not sufficient to classify individuals as
more or less entrepreneurial lawyers, teachers, etc., several
striking cases suggest that n Achievement does modify the style in
which a person carries out his professional duties. For example, a
college teacher need not be an entrepreneur to be successful in the
same way that a sales representative needs to be.

Cummin (9:78-81) examined the hypothesis that the more
successful group of business executives would have significantly
higher scores than the less successful group in n Achievement,
n Power and n Autonomy, whereas the less successful executives
would have higher scores in n Affiliation, n Aggression, and n Defer-
ence. The sample for this study was 52 businessmen. The following
results of the study were reported. First, the successful group had
significantly higher scores in n Achievement and n Power than the
unsuccessful ones. Second, the hypothesis relating success in
business to n Autonomy, n Aggression, and n Deference was not
supported. The successful validation concerning the power motive
was considered significant because it suggests that there is a definite
desire, on the part of successful executives, for increased respon-
sibility and control within the organizational hierarchy.

In another study examining the relationship between an
entrepreneur's level of n Achievement and his company's performance,
Wainer and Rubin (62:178-184) hypothesize a direct and positive
relationship between an entrepreneur's n Achievement and the performance of his company. Company and entrepreneurial personality information was gathered from 51 small companies. The results of this study indicate that 79 percent of those companies led by entrepreneurs whose n Achievement was high had a growth rate which was above the median for the total sample of entrepreneurs. Second, the highest performing companies in this sample were led by entrepreneurs who exhibited a high n Achievement and a moderate n Power. Those entrepreneurs who had a high n Achievement coupled with a high n Power performed less well than their high n Achievement counterparts who exhibited only a moderate level on n Power. Within the moderate n Achievement group, higher performing companies were led by entrepreneurs who had a high n Affiliation.

Meyer, Walker, and Litwin (40:570-574), in a study involving 31 managers and 31 specialists, examined motive patterns and risk performance associated with entrepreneurship. The results indicated that differences in n Achievement and preference for intermediate risks were found between the manager group, selected to represent an entrepreneurial role, and the specialists whose jobs had a minimum of entrepreneurial characteristics. On a projective measure of achievement motivation, managers selected to represent the entrepreneurial role did score higher than specialists of comparable age, education, and job level, whose jobs were judged to be
non-entrepreneurial in nature. They also showed greater preference for intermediate level risks on a risk preference questionnaire.

A study by Rooker (58:4426) was designed to empirically test the relationship of two motivational variables, need achievement and need affiliation, to the leader behavior of elementary school principals as this behavior was perceived by their faculties and by the elementary principals themselves. The sample was composed of 87 elementary school principals and 726 classroom teachers. The following results were reported. First, the hypothesis that principal's need achievement is not related to teacher's mean perceptions of the principal's behavior was rejected. Second, the correlation between need affiliation of principals and their leader behavior as perceived by teachers was accepted. Third, the hypothesis that principals' need achievement was not related to their leader behavior as perceived by themselves was rejected. Fourth, the correlation between need affiliation of principals and their leader behavior as perceived by themselves was accepted.

A study examining the relationship between achievement motivation and occupational mobility was conducted by Littig and Yearacris (35:386-389). The findings of this study indicate that upward occupational mobility is related to high n Achievement and downward occupational mobility to low n Achievement. A person's
n Achievement scores were not related significantly to father's occupation (men) or person's husband's (women) occupation, suggesting the possibility that n Achievement scores are dependent upon a person's social class status at the time n Achievement is assessed. This study involved 177 men and 179 women from the same community.

In another study, Crockett (8:191-204) reported a positive relationship between strength of achievement motivation (n Achievement) and occupational mobility among men. High n Achievement sons of fathers in both low prestige and lower-middle prestige occupational categories were found to be upwardly mobile. There was, however, no relationship between high n Achievement and occupational mobility among men whose father's occupational categories were classified as upper-middle or high and no relationship between low n Achievement and downward mobility for all occupational categories.

**Summary: Growth Needs, McClelland Related**

It was suggested earlier in this study that achievement suggests a process of growth. By definition achievement means carrying out with a purpose. It refers to completion with a standard of excellence. The studies reviewed relating to McClelland theoretical framework suggest the following relationships to growth needs.

First, the relationship of n Achievement to entrepreneurs appears to be an important factor in their leadership characteristics.
or organizational behavior. McClelland (39:389-392) reported 83 percent of the entrepreneurs studied were high in n Achievement as college sophomores and that 79 percent of the non-entrepreneurs were low in n Achievement. Companies led by entrepreneurs who were high in n Achievement had a growth rate which was above the median for the sample studied by Wainer and Rubin (62:178-184). Also Meyer, Walker, and Litwin (40:570-574) reported that n Achievement is related to the entrepreneur in risk taking.

Two studies suggested that n Achievement is related to the measure of successful businessmen. Cummin (9:78-81) reported that the successful group had significantly higher scores in n Achievement and n Power. Also Rooker (58:4426) indicated that n Achievement was related to leader behavior as perceived by the leader.

It was evident from the findings of two studies that n Achievement could be linked to occupational mobility. Upward occupational mobility was found by Littig and Yearacris (35:386-389) to be related to high n Achievement and downward occupational mobility to low n Achievement. Crockett (8:191-204) found a positive relationship between the strength on n Achievement and occupational mobility.

The above findings would indicate that a relationship between n Achievement and growth needs is beginning to form. Apparently persons high in n Achievement are motivated to manifest certain behaviors in the organization.
Other Related Literature

Introduction

Many studies have been reviewed utilizing other related theoretical frameworks in an attempt to study, analyze, and describe individual behavior in organizations. Most of these studies have been focused on the growth needs of individuals. The following section will synthesize the findings from the studies selected. Due to the nature of the content and sometimes the reporting style of some of the studies, it is difficult to link the findings to a specific organizational variable or to some other cohesive content. The reader must realize this.

Need Satisfaction (Job Context)

The general purpose of a study by Abrahamson (1:3819-3820) was to determine critical factors of the internal organizational environment as identified by managers in the formal organization. An industrial sample reported the following five factors in the extremely important category: challenging work, freedom allowed in the job, personal satisfaction, participation in decision-making, and mutual trust existing between superiors and subordinates. One readily sees that four of these factors are related to growth needs.

Eckerman (12:3446) explored the relationship of need achievement to production and job satisfaction and psychological stress in a national brokerage house involving 665 agents. In general,
the study demonstrates that n Achievement is a personality factor and is related to some extent to production and level of psychological stress in this brokerage setting. Job satisfaction does not seem to vary in any systematic way with strength of n Achievement.

In a field study carried out over a period of three months, Alderfer (2:440-460) investigated both interpersonal and growth needs relating to job satisfaction. The sample for the study was 300 selected employees in the largest division of a manufacturing company. The following results relating to growth needs were reported. First, satisfaction with usable skills and abilities increased as job complexity increased. Second, in a job enlargement project which had been carried out with employees compared with employees holding analogous but narrowly delimited jobs, the employees holding enlarged jobs showed less satisfaction with respect from superiors and more satisfaction with opportunities to use their skill and abilities.

Sexton (60:337-343) hypothesized in a study that need satisfaction varies with restriction and that effectiveness varies with control and that effectiveness correlates negatively with need satisfaction. The finding reported from 83 hourly paid employees in a manufacturing plant indicated that, with the exception of the self-actualization need, significant positive correlations exist between need satisfaction and job structure. The correlation between effectiveness and need satisfaction produced a negative relationship.
Line Staff Relationship

Davis and Valfer (10:339-352) designed a study to test the hypothesis that higher economic productivity and greater need satisfaction for members of a work group, including the supervisor, will result from specifying the job content of the supervisor in the direction of increasing his authority and responsibility by including direct control over all operational and inspection functions required to complete and determine final acceptance of the products or services assigned to his work group. The findings indicate that the supervisors exhibited greater degrees of autonomy and indicated greater overall personal need satisfaction as the consequences of enlarged responsibility and enlarged authority. However, the most significant change in perception was in the recognition of greater autonomy. This was also seen by the workers.

Age

In a study by Saleh (59:425-430) it was hypothesized that the level of stated job satisfaction will increase with age to the pre-retirement period and, within that period, will show a decline. The sample was 118 male employees at the managerial level divided into the following age periods: (a) up to 29; (b) 30-39; (c) 40-49; (d) 50-59; (e) 60 and over. The results show that the level of job satisfaction increased for all groups from age periods A to B, B to C, and C to D,
but that it declined in E, the terminal period. The decline in the pre-retirement period, was explained by the blockage of the channels for self-actuarization and psychological growth and was related to the decline in physical health.

**Organizational Level**

A study examining the relationship between the type of organizational structure in which the professional performs his work activity and his experiencing of alienation from work was conducted by Miller (42:775-788). It was hypothesized that the degree of alienation from work should be positively associated with the degree of organizational control and negatively associated with the number of professional incentives for all professional personnel. In general, the findings of this research support the hypothesis that alienation from work is a consequence of the professional-bureaucratic dilemma for industrial scientists and engineers. Difference in type of supervision, freedom of research choice, professional climate, and company encouragement were associated with degree of work alienation in the expected manner.

In another study involving 552 scientists and engineers in 11 different research and development organizations, Pelz and Andrews (47:43-47) examine characteristics of five categories of researchers, who differ in educational level and in organizational goals. It examines the influence they have over persons affecting them and the sources,
directions, and strength of their motivations. Approximately 10 percent of the respondents were employed in an academic setting, 50 percent in industrial settings, and 40 percent in government settings. The findings and analyses of this study are numerous. Among the important findings and relationships are the following. Looking at the most satisfied, one finds twice as many research Ph.D.'s as technicians. The technicians had the highest proportions in the least satisfied and apathetic categories. This is further evidence that non-Ph.D.'s who work in Ph.D. dominated situations tend to perceive themselves in a less satisfactory atmosphere than other researchers. While the five groups differed substantially in their relative satisfaction, the effect of satisfaction on a researcher's motivation was the same for all. The more nearly a laboratory provided the avenues of career advancement desired by its researchers, the more interested involved, etc., they tended to be about their research. Motivation was positively related to contribution for all groups of researchers. The mean technical contribution of researchers in a satisfying atmosphere tended to be higher than the contributions of those in frustrating atmospheres. It was found that scientists depend on inner, rather than outer, motivation; hence apathy toward personnel goals such as self-development or status will inhibit contribution. But engineers and technicians do not depend upon inner stimuli; hence apathy in personal goals need not inhibit contribution.
In a study by Porter and Henry (53:31-36), the Inner Directed (Protestant Ethic, Top Management, Self-Description) was compared to Other Directed (Social Ethic, Middle Management, Self-Description). These were examined to determine their importance for success at each higher level of management. Data were obtained from 1896 managers from all parts of management and all types of companies. The findings indicate that Inner-Directed traits were perceived as more important at each higher level of management and thereby Other-Directed traits were seen as more important at each lower level of management.

In another study by Porter and Henry (54:305-310), line-staff differences were investigated with regard to the relative importance of Inner-Directed personality traits versus Other-Directed personality traits for job success. This study involved 1786 managers from the three types of managerial positions--line, combined line-staff, and staff. The results of this study indicate that staff managers placed relatively more emphasis on the Other-Directed traits (cooperative, adaptable, cautious, agreeable, tactful) and less emphasis on the Inner-Directed traits (forceful, imaginative, independent, self-confident, decisive) than did line managers. Managers in combined line-staff jobs were intermediate between the other two groups in their responses.
There has been considerable discussion about four sorts of motivational factors: the desire for job security, for high financial reward, for power over others, and self-actualization relating to the performance of managers. Using this rationale Ghiselli (20:431-440) hypothesized that a positive relationship should exist between the strength of desire for self-actualization and performance among managers. A sample of 300 in a cross section of the employed population and 400 middle management men provided the data for this study. The findings indicate that, compared with the employed population as a whole, persons in middle management positions appear to have a substantially lower desire for security and for financial reward, and a higher desire for self-actualization. Also they do not differ from the employed population in the desire for power over others. Those middle managers who are successful are likely to have less desire for security and high financial reward than those who are unsuccessful, and the successful ones are more likely to value self-actualization.

Need Disposition

Because of the nature of the reporting style, the following group of studies was difficult to relate to any organizational variables. However, all studies were conducted in an organizational setting. An attempt will be made to report the following studies around a need category.
In a study by Kuhlen (33:56-64) it was hypothesized that those individuals whose measured needs are relatively stronger than the potential of the occupation for satisfying those needs (as they perceive this potential) will tend to be frustrated and hence to be less well satisfied with their occupation. The data for this study were provided by 108 men and 95 women teachers. The data indicated that both sexes agreed that needs for affiliation, intraception, dominance, nurturance, and endurance might be readily satisfied in the teaching profession but that the individuals with strong needs for autonomy, succorance, abasement, and aggression would likely be extremely frustrated. The data also indicated that in the case of men, those with high achievement needs tend to be dissatisfied, but those who perceive teaching as potentially satisfying to the high achievement need tend to be satisfied. In the case of women, only the latter was true. Among men, again, the data suggest that high autonomy need individuals are likely to be frustrated, and that those with high dominance needs are likely to be satisfied.

Also exploring the potential need satisfaction as related to a professional field, Hollyer (29:3844) investigated the social status factors and achievement need as related to entry into a professional field. The professions were classified as old (law and medicine), new (psychology and engineering), and semi-profession (social work and pharmacy). Results were significant and supported the hypothesis of
the investigation for all groups studied with the exception of psychology, which had significantly higher need for achievement scores than other professions. The psychology group also had relatively high subjective status scores in comparison with other professional groups studied. With regard to the other professions, the status and need for achievement scores (means) ranked from high scores for the old established professions to low scores for the semi-professions, as hypothesized. It was concluded that status variables and achievement needs are factors related to entry into professional training.

In a study by Forward (17:2772) the relationship between group achievement motivation and individual motives to achieve success, to avoid failure, and to seek social approval was explored in 24 four-man groups. The conclusion based on the findings of this study is that when tendencies due to individual motives are aroused in a group achievement situation, these tendencies have effects which are independent of the effects for group oriented achievement tendencies and that the latter tendencies are not simply a function of the former.

