MOTIVATION:

MOTIVATIONAL SPIRALS AND DECISION MAKING

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Characteristics of authors

Preface

Introduction

Chapter 1  Organization and motivation
  Organization and values
  Motivational aspects of behavior in organization

Chapter 2  Survey on motivation and motivating
  Guaranty and organization of survey
  Current content of analytical tool
  Sample calculated and achieved in survey

Chapter 3  Motivation
  Motivation as an inner state: intrinsic, extrinsic, ego-involved and transcendent
  Motivation as a profile of motives
  Motivation as an instigative force
  Motivation as a strength of/for behavior
  Motivation as a complex of reasons of behavior
  Motivation as a reaction to situation
  Motivation as a system of relations and attitudes
  Motivation as a process
  Motivation as a goal setting
  Motivation as a direction of behavior
  Motivation as a multi-content phenomenon
  Motivation as an alphabetical puzzle
  Multilevel perspective of motivation
  Individualistic nature of motivation (survey results)
Chapter 4  **Demotivation, amotivation and antimotives**  
Demotivation  
Amotivation  
De-motive and anti-motive

Chapter 5  **Motivation and motivating**  
Motivating as a process  
Self-motivating  
Motivating others  
Bench-motivating  
Individualized versus socially motivated behavior  
Flexibility and variability in relation to motivating others  
Motivational flexibility  
**Important aspects of motivational flexibility**

Chapter 6  **Motivational programs, tools and events**  
Motivation programs  
**Content of motivation programs**  
**Creation of motivation program**  
*Motivational ‘ambushes’*  
Motivational tools and events  
The most efficient motivators  
**Gamification as the newest way of motivating**  
Financial motivators  
Differences in understanding efficiency of motivators  
Transcendental motivators

Chapter 7  **Motivation in relation to organization culture**  
Organization culture as an important precondition of motivation  
Motivational content of organization culture  
Values, objectives and intentions in organization culture  
Change and anchor of organization culture  
Selected processes of human potential development in context of motivating and organization culture  
**Job analysis in context of motivating and organization culture**  
**Information in context of motivating and organization culture**
Chapter 8  Symbiotic motivational spirals  117

Motivation and leadership  118
  Transformational leadership in relation to motivation  121
  Transcendental leadership in relation to motivation  122
  Transcendent leader as spiritual as well motivational leader  123
  Motivational accent of leadership  125

Motivation and performance appraisal  126
  Process and system of performance appraisal  128
  Motivational and developmental aspects of performance appraisal  129
  Motivational and other conceptions (understandings) of appraisal  131

Motivation and awareness and communication  139
  Communication  139
  Motivational content of communication  141
  Motivational content of awareness  143
  Power of communication in motivating  145

Motivation and atmosphere of trust and belongingness  147
  Trust and belongingness  148
  Motivational content of trust and belongingness  149
  Building the trust and belongingness  152

Methods and hypotheses for symbiotic motivation-process spirals  153
  Hypotheses verification and results  153

Symbiotic motivation-process spirals  161
Symbiotic human potential development process-process spirals  163
Symbiotic motivation-business-processes spirals  165

Chapter 9  Motivation and decision making  169

Decision making  171
Multi-variability, multi-criteria and multi-objectives  172
Matter-of-fact of decision making  174
Rationality, emotions and consequences in decision making  174
Bounded rationality in decision making  176
Chapter 10 First decisional model:

Decision making and motivating 183

Methods and hypotheses for the model construction 184

Hypotheses verification and results 185

Model of decision making and motivating 190

Chapter 11 Second decisional model:

Model of multiplications in motivation decision making 193

Methods and hypotheses for the model construction 194

Hypotheses verification and results 195

Model of multiplications in motivational decision making 200

Decision making processes contented in the model 203

Multiplication (gradation) of manager’s motivations 204

Multiplication (gradation) of employee’s motivation 205

Multiplication effects and multi-criteriality in deciding on motivation affecting 206

Content and principle of multiplicativeness in decision making process 208

Conclusion and implications of constructed models 211

Annex 213

References 219

Index 247
Characteristics of authors

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Preface

The term motivation implies extraordinary strong imaginations always. Motivation represents a qualitative phenomenon which ranks to the most discussed and the most complicated categories of the management science. Motivation can be understood from as various as possible viewpoints. It can be defined as a process by which the individuals set their goals. It can become a conclusion of mixture of the individual’s different motives which s/he experiences and among which s/he decides. It can be viewed and realized as an argumentation of any human action and behavior, etc.

Motivation, in our opinion as the most complex and the most dynamic characteristics of the human potential, is some certainty, basis, and obligation, on the foundation of which the new values are created. An enormous and by nothing substitutable power of the motivation is expressed in a previous notion. Motivation determinates in what direction the individual will develop oneself, what of his/her own competences s/he will use, and in what quality level s/he will be behave and work. In other words, motivation is phenomenal, excellent, but also potentially very danger (if it is belittled) and has to be examined really precisely and with all the scientific attention and serious effort.

For the above reasons, this scientific monograph seeks to focus attention on the truest as possible definition of motivation and key aspects related to the influencing and shaping it. The views of both world and domestic authors are combined mutually in each chapter and complemented by our views and opinions. Such an analytic-comparative-synthetic approach has confirmed us that many original, initial thoughts and knowledge on motivation (e.g. opinions of Alderfer, Bouček & Herbolt, Cole, Herzberg, Homans, Koontz & O’Donnell, Levy, Maccoby, Maslow, Nakonečný, Porter & Lawler, Schachter, etc.), published many years ago, are valid until today. Thereto, many of the authors’ ideas are continuously enriched and developed by contemporary authors and their research in the monograph.

A deeper theoretical analysis of historically valid opinions also shows that some opinions have already lost their full validity at the present, i.e. gradation stage of the humanity and work. However, these thoughts and theories often have many inspirational moments in them that need to be only a little redesigned, revised for the present. In other words, we greatly appreciate the respected authorities – giants in the field of motivation, and we try to make our monograph as responsibly as they do.

However, we critically rely on populist ‘tips’ and hundred percent guaranteed guides on how to properly influence the motivation that are offered to the current manager as the ‘motivating bestseller’ on the book market. Laic and over-simplified views on human and work motivation are badly damaging to the whole science of motivation. On the other hand, it is also admitted that the dissatisfaction with naïve perceptions of motivation, growing in us more and more by years, has led and permanently leads us to even more thorough and more precise research of motivation. Based on this, we strive to apply appropriate scientific methods and procedures in the development of this discipline.
That is, we have tried to complement and prepare the entire text of the monograph so that it is as inspirational as possible for the reader. Precisely for this reason monograph contains not only the results of the well-founded scientific effort of authors from around the world, but also challenging and good practice applied by large organizations (corporations) in improving motivation of their employees and managers.

We hope that the monograph will be able to meet the intention of our team: to dedicate deserved and deep attention to motivation, and contribute to the science of motivation through our own results, models, and experiences. Therefore, we will gladly answer any questions of all readers (blaskova@fri.uniza.sk). We like to be inspired to further moves in the field of scientific exploration of motivation, desiring to the employees and managers of all types of organizations (both productive and non-productive) to be happier in their work.

Authors
Introduction

Current organizations conceived as intelligent and motivated systems are sensitive not only to internal but also to external factors of the environment. The competition requires not only the ability to react promptly and flexibly but also the creativity and rationality of decision-making. Feedback functions, variability of behavior and ability to learn are therefore important for organizations of innovative type (Morgan, 1986). The key question becomes one of finding ways in which organizations can create the motivational environment they desire (Bedrnová, Nový et al., 2004; Boxall & Purcell, 2008).

Any of all human behaviors, any of all performed or unperformed activities, contains a motivation within itself – conscious or unconscious reason (compulsions) to act. This reason, or rather a set of mutually connected reasons or several reasons overlapping in time which are independent of each other are defining the foundations of energy that leads to a specific act. Executed or denied act of a person is visible and significant result of these reasons and of created, accumulated energy. Gained energy is characterized (expanded, escalated or limited) by personality traits of an individual. Therefore it is possible to relate this psychic energy, which is charged with the reasons, to motivation of a human being. In this connected view it is possible for motivation to represent/be equal to energy; energy can create and bolster motivation, or a motivation can strengthen and replenish energy that is being gathered.

In the context of psychology and psychology of human behavior it is possible to state in general that motivation represents the most essential sign of personality. Motivation is a mirror of personality. It is a function of personality, with its every positive and negative impacts. And, vice-versa, personality is a roof, regulator, activating and dynamic (or retarding) creator and mover of motivation and behavior of an individual.

According to Maslow, considered as the most important scientist and author in the area of the scientific beginnings of understanding and influencing human behavior, any motivated behavior, either preparatory or consummatory, must be understood to be a channel through which many basic needs may be simultaneously expressed or satisfied. Typically an act has more than one motivation (Maslow, 1943: 370) while thwarting peoples’ needs undermines their happiness, growth, and well-being (Sheldon & Hilpert, 2012: 439).

