

CONDITIONS FOR MANAGER MOTIVATION (МОТИВУВАННЯ В РОБОТІ МЕНЕДЖЕРА)

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The article deals with the problems of motivation in the work of a manager. The factors of manager's motivation are analyzed. The conditions for manager's motivation are outlined and recommendations as for improving the motivation are given.

Key words: *motivation, a manager, an organization, interpersonal competence, self-realization.*

Introduction. Regardless the industry and size, every organization is striving to create a strong and positive relationship with their employees. However, employees have various competing needs that are driven by different motivators. For example, some employees are motivated by rewards while others focus on achievement or security. Therefore, it is essential for an organization and its managers to understand what really motivates its employees if they intend to maximize organizational performance.

Main Material. It is hard to argue with empirical evidence that motivated employees mean better organizational performance (Nohria et al., 2008). There are several major theories that provide understanding of employee motivation: motives and needs (Maslow, 1943), expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), equity theory (Adams, 1963), goal setting (Locke & Latham, 1990), cognitive evaluation theory (Deci, 1971), work design (Hackman & Oldham, 1976), and reinforcement theory (Skinner, 1953). Table 1 summarizes each motivation theory and their principles. We explain these motivation principles below.

Table 1. Employee motivation theories.

Theory	Reference	Motivating principle
Motives and needs	<u>Maslow (1943)</u>	Hierarchy of needs: psychological, safety, social, ego, self-actualizing.
Expectancy	<u>Vroom (1964)</u>	Work effort leads to performance and rewards.
Equity and justice	<u>Adams (1963)</u>	Employees strive for equity between themselves and other employees.

Goal setting	<u>Locke and Latham (1990)</u>	Specific and difficult goals consistently lead to better performance than easy goals or no goals.
Cognitive evaluation	<u>Deci (1971)</u>	External elements affect intrinsic needs, intrinsic rewards and satisfaction.
Work design	<u>Hackman and Oldham (1976)</u>	The five important job characteristics: skill variety, task identity, task significance, feedback, autonomy.
Reinforcement	<u>Skinner (1953)</u>	Managers should positively reinforce employee behaviors that lead to positive outcomes.

To fulfill the drive to acquire, an organization must discriminate between good, average and poor performers by tying rewards clearly and transparently to performance and giving the best employees opportunities for advancement. This rewards system must provide competitive employee compensation relative to the industry. Lawrence and Nohria (2002) show that these reward systems improved employee engagement and satisfaction.

The drive to bond is fulfilled when a culture promotes teamwork, collaboration, openness and friendship. Management is encouraged to care about their employees, and employees are encouraged to care for each other so that there is a sense of collegiality and belonging. Employees are also encouraged to form new bonds.

Job design involves creating and specifying jobs that are meaningful, interesting and challenging to support the drive to comprehend. Employees are also challenged to think more creatively and broadly about how they could contribute to make a difference to the organization, customers, and investors.

The drive to defend is met when there is increased transparency, fairness and equity over all processes. To emphasize these characteristics, performance management and resource-allocation processes are used. These processes make evaluation and decision processes transparent, fair and clear [1].

The motivation of managers is dependent on:

1. Interpersonal competence.
2. The opportunity to work toward meaningful goals.
3. The existence of appropriate management systems.

In the balance of this article, I propose to discuss each of these conditions under which managers can motivate and be, in turn, motivated. Interpersonal competence, for example, describes a developmental style of supervision which meets one of the requirements for higher motivation,

self-realization, and positively expressed creativity. Meaningful goals illustrates ways of giving direction to these positive motivations by providing company goals which offer opportunity for achieving personal goals, and keeping the goals clearly in view at all times by slashing away the underbrush of red tape, protocol, and irrelevant objectives. And management systems describes the vehicles for speeding positively motivated people on to the achievement of their organization goals, thereby reinforcing and perpetuating this motivation [2].

Conclusion. Just as the nonmanager is dependent on his boss for motivational opportunities, so is the manager dependent on his boss for conditions of motivation which have meaning at his level. Since the motivation of an employee at any level is strongly related to the supervisory style of his immediate boss, sound motivation patterns must begin at the top. Being closer to the policy-making level, the manager has more opportunity to understand and relate his work to company goals. However, high position alone does not guarantee motivation or self-actualization.

Motivation for the manager, as well as the nonmanager, is usually both a consequence and a symptom of effective job performance. Job success is dependent on cyclical conditions created by interpersonal competence, meaningful goals, and helpful systems. After sustained conditioning in the developmental cycle, an individual has amazing capacity and incentive to remain in it. Moreover, if forced into the reductive cycle, unless he has pathological needs to remain there, organizational conditions must be remarkably and consistently bad to suppress his return to the developmental cycle.

Sustained confinement of a large percentage of the work force in the reductive cycle is symptomatic of organizational illness. It is usually a culmination of a chain of events beginning with top management, and is reversible only by changes at the top. Consequences of reductive conditions such as militant unionism and other forms of reactive behavior usually provoke management into defensive and manipulative behavior which only reinforces the reductive cycle. The vicarious pleasure sought by the rank and file through seeing the management giant felled by their union is a poor substitute for the self-actualization of being a whole person doing a meaningful job, but, in the absence of motivational opportunities, it is an understandable compromise.

The seeds of concerted reactive behavior are often brought to the job from broadly shared frustrations arising from social injustice, economic deprivation, and moral decadence either to sprout in a reductive climate or become infertile in a developmental climate. Hence, the unionization of a work group is usually precipitated by management failure to provide opportunities for employees to achieve personal goals through the achievement of organization goals. Organizations survive these failures only because most other companies are equally handicapped by the same failures.

Management failures in supervision do not, of course, stem from intentional malice. They may result, in part, from a lingering tradition of “scientific management” which fractionated tasks and “protected” employees from the need to think, and perpetrated management systems based on automaton conformity. But more often such failures stem from the manager’s insensitivity to the needs and perceptions of others, particularly from his inability to see himself as others see him.

Insensitivity or the inability to empathize is manifested not only as interpersonal incompetence, but also as the failure to provide meaningful goals, the misuse of management systems, or a combination of both. Style of supervision, then, is largely an expression of the personality characteristics and mental health of the manager, and his potential for inducing developmental or reductive cyclical reactions.

Література:

1. For a discussion of sensitivity training, see Chris Argyris, “T-Groups for Organizational Effectiveness,” HBR March–April 1964, p. 60.
2. See Herbert H. Meyer, Emanuel Kay, and John R. P. French, Jr., “Split Roles in Performance Appraisal,” HBR January–February 1965, p. 123.

УДК 811.111

TIME MANAGEMENT AS A WAY TO IMPROVE THE EFFICIENCY OF USING THE HUMAN RESOURCES OF AN ENTERPRISE (ТАЙМ-МЕНЕДЖМЕНТ, ЯК СПОСІБ ПІДВИЩЕННЯ ЕФЕКТИВНОСТІ ВИКОРИСТАННЯ ЛЮДСЬКИХ РЕСУРСІВ ПІДПРИЄМСТВА)

Якимовська В.В – студентка групи ПУА 1/1

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The concept of time management is considered. Various approaches of scientists in determining the essence of time management are analyzed and revealed. Existing time management tools are considered and peculiarities of its application in domestic practice are analyzed. The importance of applying working time management techniques to increase the efficiency of functioning of enterprises in modern conditions is substantiated.

Keywords. *time management; time management; enterprise; efficient use of time; working time*