Lefkowitz (34:521-528) conducted a study based upon the assumption that one's feelings of self-esteem are determined largely by reinforcement stemming from one's performance of his job and from interpersonal relations on the job. It was predicted that those employees who are moved to a different job would manifest significant changes in level of self-esteem measured without regard to direction.
of change. The data from 155 factory workers indicated that employees who had to change their jobs demonstrated significant changes in level of self-esteem following job change. Married workers demonstrated greater self-esteem than unmarried workers. Those with some college experience demonstrated greater self-esteem than those with only a high school education. In terms of self-concept theory, job change is perceived as threatening because of its signifying loss of control over a vital aspect of one's life.

In an experimental study by Day and Hamblin (11:499-510), the relationship of four supervisor styles to aggressive feelings and action of subordinates were investigated. The supervisory styles were arrayed on two continuums: the close versus general and the punitive versus non-punitive. The following results were reported. First, close as compared with general supervision produced significant increases in aggressive feelings toward the supervisor and indirect aggression toward the supervisor through lowered productivity, an insignificant increase in verbal aggression toward the supervisor, and an increase of borderline significance in aggressive feeling toward co-workers. Second, punitive as compared with non-punitive supervision produced significant increases in indirect aggression through lowered productivity and in verbal aggression, but no significant increase in aggression toward co-workers. The relationship between close supervision and aggressive feelings appears to be mediated by the
self-esteem of the subordinate; an increase in aggressive feelings occurred only in subjects having low self-esteem. Third, the combined effect of the close and punitive supervision dimension for both aggressive feeling and indirect aggression was not a simple function, but was less than would be predicted on the basis of additive assumptions.

In another study exploring the relationships between self-esteem and supervision, Bowers (6:23-28) examined the following constructs: supportiveness, group approach acceptance of advice, self-esteem, attitude toward foreman, alienation from subordinates, need for achievement, and need for affiliation. The study involved 17 foremen and 330 male subordinates. The data indicate a high positive relationship between the supervisor's supportiveness and the self-esteem of his foremen, and a high positive relationship between the latter and the foreman's estimate of what his subordinates think of him. His estimate bears little relationship, on the other hand, to what their actual attitude is. As his estimate of their attitude becomes poorer, and his self-esteem drops, he alienates himself from his subordinates, but gets them together as a group more often to exercise his authority rather than to get their advice. As this occurs, his behavior toward his subordinates becomes less supportive. All of these expected relationships were confirmed.
In another study linking supervision to esteem, Nelson (43:106-109) explored to what extent the level of mutual esteem between supervisors is related to their agreement in evaluating personnel. Also explored was the extent the esteem held for supervisors by the subordinate peer group related to both the agreement among supervisors and the agreement between supervisors and peers in their evaluation of personnel. The sample was seven military and seven civilian leaders from seven small Antarctic station groups. The findings indicate that agreement between supervisors in their evaluations of personnel was not related to the degree of mutual esteem between supervisors and, similarly, the esteem held for supervisors by their subordinate peer group was not related to supervisor-peer agreement in evaluating personnel.

Gruenfeld (23:303-314) in a study of motivation of industrial supervisors examined the order by which 18 job characteristics identified by King were preferred by 52 male supervisors in 11 companies. The data indicated that the most often preferred characteristic shared in common was a desire for personal development and self-realization.

Whitsett (65:2616) explores in a study the relationship between self-actualization and the modern formal organization. Self-actualization was conceptualized as being related to better adjustment and mental health. The sample consisted of 115 accounting and clerical
employees from a manufacturing company. Five predicted relationships emerged. First, it was found that those employees who were judged better adjusted were less growth-oriented than those judged less well-adjusted. Second, those who were judged better adjusted were more oriented towards the environmental conditions of the work situation than those who were judged less well adjusted. Third, as individuals remained longer in the organization, they tended to minimize the impersonal growth and to perceive the growth opportunities in their jobs as being greater. Fourth, it was concluded that the implicit use of adjustment definition of mental health is inadequate in that it ignores man's need for growth. Fifth, apparently industry has provided conditions that inhibit the self-actualization of its employees.

A study exploring motivational variables in the determination of job performance and autonomy in setting one's work pace was examined by Vroom (61:159-177). The sample for this study was 94 supervisors, 305 non-supervisors, and 489 blue-collar workers. The data support the following conclusions: First, persons who are ego-involved in their jobs are rated higher in job performance than those who are not ego-involved in their jobs. There is also some tendency for the relationship between ego-involvement and performance to be greater for persons who are high in autonomy although the results are not significant. Second, the job satisfaction and satisfaction with self
of persons who are ego-involved in their jobs is significantly more positively related to the amount of opportunity for self-expression in their jobs than is the case for persons low in ego-involvement. Similar but non-significant differences were also found for measures of satisfaction with health, reported feelings of tension, and frequency of absences.

In recent years an increasing amount of literature has discussed the relationship between organization freedom and individual achievement. Using this rationale Pelz and Andrews (47:43-47) explored the concern: How much autonomy for the individual is conducive to high scientific performance? This study was carried out on a representative sample of 500 scientists and engineers from 11 research and development organizations. The findings indicate that in the tightly coordinated situations, the amount of autonomy that was optimal for performance was moderate, whereas in mixed situations the optimal autonomy rose. For loose or very loose situations, however, optimal autonomy returned to moderate. The data concerning individual motivation in relation to performance indicate that the looser the situation, the stronger the relationship. Strong motivation increasingly accompanied high contribution. In tight settings, however, the relationship was low or even negative. Here people with a strong desire for growth and self-expression appeared to do poorer work--at
least as their performance was judged by senior staff members. In summary, it was reported that greater autonomy increased the performance of engineers but not of Ph. D.'s.

In a quasi-experimental study, Pease (46:22-27) had managers describe their "dream organization." One of the findings reported was that the matter of freedom, which came up so strongly in these managers' discussion of their "dream jobs" and of the impact of new levels above them, implies that positions can be managed better with a little more insight.

Summary: Growth Needs, Other Theoretical Framework

In summarizing the studies employing other related theoretical framework, the following relationships emerged from the findings concerning growth need.

First, Abrahamson (1:3819-3820), Pease (46:22-27), Gruenfeld (23:303-314), Porter and Henry (53:31-36), and Ghiselli (20:431-440) found that the vertical location or occupational level appears to be an important variable in determining the perceived importance of growth needs, perceived satisfaction or fulfillment of growth needs. The data suggest that at each successively higher level in the hierarchy growth needs are perceived as being more important for job satisfaction.
Second, the findings would suggest that apparently job structure has a positive relationship to growth needs. The following studies identified this relationship: Sexton (60:337-343), reporting that a positive correlation exists between need satisfaction and job structure especially self-actualization; Miller (42:775-788), reporting that alienation of work is linked to organizational control; Alderfer (2:440-460), reporting that enlarged jobs provide more opportunity to use skills and abilities; Davis and Valfer (10:339-352), reporting that enlarged responsibility indicates greater autonomy and greater satisfaction; and Pelz and Andrews (47:43-47), reporting motivation in loose or tight situations.

Third, it was evident from the findings of three studies that the supervisory function could be linked to self-esteem. Day and Hamblin (11:499-510) reported that relationship between close supervision and aggressive feeling appears to be mediated by the self-esteem of the subordinate; an increase in aggressive feelings occurred only in persons having low self-esteem. Bowers (6:23-28) found a high positive relationship between the supervisor supportiveness and the self-esteem of his subordinates. Nelson (43:106-109) reported that the degree of mutual self-esteem between supervisor was not related to their evaluation of personnel.
The above findings would indicate that growth needs are linked to organizational hierarchy, occupational levels, and job structure.

**Chapter Summary: Growth Needs**

The purpose of this chapter was to analyze the growth needs according to the findings from the literature relating to Maslow's theory of motivation, Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation, McClelland's theory of achievement, and studies utilizing other theoretical framework. Growth needs were conceptualized as those needs that suggest that a person is in the process of growing or developing. Growth also means expanding or bringing out the capabilities or potentialities in a person. Achievement, autonomy, self-esteem, and self-actualization were offered as examples of needs that suggest a process of psychological growth.

Achievement means attainment. Achievement needs suggest that a person is inclined to carry out some activity with a purpose and to accomplish or finish an activity successfully. Relating this activity to the findings of studies of organizational behavior, three studies have linked success of people and the success of companies to persons with varying degrees of achievement needs. Wainer and Rubin (62:178-184) found that those companies led by entrepreneurs whose n Achievement was high had a growth rate which was above the median for the total sample. This study also reported that the highest performing companies were led by entrepreneurs who exhibited a
high n Achievement and a moderate n Power. Much of the same results were reported in a study by McClelland (39:389-392). He found that 83 percent of the entrepreneurs in business had high n Achievement as college sophomores whereas 79 percent of the non-entrepreneurs in business had been low in n Achievement. Finally in a study by Cummin (9:78-81) successful groups had significantly higher scores in n Achievement and n Power than the unsuccessful ones.

Two studies have linked achievement needs to occupational mobility. Littig and Yearacris (35:386-389) indicated that upward mobility was related to high n Achievement and downward occupational mobility to low n Achievement. Crockett (8:191-204) found a positive relationship between strength of achievement motivation and occupational mobility among men.

In terms of other types of behavior actually exhibited by persons in organizations, Kuhlen (33:56-64) found that men teachers high in achievement needs tend to be dissatisfied. Halpren (25:198-200) indicated that the job aspects of work itself and opportunity for achievement accounted for 74 percent of the variance in overall satisfaction. Eckerman's (12: 3446) study demonstrated that n Achievement is a personality factor and is related to some extent to production and level of psychological stress. After an overall
look at these diverse findings of achievement needs, one could conclude that achievement needs appear to be an important variable in organizational behavior.

Autonomy needs were conceptualized as needs that indicate self-determination. They suggest that a person carries out a purpose or function independently. A number of studies have been concerned with the relationship of autonomy needs to organizational behavior. The major research trend in this area has been in autonomy need satisfaction.

The evidence available concerning the amount of perceived importance and perceived satisfaction is consistent in showing that the vertical location of the person in the organizational hierarchy is positively related to the degree of satisfaction. Usually the higher the level the more emphasis is placed on autonomy; however, autonomy needs are usually reported as one of the needs being least fulfilled. This finding is supported by Rhinehart, et al. (57:230-235), Ivancevich (30:274-278), and Porter (50:267-275) (51:386-397).

Other studies have examined the relationship between autonomy needs and organizational control. Miller (42:775-788) found that the degree of alienation from work was positively associated with the degree of organizational control. Enlarged responsibility and enlarged authority led to greater overall personal need satisfaction and greater degrees of autonomy, as reported by Davis and Valfer (10:339-352).
Needs for self-esteem were conceptualized as needs that give a person a good opinion of himself and a feeling of worth and excellence. A number of studies have been concerned with the relationship of esteem to the supervisor's function. Day and Hamblin (11:499-510) were concerned with the relationship between supervision style and aggressive feeling of subordinates. They found that the relationship between close supervision and aggressive feeling appears to be mediated by the self-esteem of the subordinate and that an increase in aggressive feeling occurred only in subjects having low self-esteem. Another study by Bowers (6:23-28) reported a high positive relationship between the supervisor's supportiveness and the self-esteem of his foremen, and a high positive relationship between the latter and the foreman's estimate of what his subordinates think of him.

Several studies have been concerned with satisfaction or fulfillment of esteem needs. For instance, Paine, Carroll, and Leete (44:247-249) reported that field managers felt significantly more satisfied than central office managers with respect to the needs for self-esteem, growth and development, and self-fulfillment. In another study Edel (13:31-38) found the greatest differences in frequency in need fulfillment deficiencies between first-line and middle managers occurred in the esteem and autonomy needs area. Middle management was more satisfied than the first-line supervisory position. Consideration and freedom of action were related positively
to the perceived satisfaction of esteem needs as reported in a study by Beer (4:209-222). Goldberg (21:253-257) found that patient's needs for esteem were satisfied when they were working, irrespective of program.

In a study involving a somewhat different attitude, Lefkowtiz (34:521-528) indicated that employees who had to change their jobs demonstrated significant changes in level of self-esteem following the job change. He indicated that this finding is in keeping with self-concept theory.

These findings and others indicate positive relationships between self-esteem needs and certain types of organizational behavior. It could be concluded that esteem needs are strongly related to organizational behavior.

Turning to the data for self-actualization, this need was conceptualized as a process of growth pertaining to the nature of a person. Implicit in this definition is the feeling of being able to use one's own unique capabilities. Self-actualization relates to a person's potentialities.

In terms of perceived importance attached to self-actualization need, three studies by Porter (49:141-148) (50:267-275) (51:386-397) indicated that higher level managers place relatively more emphasis on self-actualization than lower level managers. Supporting the Porter studies was the finding of Blai (5:81-82) that self-actualization
and interesting duties were the strongest needs as job satisfiers and were selected with increasing frequency from low to high occupational groups.

Three other studies related to the importance of self-actualization need in general terms. In a study of clerical workers, Beer (3:209-222) found that self-actualization was by far the most important need. Haire, Ghiselli, and Porter (24:95-117) reported that in 14 countries studied, without exception, needs for self-actualization were deemed most important. In a study comparing the employed population as a whole, persons in middle management positions appear to have a substantially higher desire for self-actualization. These findings were reported by Ghiselli (20:431-440).

Several studies have investigated the degree of satisfaction or fulfillment reported by different occupational levels in organizations. Again in the three Porter studies (49:141-148) (50:267-275) (51:386-397), self-actualization needs are the least satisfied needs in both bottom and middle management. However, he reported that flat structure has superiority in influencing self-actualization satisfactions. Perceived deficiencies in need fulfillment tend to increase at successfully lower levels in the organizational hierarchy and need fulfillment deficiencies are greatest for the self-actualization categories. This finding was reported by Johnson and Marcrum (31:457-461).
In other studies relating to satisfaction or fulfillment of self-actualization needs, Haire, Ghiselli, and Porter (24:95-117) indicated that in 14 countries, without exception, needs for self-actualization were least satisfied. No matter how the managers were classified, by job level or domestic and overseas, the autonomy and self-actualization need categories are the least fulfilled, as reported by Ivancevich (30:274-278). Porter and Mitchell (56:139-144) found in both managers and military officers that the most dissatisfied are the self-actualization needs. Finally a study by Saleh (59:425-430) reported that need satisfaction declined in the preretirement period; this was explained by the blockage of channels for self-actualization and psychological growth.

The evidence of these studies presents a picture of several factors relating to the category of self-actualization or growth needs. In most studies self-actualization was perceived as being one of the most important needs in organizational behavior and yet it was seldom satisfied or fulfilled. Apparently organizations have provided conditions that inhibit the self-actualization needs of its employees.