The theoretical and experiential knowledge of motivation is now so rich, complex, and precious that it has already met the parameters of a science discipline indefinitely. This is evidenced by the growing number of scientific works (monographs, studies, articles) published in the last two decades. Among many such works, it can be mentioned, for example, the monograph from 2008 edited by J. Y. Shah & W. L. Gardner: Handbook of Motivation Science (New York: Guilford Press), or the journal of the Society for the Science of Motivation titled as Motivation Science, established in 2014 (edited by G. H. E. Gendolla & R. A. Wright), or the Book Series titled as Advances in Motivation Science, published by Elsevier from 2014, and so on.
More specifically, the science of motivation and decision-making on its ethical and managerial and humanly correct cultivation, based on understanding, correct direction and continuous improvement, meets the basic attributes of the science discipline:

- This one has its own subject of research which it focuses a targeted scientific attention on (motivation);
- This one uses scientific methods in its development, both quantitative (structured questionnaire, experiment) and qualitative (analysis, meta-analysis, synthesis, abstraction, comparison, generalization, induction, deduction, modelling, etc.);
- This one has its own terminology (e.g. meta-needs, transcendent motivation, amotivation, etc.) as well as terminology adopted from other disciplines (e.g. motivational behavior, recursion, etc.).

In view of the expected benefit to society, the science of motivation and influence it can be considered as a praxeology science. This means that, on the basis of thorough scientific knowledge, it seeks to respond to current needs and threats to motivation in terms of real corporate (business) and societal practice. Even the science of motivation (similar to management science) tries to reveal in advance the possible imperfections or negative elements that will hit the field of work motivation in the future. On such imperfections, the science of motivation not only draws attention, but tries to grasp them scientifically. This can be explained by the fact that, based on the appropriate scientific methods chosen and on the basis of implementation and utilization of the results of longitudinal researches, it focuses on the ‘forward’ solution of future problems – it seeks to model the possible ways, means, and impacts of eliminating potentially occurred problems related to the work motivation.

Based on these ideas, the entire text of the monograph is divided into eleven chapters. After the Chapter 1, which deals with the organization and motivation, chapter characterizing our research endeavor (Chapter 2) is included. It focuses on the informative review of our five sociological survey, undertaken in 2001, 2006, 2009, 2013 and 2016, while the methodology of the survey from 2016 is more particularly described (organization of survey, current content of applied questionnaires, and survey sample).

The concrete results of this latest survey are then used in many chapters of the monograph. In addition, they serve as a support for construct of the existence of symbiotic relations between motivation or motivational process and key processes of human potential development (leadership, performance appraisal, communication, and trust).

The next two chapters focus on understanding different approaches and opinions on the definition of the concept of motivation (Chapter 3), demotivation, amotivation, de-motive, and anti-motive (Chapter 4). Chapter 5 builds on these views and defines the process of influencing the motivation as the process of motivating – the motivational process. In addition to the motivation process, subchapters on self-motivating, motivating others, bench-motivating, motivated behavior, and motivational flexibility are also included. A natural continuation of this text is Chapter 6 which defines the motivation programs, motivational tools and events, the most efficient motivators, financial motivators, and transcendental motivators.
Chapter 7 is knowledge-interest which examines the motivation in relation to organization culture. In this chapter, the organization culture is understood as an important precondition of motivation. The emphasis is put on the motivational content of the culture and simultaneously, selected processes of the human potential development are contextualized to the motivating and the organization culture.

For most beneficial we consider Chapters 8, 9, 10 and 11. Chapter 8 focuses attention on the interrelations (reversible binding) between the motivation and the leadership (transformational and transcendental leadership in relation to motivation, transcendent leader as spiritual as well motivational leader, and motivational accent of leadership), the motivation and the performance appraisal (motivational and developmental aspects of performance appraisal, and motivational and other conceptions of appraisal), the motivation and the awareness and communication (motivational content of communication and awareness, and power of communication in motivating), and the motivation and the atmosphere of trust and belongingness (motivational content of and building the trust and belongingness).

The theoretical explanation of these terms along with the presentation of assumption testing on the existence of dynamic relationships between them results in the creation of a series of original models depicting symbiotic spirals between the motivation and the human potential development processes (Model of symbiotic motivation-process spirals), spirals among the key processes of human potential development (Model of symbiotic human potential development process-process spirals), and spirals between the improved motivation and the business processes of organization (Model of symbiotic motivation-business-processes spirals), which are included into the Model of symbiotic spirals between and among the motivation, the HPD processes and the business processes.

Chapter 9 is focused onto the examining motivation/motivating and decision making and defining the decision making in motivating employees and managers (including decisional dilemma in motivating, participants of motivational decision making, inter or multi-disciplinary character and methods, and recursion in taking motivational decisions). This chapter is the basic platform for Chapters 10 and 11.

The both chapters present the most significant results of our survey performed in 2013 and hypotheses verification for two decisional models in motivating. Chapter 10 contains the First decisional model: Model of decision making and motivating, and Chapter 11 contains the Second decisional model: Model of multiplications in motivation decision making. The most important are especially following subchapters: Decision making processes contented in the model; Multiplication (gradation) of manager’s motivations; Multiplication (gradation) of employee’s motivation; Multiplication effects and multicriteriality in deciding on motivation affecting, and Content and principle of multiplicativeness in decision making.
We hope as well wish readers to find some instigative ideas in this monograph that will help them to become the better scientists, leaders and inspirers.
Organization and motivation

Each behavior is called up and, simultaneously, expressed in a concrete social environment. This means it is important to follow the functionality of the *social system*, which is either relevant in the society, organization, or group, or directly represents/defines the society, organization, or group. According to Parsons (1973), social system represents a set of roles and role expectations. Social role is a characteristic of behavior of an ideal employee, who is about to act in a certain way in the given position. The role also includes general stylization of the person and his or her appearance and manners how s/he influences others (Hubinková et al., 2008: 208). The crucial idea is that the proper performance of social roles is remunerated (gratification), aberrant behavior is punished (sanction), (Parsons, 1973).

Organization and values

Organization is a social unit (Nový, Surynek et al., 2006: 104). It is the unit with a certain number of members with the boundary between its own structure and surrounding structures (Jandourek, 2003: 87). In particular, organization is a self-regulation mechanism and it is needed to examine from the beginning how to achieve that the action of members is monitored in the interest of the objectives of the organization in the most economical way (Keller, 2005: 37). In doing so, *values* are important concept in the society and organizations. “There are just those values playing a central role in any society which are shared by its members, and aim their action in accordance with the needs of the system,” (Parsons, 1973). The common core of a well-functioning organization includes such values as loyalty to the organizational structure and its imbedded authority, a code of defined and rational conduct and trust among members of the organization. Other values, such as a sense of collective responsibility, pride in the work, ethical behavior, and disdain for conspicuousness and consumption, are other contributors to the effectiveness of an organization (Frankel, 2008: 15). Based on presented opinions, the values might be related to and understood as the possible ways which the motivation could be influenced through. For example, Hill (2016) opines that the personal values or emotive needs matter much more than extrinsic rewards such as money and promotion.

Without any pretension this means that the work environments have great impact on individual’s joy, morality, behavior and calmness (Arditi, 2001). Learning theory defines motivation as behavior acquired and maintained through conditioning processes (Organ & Bateman, 1991: 104). External influences do not act on the personality of man mechanically by their objective and always physical characteristics: the world of man is the world of meanings, i.e. objects that have a relation to one’s psychic, especially to his or her motives; important is that what has a functional relation to motivations, i.e. what enables to become means for the achievement of a certain aim and what is represented as the target object itself (Nakonečný, 1995: 54). And, there is only one way to make people do what we
want and that is persuading them to want what they have to do (Robbins & Coulter, 2006). In this sense, motivating involves influencing the employees’ behaviors through such incentives that will be transformed by them into an action in accordance with the organization’s objectives.

In addition, the motivation of individual or group is caused, evoked by the general, society-wide, regional and organizational influences, requirements, and roles assigned. Social requirements and standards declared, social roles, and statuses assigned motivate groups (organizations, working teams) and individuals to the expected behavior and warn them against undesirable behavior. In order to meet these stimuli and pressures, subjects are motivated to behave (rationally or irrationally) so that the consequences of their actions will bear not only themselves, but certain degree of responsibility will be borne by those individuals or groups who should regulate their behavior, however, they failed. „Sociologists do not deny that individuals make choices or that they must take personal responsibility for those choices. But they are quick to point out that we cannot fully understand things happening in our lives, private and personal though they may be, without examining the influence of the people, events, and societal features that surround us,” (Newman, 2010: 6).