In this summary, it should be mentioned that several studies were found in the search of the literature that relate to growth needs that were not initially conceptualized in the growth need category.
These studies generally related to job satisfaction or motivation derived from achievement, responsibility, growth, advancement, and earned recognition.

In a study by Abrahamson (1:3819-3820), an industrial and professional sample reported the following critical factors of motivation: challenging work, freedom allowed in the job, personal satisfaction, participation in decision-making, and mutual trust existing between superiors and subordinates. In relating ungratified needs to mental health, Goldstein (22:2123-2124) reported the greater the number of unsatisfied needs, the poorer the mental health, the greater the anxiety, the weaker the ego strength, the greater the reaction to threat, the greater the decrease in the ability to control their impulses, the greater the dissatisfaction with real self as compared to ideal self.

In studies utilizing the two-factor theory of motivation, several studies found positive feelings at work were brought about by one or more of the motivator factors. Supporting this finding were studies conducted by Herzberg (26:393-402), Myers (41:73-88), Weissenberg and Gruenfeld (63:469-473), Ewen (16:544-550), Wernimont (64:41-50), Centers and Bugental (7:193-197), and Friedlander (18:160-164). It should be noted that the studies of Friedlander (18:160-164) and
Centers and Bugental (7:193-197) indicated a clear hierarchy of motivation. At higher occupational levels, intrinsic job components were more valued.

Two studies by Porter and Henry (53:31-36) explored the Inner-Directed compared with Other-Directed traits (forceful, imaginative, independent, self-confident) were perceived as more important at each higher level of management and thereby Other-Directed (cooperative, adaptable, cautious, agreeable, and tactful) were seen as more important at each lower level of management. In the other study Porter and Henry (54:305-310), staff managers placed more emphasis on the Other-Directed traits than did line managers.

In conclusion, growth needs as conceptualized appear to incite and trigger certain types of human behavior in the organizational setting. It is apparent from these findings that the full potential for motivated behavior is not being tapped in organizations. Apparently one could conclude that organizational behavior will vary directly with the extent to which needs of an individual can be satisfied by the organization. The stronger the need, the more closely will organizational behavior depend on its fulfillment. Thus models of motivation for industrial institutions must be explored, keeping in mind that people need organizations and organizations need people.
REFERENCES


OVERVIEW OF SECTION II

Section II is exploratory. Chapter I pointed out that a limitation of this study was the present state of development of supervision theory based on human needs. Supervision was conceptualized as a process to help teachers improve instruction. Many studies selected have been conducted in a noneducational setting or in an industrial setting. Studies of the relationships between school system organizational structure and individual behavior as relating to human needs are relatively infrequent. Any conclusion emerging from this study, therefore, must be regarded with great caution, and it must be kept in mind that the study is exploratory.

Keeping in mind the severely restrictive nature of the samples used in developing a framework of human needs, motivational patterns will be explored utilizing the three models of education as conceptualized earlier. These models were the legal model, the labor model, and the professional model. It was pointed out that each model differs in its motivational base. Motivational base was conceptualized as the patterns of motivation or institutional expectations associated with the three models of education.

In this section the pressures upon the individual by institutional expectations that he behave in a certain way, and the feeling he has about behaving in this way, will be further examined. On the one
hand, people have both individual expectations and organizational demands placed upon them. These may be thought of as two separate forces sometimes in harmony and sometimes in conflict. The interaction of these two separate forces--the individual expectation and the institutional expectation--results in what is sometimes referred to as organizational or institutional climate. Therefore, organizational climate is operationally defined for this study as a series of relationships between human needs and institutional expectations.

Chapter VI explores the institutional climate within the legal model of education. It was pointed out that the legal model relies upon a hierarchy of authority. Motivation then becomes associated with compliance. The motivational pattern of compliance is explored in relation to maintenance needs, relatedness needs, and growth needs.

Chapter VII explores the institutional climate within the labor model of education. The labor model's source of authority is rooted in collective power. Motivation then becomes associated with reward. The motivational pattern of reward is explored in relation to maintenance needs, relatedness needs, and growth needs.

Chapter VIII explores the institutional climate within the professional model of education. The professional model derives its authority from the competence of the members of the group.
Motivation then becomes associated with service. The motivational pattern of service is explored in relation to maintenance needs, relatedness needs, and growth needs.

It will also be recalled that it was not the purpose of this study to choose among the three alternative models of education, but to attempt to clarify and expand their motivational patterns. An examination of the organizational climate and the perception of needs and need satisfactions by individuals provides a better understanding of patterns of motivation and their implication for supervision. It is important to remember that individuals working at the same organizational level, but working within different structural arrangements, may not respond similarly to the same motivational pattern. The beginnings of theoretical constructs to aid in explaining the motivational patterns for the effects of organizational variables have been provided in Chapter II, III, IV, and V.
CHAPTER VI

MOTIVATION PATTERNS OF COMPLIANCE

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to explore the institutional climate within the legal model of education. It was pointed out that the basic source of authority is the constitutional or statutory power of the state to demand compliance with the law, rule, or procedure. The legal model relies upon a hierarchy of authority to accomplish the institutional goals. Motivation then becomes associated with compliance. Figure 3 will help to conceptualize the relationship for exploration in this chapter.

Three clusters of human needs have been conceptualized earlier as maintenance needs, relatedness needs, and growth needs. Each of these needs will be explored in relation to the motivational pattern of compliance. The interaction among human needs, compliance motivation, and individual expectations will be referred to as the compliance motivation model.

Compliance is a special type of motivation about which several observations can be made. First, the apparent influence of motivation
Figure 3

Compliance Motion Model
is from the top downward. The institution or organization attempts to control the behavior of its members to accomplish its goals and objectives. This attempted control results in a strong drive for organizational conformity. For example, in the compliance motivation model the high-level position in the hierarchy, the school board or the administration, would determine the curriculum. Teachers are expected to behave in strict compliance with the school district's or school system's curriculum guidelines. In other words, those in higher level positions expect supervisors to comply with and enforce the school district's curriculum. Supervisors expect teachers to behave in strict compliance with the curriculum and instructional techniques. Teachers expect students to behave in compliance with the planned curriculum. It becomes apparent that persons occupying certain positions are expected to behave in the proper manner. Compliance motivation then becomes the applying of rewards and punishment for compliance. Compliance motivation is therefore an external form of motivation appealing to the individual by rewards and punishment.

The second characteristic implicit in the above example is the vertical dimensions of a hierarchy. The institution or organization attempts to control behavior through the organizational chart. It becomes apparent that the organizational chart is role-bound. An example that will not be enumerated in detail is as follows: the
superintendent is expected to..............; the assistant superintendent is expected to..............; the supervisor is expected to..............; principals are expected to..............; teachers are expected to..............; students are expected to.............. In the compliance motivation model it is apparent that each position is associated with inflexible behavior on the part of the organizational member. One could infer from the findings of several studies that the vertical location in the organizational level appears to be an important factor in determining the extent to which needs are perceived as being important to the individual or being perceived by the individual as being satisfied or fulfilled. Therefore, in the compliance motivation model the organizational chart becomes a needs fulfillment chart or a needs suppression chart.

From this introduction it is apparent that the supervisor plays a vital role in the compliance motivation model. The organization through supervision attempts to control the behavior of its members. How the individual reacts to such control needs to be explored in the compliance motivation model.

Compliance Motivation: Maintenance Needs, Individual Expectations

Maintenance needs were conceptualized as those needs that indicate a means of support for the individual when engaging in some type of behavior. It was suggested that maintenance needs provide a person with a sense of confidence, which would enable him to engage
in a task feeling free from danger, risk, or injury. Under the compliance motivation model, it is assumed that organizational members will comply to the rules and regulations prescribed by the organization. This assumption has strong implications for the organizational climate.

The studies of Haire, Ghiselli, and Porter (15:95-117), Porter and Mitchell (30:139-144), Ghiselli (13:431-440), Friedlander (11:160-164), Centers and Bugental (5:193-197), and Johnson and Marcrum (19:457-461) report that in relation to other needs, maintenance needs in the form of security needs are perceived as being less important for higher level managers. It was also reported by Blai (4:383-388) that maintenance needs were perceived as being least important among professional groups. These findings would be consistent with the compliance motivational model in that the higher levels in the organization are the initiators of the expected behavior.

Friedlander (12:143-152), Centers and Bugental (5:193-197), and Blai (4:383-388) found that lower-level occupational groups tend to place paramount importance on the interpersonal comfort of security and the work environment. In analyzing the patterns of perceived satisfaction or fulfillment, the same relationship would hold true. As one goes from the lower occupational levels to the higher occupational levels, the opportunity for maintenance needs to be fulfilled or satisfied is greater.
One could infer from these findings that in a school system characterized by the compliance motivation model, the higher levels (superintendent, assistant superintendent, districtwide departmental chairman for secondary education) will perceive maintenance needs as being less important and also will have fewer deficiencies in fulfillment. On the other hand, supervisors, teachers, and students should perceive maintenance needs as being more important and also feel more deficiencies in fulfilling maintenance needs. These relationships would be consistent with the compliance motivation model; however, they must be tested empirically.

The motivation compliance model assumes that the organization will provide adequate rewards and punishment in the form of pay, advancement, and security to control the behavior of the individual. According to human needs as conceptualized in this study, people bring to their job certain expectations regarding maintenance needs. If the organization or school system has the ability to provide the amount of salary, the proper working conditions, and a conducive working environment, maintenance needs will probably not be disturbed within the individual. However, in a study by Halpren (16:198-200) and one by Herzberg (17:393-402) it was reported that job dissatisfaction could be linked to maintenance needs.

In summary, it could be assumed that if a school system has the ability to provide the proper organizational forms with adequate
rewards, maintenance needs apparently will not be disturbed. This is assuming that in the compliance motivation model, compliance and performance lead to rewards.

Compliance Motivation: Relatedness Needs, Individual Expectations

Relatedness needs are conceptualized as those needs which bring an individual in touch with his environment. Relatedness needs also suggest that a person has a need to relate to people, to have friends, to have a feeling of belonging, and to be accepted by other people. The compliance motivation model assumes that organization members will comply to the rules and regulations prescribed by the organization. It was also pointed out that the organization attempts to control behavior by the exercise of power associated with the organizational chart. These assumptions have strong implications for the organizational climate concerning relatedness needs.

Studies by Haire, Ghiselli, and Porter (15:95-117), Rhinehart, et al. (31:230-235), Johnson and Marcrum (19:457-461), Porter and Mitchell (30:139-144), Ivancevich (18:274-278), and Centers and Bugental (5:193-197) indicate that in relation to other needs or clusters of needs, relatedness needs are better satisfied or fulfilled in the upper hierarchy. Again inferring from these findings, in a school district characterized by the compliance motivation model, those in
higher levels (superintendent, assistant superintendent, districtwide departmental chairmen) should perceive relatedness needs as being more satisfied.

It was suggested that affiliation needs, belongingness needs, and social needs could be thought of as specific examples of relatedness needs. Affiliation needs suggest that a person is inclined to join or associate himself with other people. The compliance motivation model assumes that a person will be able to join or associate himself with the organization only to the degree of compliance with the expected behavior of the organization. Forward (10:2772) found that persons who are strongly motivated to seek social approval (high n Affiliation) reveal significantly stronger tendencies to conform to the majority aspirations of other members than members who are weakly motivated to gain social approval. The compliance motivation model can provide opportunities for members to fulfill or satisfy their affiliation need only to the degree that the expected behavior provides opportunities for relating to the organization.

Belongingness needs were conceptualized as those needs that cause a person to desire to be a part of some activity. They imply that a person desires a personal involvement in an activity to the extent that he feels himself to be an integral part of the activity. The compliance motivation model assumes that attempts to control behavior of individuals through rewards and punishment will result
in dependent behavior. This is supported in a study by Anant (2:1137-1138), in which he reported that the higher the sense of belongingness, the lower the anxiety reported by his sample.

It could be inferred from these relationships that in the lower levels of the hierarchy of educational systems, supervisors, teachers, and students who have a high need for belongingness will seek activities to fulfill or satisfy this need. It is possible that supervisors, teachers, and students will increase their dependent behavior toward the system. They will tend to comply with the expected behavior of the system. One way they can fulfill or satisfy this belongingness need is to seek positions of responsibility. Vroom (33:159-177) found that the more positive a person's attitude toward the organization, the greater the tendency for him to perceive a similarity between the organization's goals and his own goals for the organization. Therefore, the compliance motivation model through its rewards and punishment attempts to achieve similarity between expected behavior and individual behavior together for the purpose of the organization. The teachers and students seeking positions of responsibility in the organization obtain one reward offered by the compliance motivation model. Other organizational members high in affiliation need will seek other ways to satisfy or fulfill this need. If they are not able to satisfy this need, they will become frustrated and probably decline in morale.
Social needs were conceptualized as those needs that cause a person to seek company or have an interest in other people. In general the findings of several studies--Haire, Ghiselli, and Porter (15:95-117), Johnson and Marcrum (19:457-461), Porter and Mitchell (30:139-144), Centers and Bugental (5:193-197), and Beer (3:209-222)--indicate that in relation to other needs, social needs were generally perceived as satisfied or fulfilled. In relation to the compliance motivation model with its attempt to control behavior, persons high in social needs apparently find ways to satisfy their social needs.

In summary, each individual with his own particular pattern of relatedness needs, his perceptions, his expectations or his tendency to conform to or deviate from organizational norms is of primary importance to the compliance motivation model. The compliance motivation model's expectations are that persons will relate, will perceive organizational goals, and will conform to organizational norms. Inherent in the compliance motivation model is the potential conflict between certain members and the organization. Those persons high in relatedness needs might deviate from the expected behavior assessed by the compliance motivation model.

Compliance Motivation: Growth Needs, Individual Expectations

Growth needs have been conceptualized as those needs that suggest that a person is in the process of growing or developing.
Growth also means expansion of the capabilities or potentialities in a person. Achievement, autonomy, self-esteem, and self-actualization were offered as examples of needs that suggest a process of psychological growth. Under the compliance motivational model it is assumed that organizational members will comply with the rules and regulations prescribed by the organization. In relation to growth needs, this assumption has strong implications for the organizational climate.

The findings of studies by Abrahamson (1:3819-3820), Pease (24:22-27), Gruenfeld (14:303-314), Porter and Henry (29:31-36), Chiselli (13:431-440), Porter (26:141-148), Porter (28:386-397), Porter and Mitchell (30:139-144), Johnson and Marcrum (19:457-461), Edel (9:31-38), and Rhinehart, et al. (31:230-235) indicate that the vertical location of the position appears to be an important variable in determining the extent to which growth needs are perceived as being important or perceived as being fulfilled or satisfied. Apparently the higher his level in the organization, the more importance a person places upon growth needs or the more opportunity he has to fulfill or satisfy certain growth needs.

The above finding is consistent with the compliance motivation model. One must remember that the direction of influence is from top down in the compliance motivation model. The following relationship could be inferred from these findings. In a school
system characterized by the compliance motivation model, the higher level positions, e.g., superintendent, assistant superintendent, districtwide departmental chairman, are engaged in developing curriculum guides, instructional techniques, policies, and other administrative guidelines to direct the expected behavior of those below them, e.g., supervisors, teachers, and students. Those participating in this process of development at the upper-level positions have greater opportunity for satisfying or fulfilling growth needs. However, under the compliance motivation model these higher-level positions in the school system are accountable to a higher-level authority. This higher-level authority to which they are accountable is the local school board and the community. Therefore, the expectations of the local school board or community may tend to block the satisfying or fulfilling of growth needs in these high-level positions.

In support of the above generalizations several findings—Beer (3:209-222), Porter (25:1-10), Porter and Mitchell (30:139-144), and Johnson and Marcrum (19:457-461) would suggest that apparently the need for self-actualization is the most critical need in terms of perceived deficiency in fulfillment and perceived importance to the individual in all levels of management. Again this would be the expected prediction in the compliance motivation model. The compliance motivation model has the potential capacity to hinder or block growth needs.
In terms of other types of behavior actually exhibited by persons in organizations, it was suggested that achievement, autonomy, self-esteem, and self-actualization were specific growth-related needs. Each need has strong implications for the compliance motivation model.

The compliance motivation model assumes that a person will be able to fulfill growth needs only to the degree of the compliance with expected behavior of the organization. One of the rewards associated with the compliance motivation model is achievement. Achievement needs were conceptualized as suggesting that a person is inclined to carry out some activity with a purpose and to accomplish an activity successfully. Achievement as related to compliance motivation could mean occupational mobility, merit reward, or some other type of reward. Advancement up the organizational levels is one way perceived for a person high in achievement need to fulfill or satisfy this need. Littig and Yearacris (20:386-389) and Crockett (6:191-204) found a positive relationship between the strength of achievement motivation and occupational mobility. It could be inferred that one way a teacher could satisfy a high achievement need is to be promoted to principal, the principal to assistant superintendent, the assistant superintendent to superintendent. Also it could be inferred that the superintendent satisfies or fulfills his achievement needs by the perceived success of the school system. Wainer and
Rubin (34:178-184) and McClelland (21:389-892) linked the success of companies to those companies whose entrepreneurs were high in achievement needs.

Achievement needs also have the possibility of being suppressed in the compliance motivation model. A person high in achievement may not find a way to satisfy or fulfill this need. Eckerman's (8:3446) study demonstrated that the need for achievement is a personality factor and is related to some extent to the production and level of psychological stress. Therefore, the student who cannot achieve success as perceived by the teacher, the teacher who does not get the promotion, the principal who does not get the promotion, etc., may experience a degree of frustration and probably a drop in morale. This prediction must be empirically tested.

The compliance motivation model assumes that a person carries out an activity complying with organizational expectations. This leads to organizational conformity. Autonomy needs were conceptualized as needs that indicate self-determination. Autonomy suggests that a person carries out a purpose or function independently. The compliance motivation model would provide a person with little opportunity to satisfy or fulfill autonomy needs. Compliance and autonomy could be thought of as polar motivating forces. For example, in the compliance motivation situation all teachers would be expected to comply with the school system's curriculum. There is little
opportunity for the person high in autonomy to satisfy or fulfill this need. This could lead to a degree of alienation. Miller (22:775-788) supports this generalization. He found that the degree of alienation from work was positively associated with the degree of organizational control.

Studies by Rhinehart, et al. (31:230-235), Ivancevich (18:274-278), and Porter (25:1-10) (27:267-275) indicate that usually the higher the organizational level, the more emphasis is placed on autonomy needs; however, autonomy needs are usually reported as being among the least fulfilled. These findings would be consistent with the compliance motivation model.

Self-esteem needs were conceptualized as needs that provide a person with a good opinion of himself and a feeling of worth and excellence. The compliance motivation model assumes that a person will develop and maintain high self-esteem if he complies with the expected behavior of the organization. It was pointed out earlier that the compliance motivation model relies upon supervision for compliance with expected organizational behavior. It would appear that the style of supervision would have a positive relationship to self-esteem needs. In a study by Day and Hamblin (7:499-510) this influence was identified. It was found that close as compared with general supervision produced significant increases in aggressive feeling toward the supervisor. However, this relationship appears to be mediated by the
self-esteem of the subordinate; an increase in aggressive feeling occurred only in persons having low self-esteem. One could infer from these findings certain relationships between students and teachers, and teachers and supervisors. Apparently those students or teachers who are low in self-esteem will increase their aggressive feeling more than persons high in self-esteem in the compliance motivation model. On the other hand, one could postulate that persons high in self-esteem in the compliance motivation model tend to conform to organizational expectations, thereby perceiving positive rewards from the system.

In most studies self-actualization was perceived as being one of the most important needs in organizational behavior and yet it was reported to be seldom satisfied or fulfilled. Apparently organizations have created conditions that inhibit the self-actualization needs of their members. This is consistent with the compliance motivation model. The following data support the above conclusion: Beer (3:209-222), Porter (25:1-10), Porter and Mitchell (30:139-144), Johnson and Marcrum (19:457-461), Haire, Ghiselli, and Porter (15:95-117), Blai (4:383-388), Ivancevich (18:272-278), and Saleh (32:425-430). It could be inferred from these findings that self-actualization or the feeling of being able to use one's own unique capabilities, and the compliance motivation model are polar motivational concepts. It should be mentioned, however, that the opportunities to fulfill or satisfy the
self-actualization need are greater in the higher levels of the hierarchy. The person possessing a high self-actualization need will attempt to resist the downward push in the compliance motivation model.

The findings from four studies indicate strong implications for the compliance motivation model. Porter and Mitchell (30:139-144) and Johnson and Marcrum (19:457-561) found that in perceived need satisfaction and need fulfillment, military officers tend to be much more dissatisfied at each level or rank than their civilian counterpart. In a study by Paine, Carroll, and Leete (23:247-249) and a study by Rhinehart, et al. (31:230-235) it was reported that managers working in governmental agencies indicate much less satisfaction in need fulfillment than private industry managers. One could infer from these findings that the military organization and governmental agencies relies upon the compliance motivation model to accomplish their organizational objectives.

It could be inferred from the findings reported in this chapter that the most critical aspect of the organization characterized by the compliance motivation model is finding ways to provide and encourage continual growth and development of the individual. These would include maintenance needs, relatedness needs, and growth needs, because any one or a combination of these needs can incite and trigger human behavior. The direction and intensity depends upon the perceived success in the organization.
Chapter Summary: Compliance Motivation Model

The purpose of this chapter was to explore the organizational climate created by the compliance motivation model. It was conceptualized that in the legal model of education, the state, the school board, or the persons high in the organizational hierarchy determine the curriculum, policies, and administrative guidelines. The educational systems issue expectations of behavior to its members. The system assumes the members will comply. It was pointed out that individuals have expectations and needs and that these may not be congruent with the organization. Therefore, compliance motivation becomes an organizational controlled motivation, externally appealing to the individual with rewards and punishments. The resulting relationships or organizational climate were explored. It was concluded that the most critical aspect of the organization characterized by the compliance motivation model was the finding of ways to permit and encourage continual growth and development of its members.
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CHAPTER VII

MOTIVATION PATTERNS OF REWARD

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to explore the institutional or organizational climate within the labor model of education. It was pointed out that the basic source of authority for the labor model is rooted in collective power. Motivation then becomes associated with reward. Figure 4 will help to conceptualize the relationship for exploration in this chapter. The interaction among human needs, reward motivation, and individual expectations will be referred to as the reward motivation model.

If we are to accept the labor model as one of the basic factors in determining or influencing behavior within an educational system, then certain observations can be made. First, the apparent source of the motivation is from two directions. The reward motivation model has the organization initiated expectations or the top-down influence, and the member initiated expectations or the bottom-up influence. It involves external motivation from the organization in
Figure 4

Reward Motivation Model
the form of reward and punishment and internal motivation--the needs of the organizational members. Explicit in this model is that at least two groups are involved. Each group has an interest based upon the expectations of its members. This implies that if one group is to satisfy more of its needs, the other group must thereby fulfill fewer of its needs.

An example offered in the compliance motivation model in an earlier chapter was that the high-level positions in the school system or the local board of education or the state could determine the curriculum. Teachers were expected to behave in strict compliance with the school district's or school system's curriculum. In other words, those in higher-level positions expect supervisors to comply with and to enforce the district's curriculum. Supervisors expect teachers to behave in strict compliance with the curriculum and instructional techniques. Teachers expect students to behave in compliance with the planned curriculum. Under the reward motivation model the same conditions could exist; however, the potential conflict of compliance will influence certain individuals or groups to mobilize to resist these demands. Therefore, one example of the reward motivation model is the mobilization of one or more groups to decrease the demands or expectations of the initiating influence. For example, students will mobilize against teachers, teachers against supervisors, supervisors against higher-level personnel, etc., in order to resist this downward push of the organization.
Second, it was conceptualized earlier that human needs incite and trigger human behavior and that motivation provides direction and intensity. Organizational behavior is motivated. The superintendent, the assistant superintendent, the principal, the teacher, and the student are busily engaged in mobilizing some type of energy as a result of human needs. Therefore, if a person's aspirations and actual accomplishments lead to disillusionment or frustration, he will turn to other sources to satisfy or fulfill his needs. One of these sources is the group. If an individual perceives a group with apparent power and influence, he may join or affiliate himself in order to satisfy or fulfill his needs. This group may represent the person or give him access to influence the decisions or expectations that will affect him. Thereby, certain needs are perceived as satisfied by joining the group, and he hopes to satisfy other needs through the power of the group. Therefore, the group engages in competition for resources in the organization on behalf of the individual. One could postulate from these relationships that competition centered around attempting to satisfy needs is associated with the reward motivation model. This competition may be in the form of group pressure, collectively attempting to divide or increase the pool of available resources in the organization.
From this brief introduction it becomes apparent that individual behavior manifested by a single teacher or a single student has little impact on the total system. If an angry teacher manifests certain types of aggressive behavior toward the organization, he may get some temporary satisfaction. But when the teacher cools down he may think: What have I accomplished? It could be postulated that this is one of the reasons why teachers or students form groups. They organize groups that can engage in aggression against system initiated expectations with less feeling of danger of incurring frustration. The organization and its expectations of individual behavior and the way the individual reacts to such expectations need to be explored in the reward motivation model.

**Reward Motivation: Maintenance Needs, Individual Expectations**

Maintenance needs were conceptualized as those needs that indicate a means of support for the individual when engaging in some type of behavior. Maintenance needs provide a person with a sense of confidence, enabling him to engage in a task feeling free from danger, risk, or injury. Under the reward motivation model it is assumed that the members of the organization will be supplied with adequate rewards for the satisfying or fulfilling of maintenance needs. These rewards often come in the form of salary increases, merit pay, improved working conditions, or other environmental improvements.
However, in two studies the opposite was found. Herzberg (19:393-402) and Halpren (18:198-200) reported that job satisfaction could be linked to maintenance needs.

Security has been interpreted in a general way as a feeling of safety and assurance that a person gets from a particular position. Studies by Haire, Ghiselli, and Porter (17:95-117), Porter and Mitchell (39:139-144), Ghiselli (14:431-440), Friedlander (13:160-164), Centers and Bugental (6:193-197), Johnson and Marcrum (21:457-461), and Blai (5:383-388) was found that in relation to other needs, security needs are perceived as being less important to certain occupational groups. For high-level managers security is perceived as being of no great importance. Those who perceive security as important were those in the lower levels of the hierarchy, as Porter (32:141-148) found in older respondents, and Ghiselli (14:431-440) found in persons for whom reliability, perseverance, and carefulness are significant values.

In analyzing the patterns of perceived satisfaction of fulfillment of security needs, apparently middle and higher level managers perceived fewer deficiencies and more fulfillment in security than lower level managers as reported by Porter (31:1-10), Edel (11:31-38), Ivancevich (20:274-278), Ghiselli (14:431-440), and Gruenfeld (16:303-314). These findings have strong implications for organizational behavior in the reward motivation model.
One could infer the following relationships from the above findings. Teachers take a position in a school system expecting the system to provide an environment in which the feeling of safety and assurance or maintenance needs can be fulfilled. Students also come to school expecting to feel free from a threatening climate. However, if the same characteristics were found in school systems that were reported in other types of organizations, the opposite would be true. The teachers or the students could perceive the environment as uncertain, untrustworthy, and anxiety-provoking. In this situation the maintenance needs in individuals could be disturbed and this would incite and trigger human behavior. The teachers or the students would mobilize energy to strike back at the organization. This has implications for the reward motivation model. If the teachers or students cannot restore the environmental conditions to provide safety and assurance, then they might turn to the group for action. Under the reward motivation model the representatives of the group would bargain with those in higher-level positions in order to assure that its members are properly protected.

It could be concluded that under the reward motivation model maintenance needs can affect human behavior in organizations. Maintenance needs incite and trigger human behavior as a means of support that is conducive to good health. When a person perceives
a threat to this support, he will strike back individually or turn to
a group to fulfill his needs. The reward motivation model must
reckon with this.

**Reward Motivation: Relatedness Needs, Individual Expectations**

The needs which bring an individual in touch with his
environment have been conceptualized as relatedness needs. These
needs also include a person's need to relate to people, to have friends,
to have a feeling of belonging, and to be accepted by other people.
The reward motivation model expects that a person will relate to
the organization in special ways. It is assumed under the reward
motivation model that if persons can participate in the establishing
of organizational policies and administrative procedures, then the
relatedness needs of individuals will be satisfied or fulfilled.
However, it has been pointed out that organizational expectations
of members' behavior and the members' expectations of organiza-
tional opportunities to satisfy their needs may not be congruent.