Motivational aspects of behavior in organization

All behaviors are the behaviors motivated. „Inevitably, because people are social beings with needs greater and more complex than those of machines, a variety of unanticipated behavior and attitudes that are not required will begin to emerge and over time take on relatively stable patterns,” (Cohen et al., 1992: 85).

This shows we consider values as an important concept in searching both the motivation and ways for influence it. Values determine the motivation of society, organizations and their members themselves. Therefore, it may be interesting to indicate the results of the survey made by the Centre for Public Opinion Research of the Institute of Sociology of the Academy of Sciences of the Czech Republic in July 2014. The sample of 1,049 respondents was examined of what importance they ascribe to the values defined now. Respondents indicated the ten most important values as follows: 1. To live in happy family; 2. To help mainly family and friends; 3. To have children; 4. To have friends; 5. To have own nice housing; 6. To live in healthy environment; 7. To have an interesting and rewarding job; 8. To have a meaningful and useful work; 9. To live healthily; 10. To live by own beliefs (Centrum..., 2014). The results show that the respondents consider important not only the values relating to the private life but also the life of work.

Thus, if it is desirable that the members are identified with the organization as a broadly understood system, its values, customs and traditions, it is necessary to motivate them on the basis of different motivational instruments and techniques (Kachanáková, 2010: 110). This inevitably leads to issues of motivation and motivating, so that the individuals will be able to perform their roles in the organizations as effective as possible and with the sufficient enthusiasm.

The motivation significance lies in the fact that it determines work’s results, and at the same time it is something intangible (Griffin, 2007: 519). However, motivation is not an end
but should serve the objective of the organization. The aim is to ensure a coordinated employee effort in keeping with corporate objectives (Frey & Osterloh, 2010: 21). Objectives harmonization or identification with (from the viewpoint of the motivation and motivating) is pointed out also by many other authors, e.g. Maccoby (1988), Koontz & Weihrich (1993), Clark (2003), Wright (2003), Armstrong (2007; 2009), Bender at al. (2012), etc.

Trying to more deeply search the motivation, an *addressability* of motivation is extraordinary important. This means that the overall motivation of organization must be targeted not only on the internal members (employees and managers) but also to external addressees: the customers. According to Chun & Davies (2009), to win customers’ hearts, a service business needs engaged employees who actively transmit their enthusiasm to customers. Satisfying employees is a worthwhile aim in itself for many reasons, e.g. engage employees by giving them both reasons and ways to please customers; then acknowledge and reward appropriate behavior.
Chapter 2: Survey on motivation and motivating
Survey on motivation and motivating

Our latest questionnaire survey, results of which will be subsequently presented in individual chapters of the present monograph, was carried out in 2016 in both production and non-production organizations active in the Slovak Republic. We prepared and carried out the survey with the aim to have nation-wide distribution of respondents, i.e. respondents included employees and managers from various regions of the Slovak Republic, working in various sectors of national economy (according to applicable statistical classification). Furthermore, the structure of respondents varied also with regard to age and education: respondents from all age categories and all levels of attained education participated in the survey.

Guaranty and organization of survey

Sociological survey took place between January and June 2016. An investigator of the whole survey was the research team of scientific project VEGA No. 1/0890/14 Stochastic modelling of decision-making processes in motivating human potential. The project was supported by the Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Sports of the Slovak Republic. Together with active involvement of project researchers from the School of Economics and Management in Public Administration in Bratislava, the organizational and professional guarantor of the whole sociological interviewing were project researchers from the University of Žilina in Žilina.

Interviewing was performed by personal contacting employees and managers with written (email) or personal request for filling in the prepared electronic questionnaire. This method was chosen especially for the highest expected return and more transparent processing of collected data.

Structured questionnaire was chosen as the basic analytical tool of the survey. The questionnaire was prepared in two versions: version for employees and version for managers (Annex 1 and 2). Characterizing identifiers of the employees group in the survey are age, gender, education, duration of practical experience, size of organization, region and industrial sector. Another identifier was added for the group of addressed managers: management position (top management, middle management, operative management).

In line with the intention to deal with longitudinal research, questionnaires used in the 2016 survey were prepared as harmonized versions of author-original analytical tools (questionnaires), which were gradually used for examining motivation in the series of our 4 previous surveys carried out since 2001. In 2001, survey was attended by N = 115 respondents, in 2006 number of respondents was N = 950, in 2009 N = 6,599 (in addition to survey realized in Slovak Republic, this one was performed also in organizations of Poland). In 2013, the survey was participated by N = 1,946 employees and managers. Original questionnaires from 2001 were on the grounds of repeated analyzed and improvements of
the whole research methodology gradually systematically reworked and improved. That means that the original range of questions was completed with new questions, some questions from original questionnaires were slightly modified and some questions were completely removed from questionnaires.

Current content of analytical tool

The structured questionnaire as an analytical tool used for our sociological survey consisted of several parts:

a) *Initial motivational address*, which presented the aim of the questionnaire survey. Respondents were asked in the address to fill in given questions and they were also assured about the anonymity of the whole survey and confidential handling of their statements. The conclusion of the initial address introduced the research team of the overarching scientific project.

b) *Basic characteristics* serving as identifiers, namely age, gender, education, duration of practical experience, size of organization in which respondent works, region in which the organization resides and sector in which the organization operates. The identifier for the location of management position of the manager within the organization’s hierarchy was added for the group of managers.

c) *Main section* containing individual questions. Questions were aimed at the strength of motivation, making decisions about self-motivation, making decisions about implementation and effectiveness of motivational tools, effectiveness of predefined motivational tools, factors and events decisive for any possible change of previous motivation, related processes of development and management of human potential which influence the motivating process, etc.

d) The last part of the questionnaire was a short thank you note to respondents for their willingness to fill in all questions in the questionnaire responsibly.

Current content of questionnaires for employees is modified into 17 questions. Questionnaire for managers contains 18 questions. As indicated above, some questions in questionnaires for managers were formulated as contra-positional: whereas questions for employees examined their opinion about the real performance or quality of implemented human potential development processes provided by managers or organization management, contra-positional questions formulated for managers examined how managers proceed in the defined process in relation to the motivation of their employees.

Out of all given questions, five questions examined time or qualitative aspect of formulated questions. In such type of questions, Likert’s scale was used where 1 = yes/high; 2 = almost yes/rather high; 3 = averagely/average; 4 = almost not/rather low; 5 = not/low. Five other questions contained pre-defined statements (77 statements in these questions together), of which respondents should mark those which reflect the dynamics and decision making about their motivation. Two questions contained an additional task for respondents to determine the order of 3 most important pre-defined factors decisive for their motivation and motivating; one question required determination of nature (positive versus negative) and
degree (from –3 to +3) of change of factors which most influenced the change of respondent’s motivation.

Specifically, the content of questionnaires was focused on several areas, whereas those areas or processes of human potential development and/or management of organization that are closely related with and affect especially decision making in motivating were chosen, namely:

- Awareness of objectives and intentions of the organization;
- Applied style of leadership;
- Appraisal and remuneration;
- Communication with superiors and colleagues;
- Working environment;
- Level of motivation with regard to various factors;
- Self-motivation;
- Motivating: motivating programs and tools (effectiveness, application, effect of time, etc.).

Above said areas were chosen on the grounds of theoretical knowledge of national and foreign authors in the field of motivation and motivating, who agree on the fact that motivating is a process running simultaneously with other processes of management and development of human potential and these processes continuously and mutually affect, complement and support each other.

**Sample calculated and achieved in survey**

Target group of the whole research is the working population of the Slovak Republic, reaching in 2016 the number $N = 2.42$ Mil. workers.

Statistical approach was used for the selection of sample size, especially due to accuracy of evaluated results. The size of selected sample $n$ and error tolerance $E$ were calculated from following equations available as online calculation on the website Raosoft.sk:

\[
x = Z \left( \frac{c}{100} \right)^2 r(100 - r)
\]

\[
n = \frac{Nx}{((N-1)E^2 + x)}
\]

\[
E = \sqrt{\frac{(N-n)x}{n(N-1)}}
\]

In this equation $N$ is the basic set, $r$ is share of answers the research team is interested in, and $Z(c/100)$ is critical value for the confidence level $C$.