Relatedness needs incite and trigger certain types of behavior.
For those persons high in certain relatedness needs, energy will be
mobilized in the form of motivation to fulfill or satisfy those needs.
In other words, individuals behave in accordance with their needs.
How they perceive the organization will be determined by their needs
and expectations. Therefore, the organization may be perceived quite
differently by members who occupy different positions in it. For example, the superintendent perceives the system differently from the assistant superintendent, the supervisor, the principal, the teacher, the student, and the parent. The reverse relationships would also be true. It also should be pointed out that individuals occupying the same position will perceive the organization differently.

For the reward motivation model to assume that the relatedness needs of individuals will be satisfied or fulfilled through participation in the establishing of organizational policies, it must be realized that each person in the organization brings to the collective bargaining table a different set of perceptions and expectations. It could result in a "What's in it for me?" attitude.

It was found in several studies that compared to other needs or clusters of needs, relatedness needs are better satisfied or fulfilled in the upper levels of the hierarchy. Rhinehart, et al. (40:230-235), Johnson and Marcum (21:457-461), Porter and Mitchell (39:139-144), Ivancevich (20:274-278), Centers and Bugental (6:193-197) support this finding. If the same characteristics were found in school systems, then it would be expected that those teachers and students high in relatedness needs would incite and trigger human behavior to fulfill or satisfy these needs.
Regarding specific examples of relatedness needs, it was conceptualized that a person high in affiliation needs is inclined to join or associate oneself with other people. Forward (12:2772) found that persons who are strongly motivated to seek social approval (high in Affiliation) reveal significantly stronger tendencies to conform to the majority aspirations of other members and that they might have a tendency to manifest power or aggressive behavior to fulfill their needs. It can be inferred from the reward motivation model that persons who are strongly motivated to seek social approval may join a group deliberately to satisfy or fulfill this need. They could manifest aggressive behavior to fulfill these needs. According to this model, the organization would expect the individual to join a group so that collective bargaining between the persons acting for the organization and the group could take place.

Those needs that cause a person to desire to be a part of some activity have been conceptualized as belongingness needs. These needs imply that a person desires a personal involvement in an activity to the extent that he feels himself to be an integral part of the activity. It was pointed out earlier that this activity could be linked to organizational activity. This activity has strong implications for the reward motivation model. For those persons with high belongingness needs, three studies indicate that the higher the sense of belongingness the lower the anxiety, Anant (2:1137-1138); the need for belongingness
was satisfied while working, Goldberg (15:253-257); and a source of job dissatisfaction is associated with not having a voice in influencing policy, Levine and Weitz (23:263-271). It could be inferred from these findings that persons high in belongingness needs will mobilize energy in the form of motivation to fulfill or satisfy these needs. Under the reward motivation model participation in decision-making has been seen by the persons high in belongingness needs as one way of fulfilling or satisfying these needs.

From the above finding one could infer the following relationships in a school district characterized by the reward motivation model. By the formation of a curriculum council or curriculum committees, representatives from the higher levels and lower levels in the school district could collectively determine the curriculum for the school system. However, it must be kept in mind that two sets of expectations are assumed. Superintendents, assistant superintendents, and districtwide department chairmen expect that through participation teachers will identify with the school system, and therefore acquire positive attitudes toward the system. From the superintendent, assistant superintendent, and districtwide department chairmen's point of view, the opportunity for teachers to participate could be viewed as external motivation in the form of a reward. On the other hand, teachers high in belongingness needs expect that through participation these needs will be fulfilled or satisfied. The
teacher is motivated internally to satisfy a need. This dichotomy has strong implications for school systems characterized by the reward motivation model.

Those needs that cause a person to seek company or have an interest in other people have been conceptualized as social needs. In general, the findings from the following studies have indicated that social needs in relation to other needs or clusters of needs were generally perceived satisfied or fulfilled: Haire, Ghiselli, and Porter (17:95-117), Rhinehart, et al. (40:230-235), Johnson and Marcrum (21:457-461), Porter and Mitchell (39:139-144), Ivancevich (20:274-278), Porter (35:31-36), and Centers and Bugental (6:193-197). In relation to the reward motivation model, apparently organizational members find ways to satisfy needs. This was pointed out earlier in the discussion of the formation of groups by organizational members.

In summary, it has been pointed out that an individual behaves in accordance with his needs. It was also pointed out that by manifesting certain types of organizational behavior, individuals high in relatedness needs will seek to satisfy or fulfill these needs. The reward motivation model attempts to satisfy relatedness needs by permitting the individual to participate in certain types of activity. It is hoped that through collective bargaining these needs will be satisfied or fulfilled.
Reward Motivation: Growth Needs, Individual Expectations

The needs that suggest that a person is in the process of growing or developing have been conceptualized as growth needs. These needs mean the development of the capabilities or potentialities in a person. It has been pointed out that the reward motivation model expects that a person will relate to the organization in special ways. It is assumed under the reward motivation model that if persons can participate in the establishing of organizational policies and administrative procedures, then the growth needs of individuals will be satisfied or fulfilled. However, as pointed out before organizational expectations and members expectations may not be congruent.

It has been pointed out that one of the characteristics of the reward motivation model is that the apparent source of the motivation is from two directions. This model has the organization initiated expectations or the top-down influence and member initiated expectations or the bottom-up influence. The reward motivation model assumes that through the collective bargaining process both the organizational needs and the individual needs will be satisfied or fulfilled. In relation to growth needs this assumption has strong implications for organizational behavior.

Growth needs incite and trigger certain types of human behavior. It has been pointed out that for those persons high in certain growth needs, energy will be mobilized in the form of
motivation to fulfill or satisfy those needs. It was also pointed out that the way a person perceives the organization will depend upon his particular needs, his expectations, and the position or level he holds. The superintendent, the assistant superintendent, the supervisor, the principal, the teacher, the student, and the parent perceive the system according to their needs and expectations.

It has been pointed out that the higher the level in the organization, the more importance a person places on growth needs or the greater the opportunity he has to fulfill or satisfy these needs. This was supported by the findings of Abrahamson (1:3819-3820), Pease (28:22-27), Gruenfeld (16:303-314), Porter and Henry (36:31-36) (37:305-310), Ghiselli (14:431-440), Porter (31:1-10) (32:141-148), Porter and Mitchell (39:139-144), Johnson and Marcrum (21:457-461), Edel (11:31-38), and Rhinehart, et al. (40:230-235). If the same characteristics were found in a school system, then several inferences could be made. Under the reward motivation model the superintendent, assistant superintendent, and other high level positions would apparently perceive growth needs as being important. However, if teachers high in growth needs perceive that this need has been blocked, frustration might occur, and one reaction might be aggressive behavior on the part of the teachers. This results in conflict, which, under the reward motivation model, would be resolved through the process of collective bargaining. The same condition could occur in
the classroom. Students high in growth needs might perceive the avenues of fulfillment as blocked; therefore, frustration might occur and aggressive behavior toward the teacher might result. Under the reward motivation model, this conflict would be resolved through the process of collective bargaining between the students and the teacher. These inferences must be tested empirically.

Achievement needs have been conceptualized as attainment. These needs also suggest that a person is inclined to carry out some activity with a purpose and to accomplish or finish a task successfully. The reward motivation model assumes that a person will be able to fulfill or satisfy growth needs by participating in activities of the organization. By the process of participation it is expected that the achievement needs of the individual can be fulfilled or satisfied. Also under this model occupational mobility could be used as a reward for individuals high in achievement needs. Two studies--Littig and Yearacris (24:386-389), and Crockett (7:191-204)--have found positive relationships between the strength of achievement motivation and occupational mobility. Other studies would suggest that when individuals are high in achievement needs and energy is mobilized to fulfill these needs toward the expectation of the company, success is indicated. This conclusion is supported in studies by Wainer and Rubin (42:178-184), McClelland (25:389-892), and Cummin (8:78-81).
Several studies have been concerned with the relationship of autonomy needs to organizational behavior. Autonomy needs were conceptualized as needs that indicate self-determination. Under the reward motivation model it is assumed that individuals will carry out a purpose or function independently only to the extent that this purpose or function is agreed upon by the individual and the organization. The evidence available concerning the amount of perceived satisfaction or fulfillment of autonomy needs is consistent with previously reported findings. These studies usually indicate that the higher the level in the organization, the more emphasis is placed on autonomy; however, autonomy needs are usually reported as being least fulfilled. This is supported by Rhinehart, _et al._ (40:230-235), Ivancevich (20:274-278), and Porter (33:267-275) (34:386-397).

It has been pointed out that autonomy needs are perceived as very important to certain individuals. If the channel for satisfaction or fulfillment is blocked, the individual will become dissatisfied or frustrated. Miller (26:775-768), Pelz and Andrews (30:89-97), and Day and Hamblin (10:499-510) have found a positive relationship between the feeling of autonomy and organizational control. One could infer from these findings that the more the organization expects an individual to behave in a certain way, the more those persons high in autonomy needs will mobilize energy to resist this expectation.

If the channel for satisfaction or fulfillment is blocked, the individual
could become dissatisfied or frustrated. If the individual cannot satisfy or fulfill this need he may turn to his bargaining group for support, thus hoping to gain access to the organization. If the group attempts to satisfy the needs of its members and it fails to do so through the bargaining process assumed under the reward motivation model, it could call on its members to direct certain behavior toward the organization.

To pursue the above inference in an educational system characterized by the reward motivation model, the following relationship might occur. If certain teachers high in autonomy needs perceive that they cannot satisfy or fulfill these needs in the system, they could turn to professional organizations or to the union for support in fulfilling these needs. If the professional organization or union cannot reach agreement with the higher level position, then the organization or union can call on its members to strike back at the organization. In the classroom if the student high in autonomy needs perceives the blocking of satisfaction or fulfillment as a result of the teacher's behavior, he may become frustrated or anxious. He could strike back with some type of aggressive behavior or he could withdraw and become passive.

The question under the reward motivation model becomes: To whom does the student turn? He could turn to the peer group, the guidance counselor, or the principal, or as stated above he could turn inward and become passive.
Turning now to the self-esteem needs related to the reward motivation model, self-esteem was conceptualized as needs that give a person a good opinion of himself and a feeling of worth and excellence. The reward motivation model assumes that a person will develop and maintain self-esteem while he is working. Consideration and freedom of action were related positively to the perceived satisfaction of esteem needs as reported in a study by Beer (3: 209-222). It was pointed out earlier that this consideration and freedom of action could be brought about by the result of collective bargaining. This would be consistent with the reward motivation model.

Lefkowitz (22:521-528) found that one's feelings of self-esteem are determined largely by reinforcement stemming from one's performance of his job, and from interpersonal relations on the job. He also found that a person having to change jobs could perceive this as threatening because it signifies loss of control over a vital aspect of his life. It could be inferred from these findings that a teacher's self-esteem is determined largely by the reinforcement stemming from his teaching, either from the educational system or the students. If the teacher perceives the organizational environment not conducive to the feeling of high esteem, he will mobilize energy to fulfill or satisfy this need. One could postulate the same condition for students. The student's self-esteem is determined largely by the reinforcement stemming from his performance as a student. If he does not receive
this reinforcement, he will mobilize energy to fulfill or satisfy his esteem need by the manifestations of other behavior. Apparently under the reward motivation model these reinforcements in the form of expectations would be collectively agreed upon.

The feeling of being able to use one's own unique capabilities has been conceptualized as self-actualization need. This need represents a process of growth pertaining to the nature of a person. Beer (3:209-222), Porter (32:141-148) (33:267-275) (34:386-397), Porter and Mitchell (39:139-144), Johnson and Marcrum (21:457-461), Ivancevich (20:274-278), and Saleh (41:425-430) have reported that the self-actualization need was perceived as being one of the most important needs and yet it was seldom satisfied or fulfilled in organizational behavior. However, these needs were perceived as being better satisfied at higher organizational levels. The reward motivation model assumes that organizational expectations and member expectations can be collectively agreed upon to provide the conditions and opportunities to satisfy or fulfill self-actualization needs. It is evident from the above findings that self-actualization needs are not being met by the organization. As a result organization members have mobilized their energies, individually and collectively, seeking ways to fulfill or satisfy their self-actualization needs. Apparently in organizations characterized by the reward motivation model pressure has been directed toward the organization to alter
or change its organizational structure. As a result, participation, enlarged responsibility, and job involvement have been explored. The results of several studies including Myers (27:73-88), Weissenberg and Gruenfeld (43:469-473), Wernimont (44:41-50), Davis and Valfer (9:339-352), and Pelz and Andrews (29:43-47) have found that greater growth need satisfaction appears to be linked to these organizational variables. The result is greater job satisfaction.

One could infer from the above findings that in school systems characterized by the reward motivation model, if teachers high in growth needs perceive that the organizational structure prevents the satisfaction or fulfillment of these needs, energy will be mobilized toward the system. Through the collective bargaining process the system could be altered or restructured. Decentralization would be one example of this restructure. School systems characterized by the reward motivation model must seek ways to permit their members to satisfy or fulfill their growth needs.

**Summary: Reward Motivation Model**

The purpose of this chapter was to explore the institutional or organizational climate within the labor model of education. It was conceptualized that the basic source of authority for the labor model is collective power. Expectations then become associated with reward. The interaction among human needs, reward motivation, and individual expectations was referred to as the reward motivation model.
The reward motivation model's source of expectations was from two directions. The organization initiated expectation was referred to as the top-down influence and the member expectations were referred to as the bottom-up influence. It was also pointed out that the organization initiated expectations could be thought of as external expectations in the form of reward and punishment and that the members initiated expectations were thought of as internal motivation based upon the needs of the organization members.

The position or level of the organizational members has strong implications for the reward motivation model. It was pointed out that the way a person perceives the organization will be determined by the person's needs and expectations. Therefore, the organization may be perceived quite differently by members who occupy different positions in it.

It is concluded that school systems characterized by the reward motivation model must seek ways to permit their members to satisfy or fulfill their needs. If these needs are not satisfied or fulfilled, the members, individually or collectively, will mobilize their energies toward the fulfillment of these needs.
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CHAPTER VIII

MOTIVATION PATTERNS OF SERVICE

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to explore the institutional or organizational climate within the professional model of education. It was pointed out that the basic source of authority for the professional model is the competence of the members of the group. Motivation then becomes associated with providing the highest quality of service to other persons. The source of motivation could be thought of as service. Figure 5 will help to conceptualize the relationships for exploration in this chapter. The interaction among human needs, service motivation, and individual expectations will be referred to as the service motivation model.