Recommended selected sample for the questionnaire survey is according to the calculation of the said software 385 respondents, with error of estimate 5%. As the research team managed to involve 2,626 respondents in the survey, the error of estimate was reduced to 1.91%. Table 1 shows specific distribution of respondents.
## Chapter 2: Survey on motivation and motivating

### Table 1: Identification of survey participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>All respondents (2,626 (100.00%))</th>
<th>Male (N = 1,084; 41.28%)</th>
<th>Female (N = 1,542; 58.72%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Managers</td>
<td>Employees</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>% of all</td>
<td>% of managers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Top Level</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.49</td>
<td>21.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operative</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>11.04</td>
<td>51.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Size of organ.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Micro</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>7.16</td>
<td>33.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>82.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>5.56</td>
<td>26.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>5.06</td>
<td>23.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Vocation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Higher</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>6.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>236</td>
<td>8.99</td>
<td>42.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>18–27</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>5.03</td>
<td>23.61</td>
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<tr>
<td>28–37</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>5.79</td>
<td>27.19</td>
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<tr>
<td>38–47</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>6.36</td>
<td>29.87</td>
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<tr>
<td>48–57</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>16.82</td>
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<tr>
<td>58–68</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>2.50</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Experience</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>0–9</td>
<td>236</td>
<td>8.99</td>
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<tr>
<td>10–19</td>
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<td>5.18</td>
<td>24.33</td>
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<tr>
<td>20–29</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>5.18</td>
<td>24.33</td>
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<tr>
<td>30–39</td>
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<tr>
<td>40–50</td>
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<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.72</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>County</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>BA</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>7.31</td>
<td>34.35</td>
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<tr>
<td>KE</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>3.04</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>PO</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>NR</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>2.36</td>
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<td><strong>TN</strong></td>
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<td>TT</td>
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<td>0.65</td>
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<td><strong>Sector</strong></td>
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<td>J</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>10.20</td>
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<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>7.87</td>
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<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>3.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>16.82</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>R</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>0.95</td>
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<td>P</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>3.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>18.25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Based on the identification of respondents by means of basic characteristics we can establish that this is a **multidimensional sample**, i.e. the selected sample of respondents has varied distribution of individual characteristics.

The Table shows that respondents are specifically classified according to the level of management, size of organization, attained education, age, duration of practical experience, region and sector in which they work, stratified to managers and employees. The Table also shows for each characteristics percentage of occurrences within the whole sample of respondents, percentage of occurrence in the given category (manager/employee) and percentage of occurrence of males and females in the given category.

As to the **gender**, 1,084 males and 1,542 females participated in the survey, of which 559 were managers and 2,067 employees. The most numerous group in the distribution according to the **level of management** was the medium level of management, i.e. 51.88% of managers. The proportion is similar in the case of size of the organization. In the distribution according to the **attained education**, the most numerous groups in case of managers are managers with higher (49.37%) and secondary (42.22%) education, and in case of employees the most numerous are employees with higher education (57.57%). We can thus establish that more than half of the respondents is formed by highly qualified human potential, which is very sensitive especially to motivating effect.

What concerns the distribution of respondents according to their **age**, the most numerous group are middle-aged managers 38–47 years (29.87%) and predominantly younger employee to 30 years (40.83%). The distribution of respondents according to the duration of **practical experience** shows that they are mainly employees with experience up to 10 years. The distribution of respondents according to the **region** where the organization operates and **sector** in which they work is proportionally similar related to employment rate in particular regions and sectors.

Detailed results of all relevant statements of respondents will be presented in chapters, which gain with the support of statistical results adequate importance and deserved attention. Findings e.g. about the intensity of perceived motivation, most effective motivational tools, potential increase of work performance due to more effective motivating, etc. will be presented in this way. We believe that findings from 2016 will support especially the justification of our hypothetical model of symbiotic motivational spirals.

The last two chapters of this monograph will contain more detailed results from our previous survey carried out in 2013. Their role is to back up 2 created models dealing with particularities of decision making in motivating employees and managers, or else particularities of motivational decision making.
Motivation

Motivation is the most complicated phenomenon of the contemporary science on human potential development and other behavioral sciences (e.g. psychology, sociology, social psychology, management, organizational behavior, human resource management, social economy, etc.). Motivation cuts across all the areas of economy as well as social life of each country and society.

Motivation is typical of primary, secondary as well as tertiary sector of each country. In the primary and secondary sectors, this encompasses the respect for the importance of sufficiently strong motivation of production/manufacturing employees and managers (Reichheld & Rogers, 2005; Becker, Huselid & Beatty, 2009; Bourne & Bourne, 2011; Marr, 2012; Gražulis & Rakalovič, 2013; etc.). In the tertiary sector, including services such as healthcare, security, education and others, which, in essence, actively foster the country’s economics sustainability and growth, the motivation of employees and managers is also addressed by numerous authors (e.g. Wright, 2003; Ryan & Deci, 2008; Segeč & Kubina, 2008; Borkowski & Rosak-Szyrocka, 2012; Jedinák, 2011; Roets, Van Hiel & Kruglanski, 2013; etc.). The basis is the knowledge that the motivation of employees and managers in the third sector, seen as a stimulus, action/psychological support and accelerator of work efforts, has a direct impact on the motivation of clients and customers (students).

According to Provitera (2012), motivation is an approximate science. When trying to define the motivation, many various viewpoints or understandings should be used. According to Matuska (2014), motivation is linked with biological standards of human organism but also with spiritual and social side of human nature (p. 78) and can be classified according to how it functions or according to its effects on the basis of what motivation tools can be used in a given situation (Bencsik, Machova & Hevesi, 2016: 183).

The real motivation can be achieved by many ways. It can be for instance voluntarily accepted. It can be forced by power. It can be built from the inside on the grounds of morality, necessity, love, altruism, egoism. It can be perceived as the pure result of action of neurons in the brain of the individual.

Motivation from other point of view can be the outcome of ethical acting of an external subject. It can be also induced on the grounds of long-term (explicit or hidden) manipulation by the environment. This means, the motivation has to be understood in all its complexity and varietal senses.

Based on accepting all the depth, potential excellent impacts, or potential horrible consequences, the motivation might be understood as an inner state, as a profile of motives, as an instigative force, as a strength of/for behavior, as a complex/set of reasons for behavior, as a reaction to various situations, as a system of relations and attitudes, etc.
Motivation as an inner state: intrinsic, extrinsic, ego-involved and transcendent

Motivation is an inner state of the soul of man which is initiating him or set him in motion (Berelson & Steiner, 1964). More concretely, this is an internal state that incites the individual to the activity directed to a specific goal (Kassin, 2012: 407). When the individuals are intrinsically motivated, their curiosity and interest to learn will promote flexibility in their way of thinking and eventually encourage their risk-taking behavior (Grand & Berry, 2011).

Differing between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, the intrinsic motivation refers to what extent the individuals are motivated and interested in their tasks and to what extent they actively participate in their tasks (Deci, 1972). Intrinsic motivation is a form of self-regulation, in which individuals demonstrate their own interest in the activity (Hrbackova & Suchankova, 2016: 690) tends to make the individuals more curious, flexible, and brave to take risks (Paramitha & Indarti, 2014: 105).

On the other hand, activities that are not interesting (i.e., that are not intrinsically motivating) require extrinsic motivation, so their initial enactment depends upon the perception of a contingency between the behavior and a desired consequence such as implicit approval or tangible rewards (Gagné & Deci, 2005: 334). According to self-determination theory, extrinsic motivation can:

- Reflect a desire to gain rewards or avoid punishment (external regulation);
- Boost one’s ego or avoid feelings of guilt (introjection);
- Attain a valued personal goal (identification); or
- Express one’s sense of self (integration), (Meyer & Gagné, 2008: 60).

Stated shortly: extrinsic motivation is the drive that is caused by motives that are external or environmental (Honeybourne, 2005: 81). According to King & Lawley (2013), the rewards such as e.g. praise or interesting work are not as tangible as a pay, but they are still extrinsic motivators and should be provided within the workplace. However, such rewards may also contribute to the individuals gaining intrinsic rewards, such as a sense of achievement or a sense of pride in their work (p. 273).

An idea is interesting that in addition to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, also an ego-involved type of motivation exists. According Gagné & Deci (2014), this motivation is not prodded by outside factors, such as rewards and punishments, and although it is internally driven, it is not the same as intrinsic motivation. In contrast to intrinsic motivation which is measured with the free-choice, in ego-involved motivation people’s feelings of worth are dependent on what they do or how they do it, so people feel pressured or controlled to do what would make them feel worthy (p. 2).

Whereas receiving a sense of transcendent purpose is important in understanding the subjective motivations for why certain actions are taken, the function of spiritual practice for sustainability sheds light on how this is possible over extended periods of time in the face of repeated failures and seemingly insurmountable odds (Stanczak, 2006: 88). This creates the desirable base for accepting and understanding the core of a further specific type of motivation: transcendent motivation. Transcendental motivation as the product of
transcendental leadership (Scott, 2008: 26) is a spiritually induced process driven by a selfless need to improve the welfare of society (Tongo, 2016). According to Pérez-López (1991), a person’s contributive, i.e. transcendent motivation is the willingness to act because of the benefit the person expects others to experience as a consequence of the behavior. In transcendent motivation the individual is concerned about how he/she can influence others through the task (service), (Pérez-López, 2002).

Transcendent motivation implies recognizing the ‘other’ as an end; actions are directed towards that ‘other one’ and relationships are essential to transcendent motivation (Arredondo, 2006: 23). This means that if leadership is focused to others with limited attention to the self and the organization, followers identify with the leader and have high levels of motivation, commitment, and loyalty (Crossan, Vera & Nanjad, 2008: 577).