Service is a special type of motivation about which several observations should be made as a way of introduction. First, the apparent influence of expectations in the organization is upward from its members. This could be thought of as internal motivation. It was pointed out that the authority of the service motivational model is
Figure 5.

Service Motivation Model
based upon the expertise and specialized knowledge of its members. Under this model, members expect the organization to create a climate in which they have maximum opportunity to perform as professionals. For example, the teacher would expect a school system to create or provide an environment in which he has maximum opportunity to serve the needs of his students.

The second characteristic of the service motivation model is that the professional, the teacher, or the administrator finds himself performing his service in an organization. The service motivation model assumes that authority is delegated and expects that rules and procedures have to be tailored to the individual's needs. The organization also expects its members to behave in certain ways. The organization expects that its members will initiate self-regulatory norms, thereby reducing the need for the organization or system to initiate rules and procedures.

The service motivation model assumes, for example, that school systems would delegate the authority of curriculum planning to the teachers based upon their expertise and specialized knowledge. The teachers would plan the curriculum in accordance with the needs of students. Once the curriculum has been planned by the teachers, the teachers expect the school system or organization to create a conducive climate for carrying out the curriculum. However, the
organization or system expects that the teachers will develop self-regulatory norms of behavior, thereby reducing the organizational initiated expectations of behavior.

To summarize the above example, three characteristics are associated with the service motivation model. First, the influence of expectation of organizational behavior is upward from its members. Second, the organization delegates authority to its members, based upon their expertise and knowledge, thereby expecting that the members will develop self-regulatory norms of behavior. Third, the members of the organization expect that a climate will be provided to perform their function based upon the needs and expectations of their students.

From this brief introduction, it becomes apparent that individual behavior is motivated to help other people. It was suggested earlier that the professional model of education could be thought of as a helping relationship. Teachers help students. Supervisors help teachers. Teachers help supervisors. The need to relate to other people in a helping relationships leads to the inciting and triggering of human behavior. The superintendent, the assistant superintendent, the principal, the teacher, and the student are busily engaged in mobilizing some type of energy as a result of this relationship.
Maintenance needs have been conceptualized as those needs that indicate a means of support for the individual when engaging in some type of behavior. These needs provide a person with a sense of confidence, enabling him to engage in a task feeling free from danger, risk, or injury. Under the service motivation model the members of the organization expect the organization to provide a supportive climate in which to perform their function, which is based upon the needs and expectations of the members, thereby contributing at the same time to the effective accomplishment of the organization.

The feeling of safety and assurance that a person gets from a particular position has been interpreted as security needs. In general, the findings of several studies have pointed out that in relation to other needs, security needs are perceived as being less important to certain occupational groups. Blai (5:81-82) reported that security needs were perceived as being least important among professional groups. However, it was pointed out in earlier chapters that each individual perceives the organization differently. Each individual brings his own set of expectations to the organization based upon his unique needs and expectations. Ghiselli (13:431-440) found that those to whom job security is important appear to be persons for whom reliability, perseverance, and carefulness are significant
values. In a study by Porter (26:141-148), the perceived importance of security needs indicates that these needs ranked relatively higher among other needs for older persons. In a similar finding, Gruenfeld (14:303-314) reported that older supervisors were more concerned with working conditions and the absence of stress while younger supervisors were more concerned with personal security in terms of higher wages and additional benefits.

It could be inferred from the above findings that in school districts characterized by the service motivation model, members would tend to perceive security needs as being least important in relation to other needs. However, some teachers, supervisors, or other members, because of their unique set of needs or expectations, would perceive security needs as important. For example, older teachers could place high importance on working conditions that provide the absence of stress. Younger teachers could be more concerned with higher wages and additional benefits from the system. The degree to which these needs incite and trigger behavior under the service motivation model depends upon how the teacher perceives the climate in which he performs a high quality of service to students. This service is based upon the teacher's expertise and specialized knowledge. Implicit in this statement is that the teacher serves or helps the students according to the needs and expectations of the
students. However, the organizational climate must meet minimal levels of comfort and security for the students and teachers or they will mobilize energy to seek this comfort and security.

To summarize briefly, the school system characterized by the service motivation model assumes that the organization will create a climate to provide comfort and security for its teachers. Teachers expect this type of organizational climate. Therefore, the teacher should have a feeling of security based upon his expertise and knowledge and his skills in applying this knowledge to helping students.

Service Motivation: Relatedness Needs, Individual Expectations

The needs which bring an individual in touch with his environment have been conceptualized as relatedness needs. These needs also suggest that a person has a need to relate to people, to have friends, to have a feeling of belonging, and to be accepted by other people. The service motivation model expects that a person will relate to the organization in special ways. It is assumed under the service motivation model that the organization delegates the authority to its members, based on their expertise and knowledge, and that members will develop self-regulatory norms of behavior. From this assumption, it can be seen that individuals relate to the organization and other people in special ways.
It was pointed out earlier that every individual perceives his expectations and interprets the control system of the organization differently. For those persons high in certain types of relatedness needs, behavior will be incited and triggered to fulfill or satisfy these needs.

Affiliation needs have been conceptualized as those needs that lead a person to join or associate with other people. The service motivation model assumes that persons will associate with other people in a helping relationship. For example, from the teacher's point of view, the teacher would associate with the student in a helping relationship. The teacher would help the student. In another example, supervisors would help teachers. Because of their expertise and knowledge in a certain field, supervisors would help teachers. How the supervisor or teacher affiliates with others in a helping relationship becomes crucial under the service motivation model. How the other person perceives this helping relationship also becomes crucial. Forward (12:2772) found that persons who are strongly motivated to seek social approval (high n Affiliation) reveal significantly stronger tendencies to conform to the majority aspirations of other members than members who are weakly motivated to gain social approval. Wainer and Rubin (33:178-184) found that n Power is negatively related to n Affiliation. It could be inferred from these findings that a person high in n Affiliation needs might manifest a high degree of dependent
behavior. For example, in the helping relationship of the service motivation model, the student high in affiliation need might conform to the aspirations of the teacher. In planning a curriculum or planning other relationships, the teacher high in affiliation need might conform to the aspirations of the group or to his colleagues.

Those needs that cause a person to desire to be a part of some activity were conceptualized as belongingness needs. These needs imply that a person desires a personal involvement in an activity to the extent that he feels himself to be an integral part of the activity. Abrahamson (1:3819-3820) found that participation in decision-making was one of the five categories that received the greatest mention in the extremely important category in his study. Levine and Weitz (20:263-271) found that a major source of dissatisfaction was in influencing departmental policy. From these findings, it can be inferred that certain persons will mobilize energy to fulfill or satisfy belongingness needs. Under the service motivation model, it is assumed that members of the organization will mobilize this energy to influence the organizational climate so that they may perform a helping relationship more adequately. Anant (2:1137-1138) reported in his sample that the higher the sense of belongingness, the lower the anxiety manifested by individuals.
From the above findings one could infer the following relationships in a school district characterized by the service motivation model. Teachers and supervisors will be committed to providing the highest quality of curriculum based upon the needs of the students. The school system has delegated the authority to determine the curriculum to the teachers based upon their expertise and knowledge. By the process of forming curriculum councils and curriculum committees, common objectives and goals concerning the curriculum will emerge. By this process of participation under the service motivation model, it is assumed that belongingness needs will be satisfied or fulfilled. It should be pointed out, however, that the goals and objectives of the curriculum should be flexible enough to permit individual members to utilize their own skills and abilities and at the same time contribute to the effectiveness of the curriculum.

Those needs that cause a person to seek company or have an interest in other people have been conceptualized as social needs. It has been indicated in earlier chapters that in relation to other needs or clusters of needs social needs are generally perceived as satisfied or fulfilled. Apparently members of organizations in general find ways to fulfill or satisfy social needs. However, the findings of two studies should be mentioned in relation to the service motivation model. Porter (25:1-10) and Edel (11:31-38) found that the satisfaction of social needs was greater in first-line supervisors than in middle
management. Edel suggested that this may be a function of social
distance, i.e., the greater physical and social separation of middle
managers from the work force necessitated by the organizational
hierarchy. From these findings one could infer the following
relationship in a school system. Supervisors find higher satisfaction
of social needs than superintendents and assistant superintendents.
This hypothesis could be supported by the fact that supervisors are
closer to the teachers or activity of the system than the superintendent
and assistant superintendent. Porter (26:141-148) found in another
study that in the social need category the opportunity to give help to
other people became increasingly more important at the higher level
of management, while the opportunity to develop close friendship
became increasingly less important at higher levels of management.
In terms of the two previous studies, this perceived social need
importance could be explained in terms of perceived social need
satisfaction. For example, supervisors perceive higher satisfaction
in social needs; therefore, they perceive them as being less important.
This relationship is crucial to the service motivation model.

To summarize briefly, it could be stated that the organiza-
tional climate has a deep impact upon the individual's relationship
to the organization. Each individual with his own particular patterns
of relatedness needs, his perceptions, his level of aspirations, or
his tendency to conform to or deviate from organizational norms is of primary importance in relation to the service motivation model.

Service Motivation: Growth Needs, Individual Expectations

Growth needs have been conceptualized as those needs which suggest that a person is in the process of growing or developing, that his capabilities or potentialities are being expanded. It has been pointed out that the service motivation model assumes that a person will relate to the organization in special ways. The authority of the service motivation model was based on the expertise and specialized knowledge of its members and the motivation could be thought of as internal motivation. Under this model, members expect the organization to create a climate in which they have maximum opportunity to perform as professionals.

Growth needs incite and trigger certain types of human behavior. Persons high in certain growth needs will mobilize energy in the form of motivation to fulfill or satisfy those needs. However, the way a person perceives the organization will depend upon his particular needs, his expectations, and the position or level he holds. The service motivation model assumes that the growth needs of its
members will be satisfied or fulfilled if a climate exists in which the professional member has a maximum opportunity to develop his ideas and skills for the purpose of serving or helping individuals.

Achievement has been conceptualized as attainment. It suggests that a person is inclined to carry out some activity with a purpose and to accomplish or successfully finish an activity. Relating this activity to the findings of studies of organizational behavior, three studies—Wainer and Rubin (33:178-184), McClelland (22:389-892), and Cummin (8:78-81)—have linked the success of people and the success of companies to persons with varying degrees of achievement needs. It is usually found that the higher the level of success, the greater the strength of achievement needs. Studies by Littig and Yearacris (21:386-389) and by Crockett (7:191-204) have found positive relationships between achievement needs and occupational mobility. Eckerman (10:3446) demonstrated that achievement need is a personality factor and is related to some extent to production and level of psychological stress. Finally Kuhlen (18:56-64) found that male teachers high in achievement needs tend to be dissatisfied.

Several relationships that are applicable to the service motivation model could be inferred from the above findings. First, teachers characterized by high achievement needs would respond best in the service motivation model which provides somewhat of a
challenge to their abilities. A basic assumption of the service motivation model is that teachers possess expertise and knowledge about a certain skill or discipline. To utilize this expertise and knowledge, a teacher must perceive the climate as nonthreatening and as challenging. Under the service motivation model, a teacher high in achievement needs should be motivated to provide the highest quality of service to his students.

Second, under the service motivation model, it could be inferred that teachers high in achievement needs would become bored or actually disturbed by routine and detail. They would hate to be forced into routine habits. For example, teachers high in achievement needs to perform a high quality service to students would strongly resist the clerical aspects of the teaching function: completion of attendance registers, collecting lunch money, preparing periodic reports. These teachers will be easily irritated by poor scheduling or by not having the proper supplies, equipment, and facilities. Under the service motivation model, if these conditions are perceived as disturbing to the teacher characterized by high achievement needs, the teacher will mobilize energy to correct the situation.

The needs that indicate the self-determination of a person were conceptualized as autonomy needs. They suggest that a person carries out a purpose or function independently. A number of studies have been concerned with the relationship of autonomy needs to
organizational behavior. Under the service motivation model, it is assumed that a person carries out a function with a high degree of autonomy. However, it was pointed out that the organization expects that the professional group will develop self-regulatory norms of expectations for its members. One could readily see that these self-regulatory norms, probably initiated by the professional group, have the possibility of causing conflict with members high in autonomy needs.

It has been demonstrated by the findings of several studies that autonomy needs are perceived as being very important to certain individuals in certain situations. These studies usually indicate that the higher the level in the organization, the more emphasis is placed on autonomy needs; however, autonomy needs are usually reported as being least fulfilled. This is supported by the findings of Porter (25:1-10) (26:141-148), in relation to vertical location; Porter and Mitchell (29:139-144), in relation to military rank; Johnson and Marcrum (17:457-461), in relation to vertical location; Edel (11:31-38), in relation to vertical location; Rhinehart, et al. (30:230-235), in relation to vertical location; and Abrahamson (1:3819-3820), in relation to critical factors.

From the above findings it could be inferred that certain individuals perceive autonomy needs as a critical need in determining their organizational behavior. For example, a teacher who perceives
autonomy needs as being critical to her personality will initiate behavior to satisfy or fulfill this need. The same example could apply to students. Certain students could manifest certain behaviors in accordance with their autonomy needs. Under the service motivation model, it is assumed that the teacher performs a service or assists his students; therefore, the above situation could result in conflict between the student and the teacher. If the student high in autonomy needs perceives that he does not have a high degree of self-control in individual judgment and independent thought and action in the learning situation, he may mobilize energy to seek this self-control.

It has been pointed out that autonomy needs are perceived as very important to certain individuals. Under the service motivation model, it is assumed that the individual will have maximum opportunity to develop independent thought and action. Several studies have found positive relationships between the feeling of autonomy needs and organizational behavior. Miller (23:775-788), Pelz and Andrews (24:43-47), Day and Hamblin (9:499-510), and Vroom (32:159-177) have indicated that if the channel for satisfaction or fulfillment of autonomy needs is blocked, the individual will become dissatisfied and frustrated and a certain amount of alienation will result. From these findings it could be inferred that the teacher high in autonomy needs will incite and trigger human behavior to
seek freedom to plan and perform according to his expertise and knowledge. Under the service motivation model, the teacher expects that individual judgment and independent thought and action according to his professional right and judgment are necessary to perform his function in a helping relationship. It has also been pointed out that school systems characterized by the service motivation model expect that teachers will develop self-regulatory norms of professional behavior. For teachers high in autonomy needs these self-regulatory norms of behavior could become sources of conflict. The teacher high in autonomy needs will incite and trigger behavior to insulate himself from such control.