**Motivation as a profile of motives**

From the viewpoint of content, motivation might be viewed as a profile of motives of every individual. Profile or system of the motives consists of primary and secondary motives that are typical just for that particular person. Motivation in this sense can consist in an energy that is flowed from needs, interests, ideals and values which are felt by the individual as primary motivational categories, and priorities, aims, desires, ambitions, preferences, metes, etc. which the individual set intentionally for oneself as secondary motivational categories while these ones decide about the form of individual’s behavior.

Motive determines how a person regulates his/her momentary mood and derives satisfaction from certain situations (Schüler, Brandstätter & Sheldon, 2013: 483). Motive could be understood in two forms: antecedent (incentive for action precedes something and is given only potentially) and consequent (incentive is manifested by inducing an adequate behavioral change), (Grác, 1988: 64). This means, motivation stems from the sequence of events that moves from motives or anticipated incentives to end-states where motives are satisfied or incentives are attained (Decker, 2016: 10).

An idea is important that motives stay in a kind of time competition which is won by the strongest motive present at a particular (simply, we can’t act in different directions at the same time), (Matuska, 2014: 77). It means, in situation the individual feel more mutually different motives or desires, s/he has to either select the only one of these heterogeneous motives or attempt to connect, harmonize these ones.

Of course, the examination of human motives is difficult in general. According to Reeve (2009), motivation study concerns all conditions that exist within the person and within the environment and culture that explain ‘why one want what s/he want’ and ‘why one does what s/he does’. In our opinion, the direct ways of exploring and measuring motivation are not possible, it is therefore necessary to use indirect methods and procedures. The most common indirect method of getting to know the motivation of the individual is the observation of his or her behavior at work, an analysis of the results of this work. We can measure the strength of motivation using the analysis of the effectiveness of motivational means (Bedrnová, Nový et al., 2004: 286). Instead, we typically infer whether or not other individuals are motivated by watching their behavior (Bartol & Martin, 1991: 445).
Because the human beings are really unique, inimitable, special and peculiar, they connect differently or, on the contrary, even fight with their own egoism, altruism, love, dreams, disappointments, fantasies, live-roles, etc. Their behavior is often constant, often persistent and often variant, depending on concrete demands, necessities, and/or opportunities. Described deduction represents a ‘dynamical motive-variouesness’ and is absolutely typical especially when examining the total content of human motivation.

**Motivation as an instigative force**

Motivation describes forces acting on or within an organism to initiate and direct behavior, explains differences in the intensity of behavior, and indicates the persistence of behavior (Petri & Govern, 2013). Milkovich & Boudreau present the motivation is the drive that energizes, sustains, and directs a person’s behavior (1988: 165). Motivation of the person represents the complex of factors representing the driving forces of its activities which guide his or her action and experience. They are dynamic tendencies of the individual’s personality (Růžička, 1992: 5). In these intentions, motivation may be defined as psychological forces that determine the direction of a person’s behavior in an organization, a person’s level of effort, and a person’s level of persistence in the face of obstacles (Jones, George & Hill, 1998: 373). It is the force that drives us to carry out activities. We are motivated when we feel like doing something and we are able to sustain the effort required during the time required to achieve the objective we set ourselves (Ferreira, Cardoso & Abrantes, 2011). In this sense, motivation is the presence of enthusiasm that drives employees to put in extraordinary effort to deliver results (Keller & Price, 2011: 32).

From the different point of view, the point of view of self-determination theory, there can be distinguished other two types of motivation: autonomous motivation and controlled motivation. According to Vansteenkiste et al. (2004), autonomous motivation is often together with the identified motivation/regulation linked to the intrinsic motivation. Controlled motivation involves usually the external and introjected motivation. The results of extensive study led by Gagné point out interestingly that the autonomous types of motivation are positively related to the satisfaction of the psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness, as well as with job design, autonomy-support, and managerial leadership (especially transformational). Controlled motivation types are unrelated to need satisfaction and autonomy support, but are related to other types of more or less supportive and controlling leadership behaviors (Gagné et al., 2015: 191).

**Motivation as a strength of/for behavior**

From an intensification point of view, i.e. viewpoint of a power or strength, motivation determinates to what level (how strongly, how intensively) the individual will be devoted to reaching felt needs or defined goals. „When a person with a high motive (e.g., achievement motive) engages in a corresponding domain (e.g., an achievement context) and experiences the corresponding need satisfaction (e.g., competence), this will lead to a greater momentary well-being and flow experience than for a person with a low achievement motive,“ (Schüler,
Motivation: Motivational spirals and decision making

Brandstätter & Sheldon, 2013: 483). And, the fact is very important, that the employees who are satisfied with their professional life are more likely to contribute new ideas to improve processes or products (Woisetschläger, Hanning & Backhaus, 2016: 114).

Motivation is the strength of the desire, intention, and commitment of the individual to perform a task at a specific level of quality or rate of output (Organ & Bateman 1991: 259). According to Locke (2000), motives, values, and/or goals affect the motivation to action in three ways. First, they affect what facts the individual chooses to act on. They regulate the direction of action by focusing attention and activity on value- and goal-relevant behavior at the expense of other, non-goal-relevant actions. Second, values and goals affect the intensity of the action (and the emotion) based on how important the value is held to be. Third, values and goals also affect the persistence of action – how prolonged it is (Locke, 2000: 411–412).

In consideration of viewing motivation as a power for behavior, in addition to terms that characterize insufficient or even destructed motivation (de-motivation and/or a-motivation), it is necessary to keep in mind overly strong power and intensity of motivation as well. It is possible to name it an over-motivation. In this case an individual is so overly motivated that his or her personality disposition and behavioral structure cannot handle the situation. Also, it is possible to perceive the state of over-motivation as a situation when an individual focuses his or her energy on too many absolutely different realities which s/he cannot harmonize together. For example, statement of Bedrnová, Nový a kol. (2004) indicates likewise: “It is known that in situations of necessity to achieve high short-term performance, motivation often escalates to a level that is higher than optimal. That leads to over-motivation which subsequently in some cases predetermines failure rather than achieving of expected and desired performance,” (p. 279).

**Motivation as a complex of reasons of behavior**

Motivation is the most dynamic, most changing, while most creative and destructive plethora of reasons, intentions, desires, and enhancers that characterize and elicit the behavior of individuals and groups. According to Blažek, motivation expresses psychological reasons, or causes of human behavior (2014: 162). Motivations are high-level desires that characterize an individual; they guide behavior and, at a fundamental level, control reasoning (Griffiths & Luck, 2003).

Motivation derives from internal and external sources that operate on differing time scales, and that can complement or compete with one another to influence both the duration and quality of behavioral performance (Deci, Koestner & Ryan, 1999). When defining these sources or reasons, for example, it is possible to focus attention also on the positive and negative aspects.

Considering the concept of motivation, Kachaňáková (2007) reflects the fact there are specific, not always fully conscious internal driving forces – reasons, motives – in the human psyche that give a man and his or her behavior certain direction, activate him or her in the direction and maintain the activity aroused. Externally, the action of these forces is expressed in the form of the activity motivated (p. 219). The type of motivation to engage in a particular action, or people’s reasons for engaging in it, also affect its performance (Gagné, 2009: 573).
In this connection, Barret (2014) points out that people feel motivated, i.e. safe, secure, respected and happy when are able to meet their deficiency needs, but they feel anxious or fearful when they are prevented from meeting these needs or when the satisfaction of these needs is under threat.

Motivation is the impetus, instigation, reason that trigger an individual to make a decision or an action. It is an activated pursuit (accomplishment) of the current life goals towards a positively evaluated target state (Niermann, Schmutte et al., 2014: 402).

**Motivation as a reaction to situation**

Motivation reflects a complex of inborn or acquired (learned) manners of reactions to heterogeneous instigations, situations, circumstances, etc. It can be defined as a system of ways, principles, habits, etc., that are used by an individual when creating the goals, priorities and basic directions of his or her present and future effort.

According to Deresky, motivation is very much a function of the content of a person’s work and personal life (2008: 399). It includes the planning and execution of exerting resources (Fishbach & Choi, 2002) and represents a harmonized and controlled energy that the particular employee has. Effective motivation requires not only arousal or energy but also guidance by an effective and cognitive system that is susceptible to distraction or depletion (Ryan, 2012: 3). The opinion of many other authors, represented through e.g. Stýblo (2015), is really important: “Motivation is connected primarily with a person who motivates,” (p. 120).

The latest scientific and/or experimental effort in the area of motivation is concentrated to the field of using functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI). Especially such an excellent authors devoted their attention to this approach: Deci, Ryan, Marsden, Murayama and many others. For example, Murayama et al. (2015) in their experimental study present the results of searching a role of ventromedial prefrontal cortex in the self-determined choice related to enhancing the performance. Concretely, they examined the neural correlates of the facilitative effects of self-determined choice. Participants in first group played a game-like task involving a stopwatch with either a stopwatch they selected (self-determined-choice condition); second group participants were assigned without choice (forced-choice condition). Data revealed that performance on the stopwatch task was significantly better in self-determined-choice condition than in forced-choice condition. “This provides the evidence that self-determined choice indeed enhances task performance,” (Murayama et al., 2015: 1244).

In other associated study, Marsden, Ma, Deci, Ryan & Chiu (2014) used functional magnetic resonance imaging to examine the neural substrates of intrinsic motivation, in relation to test the neural and behavioral effects of external reward on intrinsic motivation. Participants in the high-intrinsic group, relative to the low-intrinsic group, allocated more time to attempting to complete word problems during the free-choice period. The results indicate that greater intrinsic motivation, quantified here as free-choice time on a task, is predicted by lower general task-related neural activity, suggesting less tonic expenditure of neural resources in individuals high in intrinsic motivation. In comparison, external incentive
improves task performance (here, accuracy) and yields increased phasic neural sensitivity to errors. Decreased activation of neural affective/cognitive control may facilitate increased intrinsic motivation (Marsden et al., 2014: 279–284).

**Motivation as a system of relations and attitudes**

Although people are not always consciously aware of the motives that give rise to behavioral response (Albers, 1969: 562), motivation explains also a system of relations and attitudes to oneself, other individuals or groups, organization, responsibility, own development, etc. (Blašková & Gražulis, 2009). Motivation is the willingness to do something, where this something is conditioned by its ability to satisfy some need for the individual (DeCenzo & Robbins, 1999: 100). According to Plaminek, there is the fact that someone is motivated to something representing in the book as a complex of three factors, which decide about motivation – personality of a man, conditions s/he lives in, and current situation, s/he is in now (2010: 12).

Motivation integrates a psychical and physical activity of a man towards the set aim. Ideas, desires, interests, and especially unsatisfied needs invoke a psychical stress which becomes an impulse for a certain behavior of an individual (Veber, 2009). This means that the motivation derives from perceived relationships between behaviors and the fulfillment of values and/or needs (Milkovich & Boudreau, 1988: 165).

In order to suppress improper egoism of human behavior (moreover, regardless to the same opportunities to invest to action), it is appropriate to examine the theory of exchange in the relation to group reciprocity. Clark and Mills (1993) mostly dealt with this aspect. According the authors, everybody strives for maximum profits in exchange relationship; however, it is typical for group reciprocity that an individual wants to make another individual (individuals) fared well. Therefore, it is assumed that egoistic motives are motivation force in the exchange relationship and desire to alleviate the suffering of victims in group reciprocity.

**Motivation as a process**

Motivation can be defined also as the process whereby goal-directed activity is instigated and sustained (Yukseloğlu & Karaguven, 2013: 283). Motivation as an internal process expresses the desire and will (willingness of a person) to make certain effort leading to the achievement of subjectively important aim or result (Tureckiová, 2004: 55). This is an internal process which starts by deprivation, having unsatisfied needs, and results in tension. For motivation to occur, we must have functional tension giving to the individual the energy to perform (DeCenzo & Robbins, 1999: 100). In other words, motivation is the energizing of human behavior, or, simply stated, the process of stimulating action (Kinard, 1988: 262) and trying to reach or achieve various features of an end-state or goal. These can be visualized cognitively as objects, experienced as anticipatory behaviors, or felt as affect (Decker, 2016: 10).
From the perspective of process of motivation determination, motivation can be perceived as building and confirming the system of methods, principles and habits with which the individual sets out aims, priorities and main directions of his/her present and future efforts, and also as the complex of disposed or acquired ways of reacting to various stimuli and situations, as the system of relationships and attitudes to oneself, to other individuals or groups, to the organization, to responsibility, to own development, etc. It is basically a process of preliminary determination of current and potential form of the motivational basis of the individual, which is typical and uniquely characteristic for that specific individual. In this way individuals continuously face/identify themselves with the idea that they will bear responsibility and later consequences of their behavior for any form of behavior they intentionally choose (based on the profile, structure and intensity of their motivation). In other words, the preferred form/structure, intensity and orientation of motivation the individual intentionally or inadvertently determines for him/herself will induce certain (positive or negative) reactions of the environment in which the individual manifests his or her motivated behavior.

When considering the motivation as an inner, intra-personal and/or mental process, the individual decides permanently about the structure (categorization) of his/her motives as well the strength (intensity) of his/her motives. He or she decides also to what motives s/he will adapt his/her behavior, what motives s/he will exclude from his/her motivational system, and so on. This process is often fully conscious, but it is often as though a routine, unconscious and automatic; obviously, inner process of the motivation is invisible from the side of other participants of situations experienced. But this does not mean that this process is simple.

**Motivation as a goal setting**

Armstrong explains the motivation in following way: "The term ‘motivation’ can refer variously to the goals individuals have, the ways in which individuals chose their goals and the ways in which others try to change their behavior,” (2009: 317). It is an individual’s tendency and directs behaviors towards the goal (Berelson & Steiner, 1964: 27) and is associated with ways of achieving them, planning, effort, and feelings of self-worth (Barkhor, 2008).

Goals theory suggests that the work motivation requires the employees believe that performance goals can be attained and will result in important outcomes for themselves or, to the extent they are committed to organization goals, for their organization (Klein, 1991). Stated more concretely, when relating motivation to the goals of behavior, the functional tension the individuals have will cause them to exhibit a particular behavior – called effort. Effort is the outward action of individuals that focuses on a particular goal. If the efforts are successful in achieving goal, the need is satisfied and satisfied need then reduces or eliminates the deprivation the individuals initially experienced (DeCenzo & Robbins, 1999: 101).

From the viewpoint of searching the effect of *goals on intrinsic motivation*, Rawsthorne & Eliot (1999) concentrate their meta-analytic attention to the goals differentiation: they
consider (as many other authors, e.g. Butler, 1992; Wolters, Yu & Pintrich, 1996, etc.) mastery and versus performance goals. Mastery goals focus on the development of competence and task mastery, whereas performance goals focus on the demonstration of competence relative to others. Authors in their study confirmed that the undermining effect of performance goals relative to mastery goals was contingent on whether participant received confirming or non-confirming competence feedback, and on whether the experimental procedures induced a performance-approach or performance-avoidance orientation (Rawsthorne & Eliot, 1999).

Motivation as a direction of behavior

Motivation is the concept we use to explain differences in the intensity of behavior (regarding more intense behaviors as the result of higher levels of motivation) and also to indicate the direction of behavior (Gibson, Ivancevich & Donnelly, 1997: 126). Self-determination theory specifies different subtypes of extrinsic motivation, which vary in their internalization. Internalization refers to taking in a value-driven or goal-driven activity that was initially regulated by external factors, such as rewards or punishments, so that it becomes internally regulated (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Broadly defined, motivation is indicated by the intensity (or energy), direction, and persistence of a goal-directed behavior or action (Dai & Sternberg, 2004: 11). In the area of determining the motivation, an important classification is connected with a concrete direction which motivation could be oriented to. According to Matuska (2014), dividing the motivation includes three possibilities: motivation ‘to’; motivation ‘from’; motivation ‘against’. Motivation ‘to’ starts the process of striving for something that stimulates energy and focuses it on the action leading in open way to new experience. Motivation ‘from’ starts the process to avoid something, absorbs the energy and willingness to act, close to new experience. Motivation ‘against’ starts the process of active opposition to something, focuses the energy and action plan as fixated on the destruction of the target, close to new experience (Matuska, 2014: 84–85).

It can be considered that from the perspective of structure (orientation) of motivation every individual feels inside and experiences many motivations. These can include for instance motivation to work, motivation to achieve life mission, motivation to playfulness and pleasant experience, motivation to fulfilling performance of family relationships (in marriage, with parents, siblings), etc. Each of these motivations probably has its own structure, its own branching. In the field of improving the quality of operation of organizations the work motivation is probably of the most importance. Work motivation means the willingness to engage in processes expected from the employee or manager by the organization; it means enthusiasm the individual devotes to all aspects of the complex working behavior and its continuous improvement. As the complex working behavior does not mean only the performance of work in the sense of simple quality and quantity of work outputs, the work motivation can be in this regard structured/directed in the following way:

a) Motivation to such work performance, which will achieve expected quality parameters (motivation to quality work);
b) Motivation to such work performance, which will achieve expected quantity parameters (motivation to desired quantity of work);

c) Motivation to creativity, inventiveness, continuous improvement of work and processes (motivation to organizational development);

d) Motivation to the development of own competences, skills, abilities (motivation to the development of own potential);

e) Motivation to cooperation with colleagues with such standard and in such form, which will be satisfactory for both sides (motivation to cooperation and collegiality);

f) Motivation to cooperation with the superior so as to support results of the whole work team (motivation to co-responsibility);

g) Motivation to the performance of managerial functions – in case of managers the desired ambition, willingness and ability to affect processes and other co-workers is required (motivation to management);

h) Motivation to encouragement and inspiration of oneself and especially others in the organization (motivation to motivating);

i) Motivation to identification of individual aims of employees with objectives of the organization (harmonizing motivation), (Blašková & Gražulis, 2009: 61).