It has been conceptualized that those needs that provide a person with a good opinion of himself and a feeling of worth and excellence are self-esteem needs. Several studies have examined this recognition in organizational behavior. Beer (4:209-222) found that consideration and freedom of action were related positively to the perceived satisfaction of esteem needs. Day and Hamblin (9:499-510) found that the relationship between close supervision and aggressive feelings appears to be mediated by the self-esteem of the subordinate and that an increase in aggressive feelings occurred only in subjects having low self-esteem. Bowers (6:23-28) reported a high positive relationship between the supervisor's supportiveness and the self-esteem of his foreman and a high positive relationship between the
latter and the foreman's estimate of what his subordinates think of him. Lefkowitz (19:521-528) found that one's feelings of self-esteem are determined largely by reinforcement stemming from one's performance on the job.

Under the service motivation model, it is assumed that the esteem needs of individuals will be satisfied or fulfilled as a result of recognition of service or the helping of others. The teacher perceives a feeling of worth and excellence by the recognition he receives from other persons. This recognition may come from students, his peer group, supervisors, or even the community. Based upon his expertise and knowledge, the teacher perceives himself as a professional. The society at large could recognize his unique knowledge and expertise, thereby providing recognition for the teacher as a professional in the society. It should also be remembered that the student's self-esteem is determined largely by the reinforcement he receives from his teacher.

The feeling of being able to use one's own unique capabilities has been conceptualized as a self-actualization need. This need represents a process of growth pertaining to the nature of the individual. Several studies have reported that self-actualization needs are perceived as being among the most important needs, and yet that they were seldom satisfied or fulfilled in organizational behavior; however, they were perceived as being better satisfied at

From these findings it could be inferred that in school systems characterized by the service motivation model a climate should be established to permit the teacher freedom to plan and perform his function. Guiding the perceptions and judgments of the teacher will be the students he helps. It is assumed that the teacher will plan a curriculum tailored to the needs and expectations of the students. The teacher must realize that under the service motivation model, his behavior will be motivated to provide the highest quality of service to his students. If teachers and students perceive that some expectation preventing the satisfaction or fulfillment of growth needs is placed upon them by others, energy will be mobilized toward these expectations of others.

Chapter Summary: Service Motivation Model

The purpose of this chapter was to explore the institutional or organizational climate within the professional model of education. It was pointed out that the authority for the professional model is based upon the expertise and specialized knowledge of its members.
Expectations then become associated with providing a high quality service to other people. The interaction among human needs, service motivation, and individual expectations was referred to as the service motivation model.

The service motivation model assumes that authority is delegated and expects that rules and procedures have to be tailored to the individual needs. Members of the organization are expected to behave in certain ways. The organization or institution expects that its members will initiate self-regulatory norms, thereby reducing the need for the organization or system to generate rules and procedures.

It is concluded that school systems characterized by the service motivation model must seek ways to permit members as professionals to satisfy or fulfill their needs. The most pressing responsibility of the service motivation model is maintaining an organizational climate to permit the freedom of the individual professional to engage in creative ways of serving or helping other people, thereby satisfying or fulfilling certain growth needs.
REFERENCES


OVERVIEW OF SECTION III

Section III is also exploratory. It was pointed out in Chapter I that a limitation of this study was the present state of development of supervision theory based on human needs. Supervision was conceptualized as a process to help teachers improve instruction. Many studies selected have been conducted in a noneducational setting or in an industrial setting. Studies of the relationships between school system organizational structure and individual behavior as relating to human needs are relatively infrequent. Any conclusion emerging from this study, therefore, must be regarded with great caution, and it must be remembered that the study is exploratory.

Keeping in mind the severely restrictive nature of the samples used in developing a framework of human needs, implications for curriculum supervision will be explored in the three models of motivation. These models are: the compliance motivation model, the reward motivation model, and the service motivation model.

In this section the institutional expectations of curriculum supervision will be examined. On the other hand, the organization members' expectations of curriculum supervision within the three models mentioned above will be explored.

It is also the purpose of this section to generate some imperatives that are worthy of investigation in curriculum supervision.
Chapter IX explores the implications for curriculum and supervision within the framework of the compliance motivation model, the reward motivation model, and the service motivation model. Supervision was conceptualized as a process directed toward the seeking of organizational patterns to help teachers improve instruction.

Chapter X summarizes the studies and develops imperatives that are worthy of investigation. Chapter I pointed out that the attitude of this study is that it is necessary to provide input from other disciplines and other settings to enable us to reshape our thinking in education and supervision.

As stated, we stand at the crossroads in education. Which road are we to take?
CHAPTER IX

DETERMINING IMPLICATIONS FOR CURRICULUM SUPERVISION

Introduction

An assumption was made at the beginning of this study that supervision could be viewed as a process to help teachers improve instruction. How the supervisor performs this function is the primary concern of this chapter.

Three models of education have been utilized in this study. They are the legal model, the labor model, and the professional model. As it was pointed out, each model differs in its motivational base. The motivational base of the legal model of education has been conceptualized as the compliance motivation model. The motivational base associated with the labor model of education is referred to as the reward motivation model. The motivational base of the professional model of education is the service motivation model. It was not the purpose of this study to choose among the three alternative models of education, but to attempt to clarify their motivational relationships.
This chapter is exploratory, with the specific purpose of determining implications for supervision within the three alternative models of motivation.

Compliance Motivation Model: Curriculum Supervision

It has been pointed out that compliance is a special type of motivation. The compliance motivation model assumes that an institution or organization attempts to control the behavior of its members to accomplish its goals and objectives. Therefore, the apparent influence of expectations is from the top downward. Compliance motivation then becomes the applying of rewards and punishment for compliance or noncompliance.

The second characteristic pointed out about the compliance motivation model was the organizational chart. The institution or organization attempts to control the behavior of its members through the organizational chart. It is apparent that supervision plays a vital role in the compliance motivation model. The organization through supervision attempts to control the behavior of its members.

The central concern of supervision characterized by the compliance motivation model is control. This model relies upon a hierarchy of authority to accomplish the institutional or organizational goals. Supervisors then are expected to employ a rigid supervision approach to demand the compliance of their subordinates.
Supervisors would rely upon personal persuasion or the legal authority of position in the hierarchy to attempt control or change the behavior of a person or to improve instruction. Supervisors could also be called upon to administer reward or punishment for compliance or non-compliance.

To pursue the above relationship in a school system, let's assume that somewhere in the upper levels of hierarchy a curriculum has been placed for the school system. It is expected that teachers will comply with the curriculum; to make sure, the system relies upon supervision. Supervision has been defined as a process to help teachers improve instruction. However, in this case to improve instruction would mean to comply to the curriculum. It is assumed under this model that the highest quality of curriculum has been determined from the above hierarchical position in the organization.

From the above relationship it can be seen that the function of supervision in the compliance motivation model becomes that of requiring compliance with the expectations of the organization. In other words, the expectations of superiors in the hierarchical relationship tend to determine the function of supervision. Based on the premise that supervisors tend to model their own managerial style after what they believe their superior's style to be, Spillane (21:50-54) found that those supervisors who attribute a high degree of authoritarianism to their superiors tend to be strongly
authoritarian themselves. In another study, Berry, Nelson, and McNally (5:423-426) found that what a supervisor looks for in the performance of his subordinates or what he considers to be relevant behavior is in all likelihood a function of his own role with its corresponding set of responsibilities. The above findings tend to support earlier statements in this study that each individual perceives the organization according to his needs and expectations. A strong influencing factor in this perception is the position the person occupies in the organization.

A number of studies have been concerned with the relationship of supervision and organizational control and the resulting organizational climate. Miller (16:775-788) found that alienation from work is a consequence of the professional-bureaucratic dilemma for industrial scientists and engineers. Difference in type of supervision, freedom of research choice, professional climate, and company encouragement were associated with the degree of work alienation. Day and Hamblin (9:499-510) found that the relationship between supervision style and the aggressive feeling of subordinates appears to be mediated by the self-esteem of the subordinates. The persons lower in self-esteem reported more feelings of aggression toward supervisors. In a study by Bachman, Smith and Slesinger (1:127-136) examining the control power of supervision and the resulting individual effects, it was reported that the less effective
office manager was one who appeared to rely more heavily upon the use of reward and sanctions (reward power and coercive power) as a formal description of what his role might indicate. Moeller and Charters (18:444-465), in a study to determine the relation of bureaucratization to sense of power among teachers, found that the climate of repressive authority was related to the sense of power. School systems characterized by an arbitrary, oppressive style of administration also tended to be those in which teachers' mean scores on sense of power were low.

From the above findings it becomes apparent that supervision and organizational control have definite effects upon organizational climate. It will be recalled that organizational climate refers to a series of relationships between human needs and institutional expectations. It was also pointed out that individuals have expectations and needs which may not be congruent with the organization expectations. Potential conflict was identified particularly in the autonomy needs and the self-actualization needs. It was found that persons characterized by high autonomy needs or self-actualization needs will mobilize energy to satisfy or fulfill these needs. It was suggested that compliance and autonomy were polar motivated concepts. When this conflict manifests itself, how does it relate to supervision in the compliance motivation model?
Using the rationale that the middle management supervisor feels a need for less contact with or more protection from both those above and below him, Gruenfeld (11:303-314) found that supervisors at the middle occupational level expressed a preference for having fewer people to please, less criticism, and in turn felt a less strong desire for dealing directly with workers than did supervisors at either the higher or lower echelon. Bar-Yosef and Schild (3:665-673) reported that, to the extent that the bureaucratic role image includes general societal goals, a supervisor is more likely to be able to apply individual defense, be it against clients or organizations. These findings have strong implications for the legal model of education and the resulting compliance motivation model and supervision. For example, if the school board dictates to the administration the type of curriculum it expects from the system, it could lead to more of a structural defense to the administration in demanding compliance with the curriculum. If the superintendent perceives the curriculum as being congruent with the expectations of the community and the school board, the structural defense will become more powerful. Knowing that he has the backing of the community and the school board, he could also perceive a high level of security satisfaction and fulfillment. Supervisors could then become more powerful in demanding obedience and submission to the curriculum in the compliance motivation model.
In conclusion, supervisors in the compliance motivation model is expected to comply with the expectations of the organizations. Supervisors are delegated the authority to control the behavior of the members of the organization. This function is carried out in the form of personal persuasion or the demanding of obedience and submission based on the legal authority of the position in the hierarchy. However, from the findings of this study concerning human needs and their relationship to human behavior, supervisors must realize that individuals do not behave in accordance with the predicted expectation of the organization. They too have expectations and human needs. They have certain maintenance needs, relatedness needs, and growth needs, and they will mobilize energy to satisfy or fulfill these needs. They behave in accordance with their needs. According to the compliance motivation model, it becomes critical for supervisors to improve the process of improving instruction. This process becomes a complex task.

**Reward Motivation Model:**

**Curriculum Supervision**

The basic source of authority for the reward motivation model is collective power. It was pointed out that the reward motivation model has the organization initiated expectations or the top-down influence, and the members initiated expectations or the bottom-up influence. It was assumed that through collective agreement
decisions can be made for the good of the organization and its members. It is also assumed under the reward motivation model that supervision is associated and identified in the organizational chart as management or administration.

The central concern of supervision characterized by the reward motivation model is that of competition. It was pointed out that competition may manifest itself in the form of group pressure or aggression in the attempt to divide or increase the pool of available resources in the organization. If supervision is to become a process to help teachers improve instruction in the reward motivation model, then apparently it must compete with other groups in the organization.

Again to pursue the above relationship in a school system characterized by the reward motivation model, let's assume that through the collective process including supervision a curriculum has been agreed upon. Before proceeding to a discussion of the implications for supervision in the reward motivational model, a closer look at the process of arriving at the collective decision is warranted. The reward motivation model involves two levels of expectations. These expectations are based upon the needs and expectations of the initiating group. Even though supervision is associated with management or administration, both of these levels of expectations could be directed toward supervision. Gruenfeld (11:303-314) concluded in his study that the first-line supervisor
feels sandwiched in between the labor force and management and within the hierarchy of management itself there is the same sandwich effect. In an earlier finding of this study, social needs were perceived as being more satisfied or fulfilled by first-line supervisors than middle managers. This was explained in terms of the closeness of supervisors to the employees. This closeness of feeling to the employees has the possibility of conflict in the reward motivation model. For example, in the collective process of arriving at the curriculum, supervisors with their own expectations could function in four ways.

First, supervisors could align with the interest of the administration, and in doing so could alienate teachers. Second, supervisors could align with the interest of the teachers, and in doing so could alienate administrators. Third, supervisors could show mutual allegiance to both administrators and teachers. Fourth, supervisors could remain an autonomous group and function independently. From this example, it becomes apparent that supervision is a complex function associated with the reward motivation model. However, from these four functions of supervision, one element remains constant--group pressure. From the above relationship, it can be seen that the function of supervision in the reward motivation model becomes a process of improving instruction by applying group pressure.
The second characteristic that could result in the process of the collective decision is an organizational climate that is perceived by some members as frustrating and threatening. It was pointed out in an earlier finding that the group initiating the expectation could call on its members to mobilize certain types of behavior toward the other group if their expectations are not met. One type of behavior that could be used is aggression. For example, a teacher group could initiate an expectation to the administration. If the administration fails to act or to respond to the initiated expectation, the teacher group could call on its members to attach to this expectation certain acts of aggression if they are not met. This could lead to counteraction, which stirs up even more excitement and hostility in the teacher group. This counteraction could arouse the same hostility in the administration. The resulting organizational climate could consist of verbal attacks and other expressions of aggression and the emotional involvement of teachers attempting to satisfy or fulfill their needs through the group. However, an earlier finding pointed out that certain teachers high in relatedness needs could perceive these needs as satisfied or fulfilled by attaching themselves to the group.

Supervision by group pressure has several implications for organizational behavior. It was found that security needs were perceived as more satisfied or fulfilled in higher level managers.
than in lower level managers. This could be linked to the uncertainty of the supervision function created by the reward motivation model.

For example, supervisors would have to compete with the teachers and the administration in the collective bargaining process. One assumption of the reward motivation model is the organization initiated expectations or the top-down influence and the member initiated expectations or the bottom-up influence.