***Motivation as a multi-content phenomenon***

All the mentioned above definitions, opinions, and ideas imply the motivation has many diverse meanings and contents. It can be in this regard perceived as a *multi-content phenomenon*. From the viewpoint of psychology, social psychology, sociology, organizational behavior, human potential development, etc., following notions/perceptions of motivation can be derived on the grounds of many authors (DeCenzo and Robbins, 1999; Thomas, 2000; Clegg, 2001; Nový & Surynek, 2002; Brooks, 2003; Robbins & Coulter, 2004; Nakonečný, 1995; 2005; Wellington, 2011; Bakanauskienė & Brasaitė, 2015; Poláčková & Blašková, 2017, etc.):

- Reason (to live, work, progress, avoid);
- Power (intensity of human action);
- Energy (potency to act, react to impulses);
- Volition/will (to act within the framework of rules or contrary to the same);
- Condition (for any meaningful action);
- Intensifier/accelerator (of achieved performance and profit);
- Completion (of acquired experience and cognition).

To previous check list of the motivation content, we can also add *following personality-psychological, societal and managerial perceptions of motivation* (flowing from our experience and our surveys results):

- Conviction (of importance, necessity, usefulness);
- Mosaic (of passions, desires, aversion, hate);
- Reflection (of conscious, subconscious and unconscious thinking, instincts, experiences);
Motivation: Motivational spirals and decision making

- Consequence (of previous motivations and lessons from their effectiveness and feedback from the side of others and oneself);
- Mechanism of self-preservation (enabling repeated ‘starts’ of personality and taken action);
- Problem (for many managers who do not know how to deal and/or handle with it correctly, i.e. do not know how to effectively motivate themselves and/or their employees, colleagues and partners).

**Motivation as an alphabetical puzzle**

If we try to look at the explanation of the concept of motivation in a different way, we can introduce our definitional ‘alphabetical puzzle’. It means we can make this one through the explanations of individual letters the term ‘motivation’ is composed of. In this point, therefore, motivation can be defined also as follows (by assigning explanatory concepts to each of the letters of the alphabet in the title of this word):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Letter</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>Multidimensional: involves various dimensions of personality, such as emotional, cognitive/revaluation, experiential. It is a reflection of the most common concerns of a number of persons (an individual him/herself, his or her supervisor, co-workers, family members, friends, etc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>Organized: represents a complex arrangement and structuring of the basic motives and motivational preferences of the individual, i.e. his or her needs, values declared, interests, ideals, attitudes, priorities and objectives, principles and rules followed, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>Trajectory: specifies basic direction of needs preferred and defining the essential features of trajectories and ways of achieving them, it determines, utilizes and develops the basic philosophy of living, morale, ethics and culture of the individual and his or her relationships to him/herself and to others.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Interdisciplinary: specifies and consists of the basic starting points for understanding motivation – it is always based on the knowledge of various scientific disciplines, such as psychology, social psychology, organizational behavior, philosophy, medicine, biology, neurolinguistics, anthropology, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>Variant: reflects the existence of a frequent and number of ways an individual can determine and meet his or her objectives, either sophisticated (long-term considering living direction), but at the same time immediate, intuitive adopted (responding to momentary stimuli and impulses).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Activating: confirms the basic condition and intention of motivating, which are to reach a specific action/behavior of the individual, in the spirit of the needs perceived individually or in groups, or necessities and pertinences warned and inspired, requested by the broad circumstances of working life.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T =</td>
<td>Targeted: represents the contents of the effective interaction with the motivation to be deliberate (in order to achieve a desirable state), practical (in order to achieve the desired/necessary state), effective (in order to achieve the maximum effect/benefit from the deliberate action and economical (in order to achieve the effect in the appropriate inputs).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I =</td>
<td>Intellective: unfolds in an imaginary, abstract, intra and inter-psychical plane, where the preparation, implementation and evaluation of the motivation processes and the success of motivation take place in the minds of individuals as psychological activity, supported by intellective/rational abilities of the individual.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O =</td>
<td>Objectively auto-regulatory: points to the true meaning of the concept of motivation, which is intra-psychological category – it presents and takes place in the inner world of individual, in which his or her motives and reasons are rectified and regulated primarily by individual him/herself, on the basis of interactions with the environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N =</td>
<td>Necessary: every individual needs for his or her life and work a desirable extent of motivation either his/her or supplied, strengthened from outside – without the motivation there is no purposely and toward-goal-leading action. Motivation is an essential and always present reflection of personality; it determines his/her life mission, efforts, fulfillment, self-updating, cultivation, and completion.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Motivation is multidimensional, organized, trajectory, interdisciplinary, variant, activating, targeted, intellective, objectively auto-regulatory and necessary ability, competence, and effort of individual developing and maintaining his or her specific action in real environment he or she works and lives in.

After presenting the alphabetical puzzle that is devoted to explain various meanings and contributions of the motivation, an opinion of Clark (2003) might be noted: “Motivation does not directly influence work performance. Instead, motivation leads us to use our knowledge and skills and apply them effectively to work tasks,” (p. 22).

**Multilevel perspective of motivation**

Based on a lot of theories on the motivation, motivation is characterized and influenced by various needs felt. There exist many motivation theories in the literature that classify the needs in specific ways. For example, we can present the classification by Maslow (1968) who differed physiological, safety, social, recognition, self-actualization, and self-transcendent needs (completed later as a sixth level of needs), and firstly defined so-called ‘meta-needs’. According to Venter (2012), the transcended organizational leader transcend their own personal, social, and cultural needs, going beyond themselves and their own needs to embrace the cause of others including society around them (p. 68).
Alderfer (1972) by his theory has reacted to the main problems and polemics connected with Maslow’s theory and divided the needs into three groups: existence, relation, and growth. Schein (1978) considered existence and material, social, profession, and self-actualization needs. Trying to devote attention only to the psychological needs (viewed as the needs that influence strongly the human and work behavior), McClelland & Winter (1969) contemplated three types of psychological needs: achievement, affiliation, and power.

At present, the remarkable importance is given to the self-determination theory. Related to this theory, psychological needs are evolved organismic requirements for certain types of experiences, in particular, for autonomy (experiences of volition and self-ownership), competence (experiences of mastery and effectance), and relatedness (experiences of closeness and connectedness with others), (Sheldon & Hilpert, 2012: 439).

From the many efforts in the field of trying to extend the spectrum of contemplated psychological needs, the proposition of González-Cutre et al. (2016) could be taken as very inspirational. These authors suggest a novelty as a basic psychological need in self-determination theory. The content of this new need is characterized through these items: doing novel things; felt frequency of novelties for the individuals; felt new sensations; coming up new situations for the individual; having an opportunity to innovate; frequent discovering new things on the side of the individual. The authors also present in their study that “the novelty is needed in all the life contexts, such as education, work, leisure, physical activity or interpersonal relationships, and the need for novelty has unique effects on life satisfaction and intrinsic motivation consistent with theory,” (González-Cutre et al., 2016: 159–169).

As stated in previous parts, the individual may feel many various motives and shapes of his or her mood and chosen forms of the behavior are affected by these (not only the one) needs. This implies the motivation is influenced not only by many of needs that are of the same nature but is influenced by many of needs that are ranked into the different contentual group. On the other hand, satisfying one of the needs, the individuals may achieve a multiple satisfactions – satisfactions off/from multiple contentual needs.

This concept is in full accordance with the concept of ‘multi-motivated’ behavior that was defined through Maslow (1943): “The needs must be understood not to be exclusive or single determiners of certain kinds of behavior. The clinical psychologists have long since found that any behavior may be a channel through which flow various determinants, i.e. the most behavior is multi-motivated. Within the sphere of motivational determinants any behavior tends to be determined by several or all of the basic needs simultaneously rather than by only one of them. Eating may be partially for the sake of filling the stomach, and partially for the sake of comfort and amelioration of other needs. As an illustration, I may point out that it would be possible (theoretically if not practically) to analyze a single act of an individual and see in it the expression of his physiological needs, his safety needs, his love needs, his esteem needs and self-actualization,” (Maslow 1943: 390).

From the viewpoint of goal achievement, Locke (2000) emphasizes a prioritization of human needs: “People have the power to prioritize their needs in different ways, based on their chosen values,” (p. 413). Originally is hierarchical character of human motives
described in the Vallerand’s hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. This one offers a *multilevel perspective* on human motivation (Vallerand, 1997; Vallerand & Ratelle, 2002).