The second implication of supervision by group pressure is alienation. It was pointed out earlier that alienation could result if supervisors aligned with teachers or administrators. Also alienation could result from pressure in the form of an expectation directed toward an individual or group. It was found that persons high in belongingness needs could become frustrated or alienated if the channels of identification with an activity or the organization were perceived as blocked. In support of the above, a study by Gruenfeld and Foltman (12:74-77) shows that dissatisfaction is related to lack of integration and also contributes to the unwillingness of the supervisor to accept a management initiated technological change. It has also been found that enlarged responsibility and participation could lead to greater job satisfaction.

It was found that autonomy needs and self-actualization needs were perceived as among the most important needs influencing
organizational behavior. Supervision by group pressure could lead to frustration, dissatisfaction, and alienation in persons high in autonomy needs and self-actualization needs.

In conclusion, supervision in the reward motivation model is expected to compete with other groups in exerting influence in the process of helping teachers improve instruction. Supervision in the reward motivation model becomes associated with group pressure. In this model supervision becomes a complex function.

Service Motivation Model: Curriculum Supervision

The basic source of authority for the service motivation model is the competence of the members of the group. The service motivation model assumes that authority is delegated and expects that rules and procedures have to be tailored to the individuals needs. The organization expects that its members will initiate self-regulatory norms, thereby reducing rules and procedures. Based upon the expertise and knowledge of its members, the influence of expectation of organizational behavior is upward. It was suggested that the service motivation model could be thought of as a helping relationship.

The central concern of supervision characterized by the service motivation model is that of coordination. The service motivation model assumes that supervisors will perform a function of supporting teachers in providing the highest quality of instruction
to their students. Therefore, supervision becomes the improvement of instruction by supporting teachers. This support would be based upon the expertise and knowledge of supervisors.

It has been pointed out that several studies have found high positive relationships between the supervisor's supportiveness and self-esteem needs. The feeling of self-esteem is determined largely by the reinforcement stemming from one's performance on the job, according to Beer (4:209-222), Day and Hamblin (9:499-510); Bowers (6:23-28), and Lefkowitz (13:521-528). Vroom and Mann (22:125-140) found that employees in small work groups which were characterized by a great deal of interaction among workers, and between workers and their supervisor, and by a high degree of interdependence had more positive attitudes toward equalitarian leadership. Supervisors who are well liked by their subordinates are seen as being participative, exerting less pressure, and creating less tension. A study by Wager (23:391-420) indicated that the manifestation of the supportive style of leadership assists the supervisor in fulfilling his role obligations. The study also reported that supervisors who are reported to have higher influence are much more likely to utilize the supportive style of leadership than those who do not have such influence. The general finding of a study by Mosel (19:9-14) indicated that the supervisor, through the effect of his supportiveness on employee subjective probabilities, has a considerable influence
over the motivating power of management's formal incentives.

Supervision was found to be a source of recognition which could be satisfying in a study by Ewen (10:161-164). The data in a study by Pelz and Andrews (20:43-47) indicated that supervisors were important sources of motivation for employees.

From the above findings, several inferences could be made in reference to supervision in the service motivation model. First, it is apparent that supervisors will have less autonomy and less authority for decision-making in the service motivation model. The apparent influence of supervisors would come from the expertise and knowledge of supervisors relating to the improvement of instruction. The expectations of supervisors would become to create conditions or provide support for the improvement of instruction.

Under the service motivation model, the teachers of the school system expect that the system will provide a supportive climate in which to perform the teaching function. If supervision is perceived as being a helping relationship rather than a threat, certain maintenance needs could be satisfied or fulfilled. This will enable the teacher and the supervisor to develop mutual confidence. This will enable the teacher and the supervisor to work cooperatively toward the goal of improving instruction for students.
Second, supervision in the service motivation model could involve a process of working with individual teachers or with groups of teachers. The supervisor brings to the group the expectation of and commitment to a high quality of instruction. Supervisors and teachers cooperatively work out the problems that arise in the curriculum. Problems of the curriculum are freely discussed in a nonthreatening organizational climate. These problems can be put out on the table, so to speak, where they can be examined and handled in an experimental way until a productive solution can be found.

Through supervision as a group process working toward the school systems objectives, several needs of certain types of individuals could be satisfied or fulfilled. For those persons high in belongingness needs, involvement in the group process could provide a channel for satisfying or fulfilling these needs. It was found that job dissatisfaction could result if these needs are blocked and this could lead to frustration, anxiety and a drop in morale. Also through the group process of working toward the school's objectives, several growth needs of individuals could be satisfied or fulfilled. Through group interaction teachers high in achievement needs, autonomy needs, and self-actualization needs could bring to the group their unique expertise and knowledge. By interacting in a group a teacher could develop independent thought and action and the feeling of being able to use his own unique capabilities and skills.
The following writers have emphasized the importance of the group process in leadership behavior: Cartwright and Zander (8), Likert (14:97-118), Mann (15:68-85), Bowers and Seashore (7:238-263), Misumi and Shirakashi (17:297-307) and Bagley (2:4729). In the study by Bagley (2:4729) it is suggested that consensus as an organizational attribute has been overrated. Dissent in one group may provide freedom of action to another; therefore, special efforts may be made to keep covert discord from becoming manifest and still other conditions may operate to allow effectiveness to emanate from dissension rather than agreement.

Third, as indicated above, supervision could involve a process of working with individual teachers. It was pointed out that individuals have needs and expectations. Through the process of improving instruction, supervisors will attempt to identify these needs and help the teacher structure ways for fulfilling or satisfying these needs. Therefore, supervisors support the teachers and through this feeling of support the teachers could develop a feeling of personal worth and importance. Supervision thus becomes a source of recognition.

In the process of working with the individual teacher, supervisors, under the service motivation model, could provide recognition to teachers, thereby helping them to satisfy or fulfill self-esteem needs. It has been pointed out that the recognition
that a person receives from other persons that he is unique in his expertise, knowledge, and skill is a strong determinant of self-esteem. One way that supervisors could establish a climate for recognition is through the process of the interview. The interview could become a process of supervision. The interview could be conducted in a non-threatening climate for the purpose of influencing teacher behavior. For the interview to work successfully the teacher must perceive that the supervisor has no ax to grind, no games to play, and that the only vested interest is the commitment to improving instruction. This needs to be explored in educational systems.

To summarize briefly, three implications for supervision associated with the service motivation model have been explored: supervision as a process with less autonomy and less authority, supervision as a group process, and supervision as face-to-face process. The primary concern of supervision associated with the service motivation model was that of coordination.

Chapter Summary

Supervision has been viewed as a process directed toward the seeking of organizational patterns to help teachers improve instruction. The purpose of this chapter was to explore the implications for supervision in three alternative models of motivation.
The compliance motivation model assumes that an institution or organization attempts to control the behavior of its members to accomplish its goals and objectives. Supervisors are expected to employ a rigid supervision approach to demand the compliance of their subordinates. The central concern of supervision characterized by the compliance motivation model is control.

The reward motivation model assumes that through collective agreement decisions can be made for the good of the organization and its members. It was assumed that supervision was associated and identified with management, but in fact that expectations could come from management or members of the organization. The central concern of supervision characterized by the reward motivation model is competition.

The service motivation model assumes that authority is delegated and expects that rules and procedures have to be tailored to the individual needs. The service motivation model assumes that supervisors will perform a function of supporting teachers in providing the highest quality of instruction for their students. The central concern of supervision characterized by the service motivation model is coordination.

In conclusion, one thing becomes apparent in analyzing supervision in the three alternative models of motivation. Supervision is always a relative process. To be effective the supervisor must
take into account the needs, expectations, expertise, and knowledge of those with whom he is interacting. From analyzing the three alternative models of motivation, it also becomes apparent that the supervisor must adapt this relative process to the situation. In this case the situation is composed of the expectations of the supervisor, the expectations of those with whom he is interacting, and the model of motivation.
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SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

Summary

This study has been an exploratory one. The primary objective was to investigate the area of human needs as they manifest themselves in organizational behavior. Three alternative models of motivation were analyzed, utilizing the findings from empirical data which deal primarily with human needs or motivation in an organizational setting. Concurrently, it was also the purpose of this study to determine the implications for supervision within these three models of education.

A systematic investigation of the literature revealed that three theories of needs and motivation provided the base for more than half of the empirical research in the area of human needs and motivation in organizational settings. With some degree of assurance it can be stated that the available literature on human needs also revealed that terminology is lacking.
For the purpose of this study it was assumed that human needs were linked to motivation. Human needs were conceptualized as that which incite and trigger human behavior to act with a sense of purpose. Motivation provides the direction and intensity to accomplish this behavior.

Utilizing the above framework from the findings of the studies employed, three dimensions emerged. These seem to comprise the framework of what one may term "human needs." These dimensions are maintenance needs, relatedness needs, and growth needs.

Maintenance needs were conceptualized as those needs that provide a person with a means of support when engaging in some type of behavior. Safety and security needs were offered as examples. The general findings indicate that for high level managers security is perceived as being of no great importance. Middle and higher level managers perceived fewer deficiencies and more fulfillment in job security than lower level managers. Also, findings indicate that the vertical location in the organizational level appears to be an important factor in determining the extent to which maintenance needs are perceived by the individual as being satisfied or fulfilled. In general as one goes from the lower occupational levels to the higher occupational levels the opportunity for
maintenance needs to be fulfilled or satisfied is greater. The same would hold true for the perceived importance of maintenance needs: the higher the level, the less perceived in importance.

Relatedness needs were conceptualized as those needs that bring an individual in touch with another individual or his environment. Affiliation, belongingness, and social needs were offered as examples. The general findings indicate that most of the positive relationships between relatedness needs, and perceived satisfaction or perceived importance were found to be associate with the vertical location of the occupational position. It would appear that the higher his position, the more opportunities the person has to fulfill or satisfy relatedness needs. Social needs were generally perceived as satisfied or fulfilled in relation to other needs or clusters of needs. In general, it was found that a higher sense of belongingness is associated with a lower feeling of anxiety toward the organization.

Growth needs were conceptualized as those needs that expand or bring out the capabilities or potentialities in a person. Achievement, autonomy, self-esteem, and self-actualization needs were offered as examples. In general several findings were associated with growth needs. First, persons high in need for achievement have been linked with the perceived success of a person or linked to the success of a company. Second, the higher the level in the organization, the more emphasis is placed on autonomy needs;
however, autonomy needs are usually reported as being among the least fulfilled needs. Third, the degree of alienation from work was positively associated with the degree of organizational control. Fourth, there was a positive relationship identified between style of supervision and self-esteem. Fifth, the perceived importance of esteem needs and satisfaction and fulfillment could be linked to the vertical location of the position in the organization. Sixth, most studies reported self-actualization as being one of the most important needs affecting organizational behavior and yet it was reported to be seldom satisfied or fulfilled.

It was concluded from these findings that organizational behavior will vary directly with the extent to which needs of an individual can be satisfied by the organization. The stronger the need, the more closely will organizational behavior depend on its fulfillment. It was also pointed out that people have expectations and regular ways of doing things based upon individual needs. Also an individual is aware of institutional expectations or organizational demands placed upon him. These may be thought of as two separate forces, sometimes in harmony and sometimes in conflict. The interaction of these two separate forces—the individual expectation and the institutional expectation—results in what is sometimes referred to as organizational or institutional climate. Therefore, organizational climate was operationalized as referring to a series
of relationships between human needs and institutional expectations. The organizational climate in three alternative models of motivation and implications for supervision were explored. Supervision was defined as a process to help teachers improve instruction.

The compliance motivation model assumes that an institution or organization attempts to control the behavior of its members to accomplish its goals and objectives. Supervisors were expected to employ a rigid supervision approach to demand the compliance of their subordinates. The central concern of supervision characterized by the compliance motivation model is control. Supervisors would rely upon personal persuasion or legal authority of a position in the hierarchy to attempt control or change the behavior of a person or to improve instruction.

The reward motivation model assumes that through collective agreement decisions can be made for the good of the organization and its members. It was assumed that supervision was associated and identified with management, but in fact that expectations could come from management or members of the organization. The central concern of supervision characterized by the reward motivation model is competition. If supervisors are to improve instruction by motivation model, then apparently they must compete with other groups in the organization.
The service motivation model assumes that authority is delegated and that rules and procedures have to be tailored to individual needs. The service motivation model assumes that supervisors will perform a function of supporting teachers in providing the highest quality of instruction for their students. The central concern of supervision characterized by the service motivation model is coordination. The process of supporting teachers would be based upon the expertise and knowledge of the supervisors.

One conclusion based on the analysis of supervision in the three alternative models of motivation is that supervision is always a relative process. To be effective, the supervisor must take into account the needs, expectations, expertise, and knowledge of those with whom he is interacting.

Conclusions and Implications

The data utilized in this study raise the question of the generalities of the phenomena explored and the findings reported in this study. Many studies selected have been conducted in a noneducational setting or in an industrial setting. Studies of the relationships between school system organizational structure and individual behavior as relating to human needs are relatively infrequent. Keeping in mind the severely restrictive nature of the
samples used in developing a framework of human needs, any conclusion regarding individual behavior in educational systems must be regarded with great caution.

The basic and critical question emerging from this study is: Do school systems show characteristics similar to those of the organizations described in this study? The answer to this question becomes our imperative for future research.

First, it could be suggested that future research must be addressed to the two critical relationships. The first concerns the determination of the perceived importance attached to the type of needs that students, teachers, and administrators bring to the educational organization and that affect their behavior. Are there differences in the importance attributed to maintenance needs, relatedness needs, or growth needs? If so, in which specific need areas are the differences greatest? The second critical relationship then concerns the determination of the perceived deficiencies in need fulfillment of students, teachers, and administrators in the educational organization. Are there differences in the perceived deficiencies of need fulfillment in relation to maintenance needs, relatedness needs, and growth needs? If so, in which specific need areas are the differences greatest?
Second, there is an obvious need for experimental studies in different educational organizational settings. For example, studies need to be conducted in educational systems that are characterized by the compliance motivation model, the reward motivation model, and the service motivation model, or any combination of these.

Third, to improve our understanding of the process of supervision there is a particular need for the development and elaboration of a theory of supervision which makes use of a deep understanding of human needs. A supervision theory based on human needs offers the most promising approach to achieving a great understanding of human behavior in educational systems.

In conclusion, the results of this study suggest that much remains to be done to develop a curriculum supervision theory based upon human needs. Five concepts emerge from this study that could give us five keys to insight into understanding human behavior in educational systems. These are needs, perceptions, expectations, motivation, and behavior. We stand at the crossroads. Which road are we to take?
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