According to a *vertical organization of model*, elements represent three different levels of generality that range from stable (on top) to momentary or state elements (at the bottom). The global level is the most general and refers to a person’s personality or usual way of functioning. Motivation at this level takes the form of broad dispositions to engage in activities in a typically intrinsic or extrinsic way. It can be considered the trait level of motivation. The contextual level represents specific life contexts, such as education, leisure, and interpersonal relationships. This level accounts for the likelihood that individuals may have developed intra-individual motivational orientations that may differ in different contexts. The situational level is the most specific and refers to the here and now of motivation. It is the motivational state an individual experiences when engaging in a specific activity at a given moment in time.

Vallerand and Lalande (2011) point out certain relationships among these three levels. First, top-down effects refer to the influence of higher levels in the hierarchy on lower levels. Specifically, global motivation influences contextual motivation and situational motivation. Likewise, contextual motivation influences situational motivation. Each level has the strongest influence on the level immediately below (i.e., the proximity principle). Second, bottom-up effects reflect the influence of lower levels in the hierarchy upon higher levels. For instance, situational motivation may influence contextual motivation and global motivation; contextual motivation may influence global motivation. From the viewpoint of proximity principle, situational motivation will have stronger effects on contextual motivation than it will on global motivation (pp. 45–46).

According to a *horizontal organization of model*, components arrangement reflects the social psychological processes dimension. This means, at every level of the generality, a *causal sequence* of all events involving social factors (global, contextual and situational), psychological needs (autonomy, competence, and relatedness), motivation (intrinsic, extrinsic, amotivation), and outcomes (affect, cognition, and behavior) there exists (Vallerand & Lalande, 2011).

**Individualistic nature of motivation (survey results)**

All opinions mentioned in previous parts of this chapter confirm the individual nature of motivation. Motivation is so sensitive to various influences and circumstances of both private and professional life of individuals that on one hand it is formed by such experience and on the other hand it decides about the future efforts and experience of individuals.

The confirmation of thesis about the individualistic nature of motivation formed the content of our latest survey carried out in 2016. Specifically, we examined on the sample \( N = 2,626 \) respondents what is the level of their motivation to the performance of quality work, to continuous improvement of their professional knowledge and skills, and to submitting new ideas and increase of effectiveness of performed processes. We further asked employees about their motivation to cooperation with their superiors and management. We
asked managers about their motivation to creative leadership and motivating their employees. Results (in Table 2) show that employees and managers feel the strongest motivation (42%) to the quality performed work what emphasizes the need to apply their abilities for the organization in the most effective way.

Comparison of the perception of employees and managers of their mutual cooperation shows that motivation to such cooperation is much lower for employees than for managers. On the one hand, it is implied by the nature and content of work (as one of manager’s roles is creative leadership of his/her employees), but despite that, it is necessary so that managers view the process of their cooperation with employees realistically and realize this gap. If employees are not interested in cooperation with managers, it is not realistic to have a functional process of motivating in the organization as these two things mutually exclude each other.

**Table 2. Level of motivation to crucial work orientation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of motivation</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Rather high</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Rather low</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To quality work done</td>
<td>1,116</td>
<td>1030</td>
<td>373</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To permanent improving the level of knowledge and skills</td>
<td>828</td>
<td>1,107</td>
<td>536</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To submitting new ideas and increasing the effectiveness of performed processes</td>
<td>475</td>
<td>1,062</td>
<td>810</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To cooperation with superior and management of organization (employees)</td>
<td>392</td>
<td>808</td>
<td>651</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To creative leading and motivating the employees (managers)</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>248</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We also examined the **influence of age, duration of practical experience and attained education on the level of motivation**, because it is possible on the grounds of clarification of these dependencies to approach motivating employees, drafting motivational programs and performing the motivation process more effectively and to apply the motivational accent in all performed organizational processes.

The dependence and influence of age on the level of motivation to quality work and to continuous improvement of knowledge and skills is confirmed by means of chi square test and cross-table. Table 3 shows the calculation of this dependence at the significance level 0.05%, degree of freedom 16, where the compared table value of the chi square test is 26.296. As the calculated value of the chi square test is higher than the table value, this indicates a **significant association** in both cases and we can claim that the level of motivation differs with regard to the age of employees.
Table 3. Chi square test for age and level of motivation to quality work done and permanent improvement of knowledge and skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Motivation to quality work done (A)</td>
<td>Motivation to permanent improvement of knowledge and skills (B)</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>31.834*</td>
<td>43.767*</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>32.645</td>
<td>40.996</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>11.372</td>
<td>26.138</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td>2,626</td>
<td>2,626</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Frequency of characters between age and level of motivation to quality work done and permanent improvement of knowledge and skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18–27</td>
<td>28–37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation to quality work done</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>431</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within</td>
<td>38.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rather high</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>395</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within</td>
<td>38.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within</td>
<td>31.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rather low</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within</td>
<td>13.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within</td>
<td>36.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within</td>
<td>13.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>976</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within</td>
<td>37.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18–27</td>
<td>28–37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation to permanent improvement of knowledge and skills</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>328</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within</td>
<td>39.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rather high</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>428</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within</td>
<td>38.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within</td>
<td>32.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rather low</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within</td>
<td>33.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within</td>
<td>14.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>976</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within</td>
<td>37.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As shown by the Table 4, younger employees have very high motivation (what is affected also by the fact that they are only starting their career and are full of expectations and enthusiasm about the vision of building future), but they feel higher motivation to work performed with quality than to continuous improvement of the level of their knowledge and skills.

An interesting fact is that the motivation of middle-aged employees (38–47 years) is slightly falling. The implementation of the motivation process, motivational programs and motivating approach must be adapted to the age structure of employees, as it is very demotivating if managers expect the same level of motivation or the same expected motives from employees of various age.

We further examined the influence of the duration of practical experience on the level of motivation. The Table 5 shows the calculation of this dependence at the significance level 0.05%, degree of freedom 20, where the compared table value of the chi square test is 31.410. As the calculated value of the chi square test is higher than the table value, the dependence between the level of motivation and the number of worked years is strongly indicated.

Table 5. Chi square test for duration of experience and level of motivation to crucial work orientation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
<th>df</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Motivation to quality work done (A)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>45.974*</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>41.648</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>11.193</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td>2,626</td>
<td>0.111</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation to permanent improvement of knowledge and skills (B)</td>
<td>79.287*</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation to submit new ideas and increase of effectiveness (C)</td>
<td>42.762*</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As is seen in the following cross-table, employees with the duration of practical experience up to 10 years have much higher motivation to quality work and training and own development than employees with long practical experience (employees with long practical experience feel in this regard lower level of motivation especially due to their long-standing acquisition of experience, habitual procedures, and learned knowledge).

A significant reduction of perceived motivation of employees with practical experience up to 10 years is in the cooperation with superiors in the sense of motivation to presenting new ideas and contribution to making processes more effective. And, quite the reverse, the
level of motivation in this sense is stronger in employees with longer experience. It can be recommended to managers in this regard to aim their motivating efforts to employees with shorter experience in order to encourage them to present new ideas, as young people generally have bold and creative ideas, but they are not working in the organization for very long and thus usually lack the courage to enforce such ideas.

Table 6. Frequency of characters between experience and level of motivation to crucial orientation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivation to quality work done</th>
<th>Length of practice</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0–9</td>
<td>10–19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>598</td>
<td>232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within</td>
<td>53.5%</td>
<td>20.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rather high</td>
<td>573</td>
<td>188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within</td>
<td>55.6%</td>
<td>18.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within</td>
<td>49.0%</td>
<td>22.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rather low</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within</td>
<td>49.0%</td>
<td>22.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>36.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1,397</td>
<td>530</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within</td>
<td>53.2%</td>
<td>20.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivation to permanent improvement of knowledge and skills</th>
<th>Length of practice</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>462</td>
<td>178</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within</td>
<td>55.8%</td>
<td>21.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rather high</td>
<td>604</td>
<td>206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within</td>
<td>54.6%</td>
<td>18.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>263</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within</td>
<td>49.0%</td>
<td>21.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rather low</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within</td>
<td>50.9%</td>
<td>19.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within</td>
<td>25.6%</td>
<td>20.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1,397</td>
<td>530</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within</td>
<td>53.2%</td>
<td>20.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivation to submit new ideas and increase of performed processes effectiveness</th>
<th>Length of practice</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within</td>
<td>52.9%</td>
<td>22.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rather high</td>
<td>553</td>
<td>218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within</td>
<td>52.0%</td>
<td>20.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>453</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within</td>
<td>55.3%</td>
<td>18.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rather low</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within</td>
<td>56.7%</td>
<td>16.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within</td>
<td>34.9%</td>
<td>28.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1,397</td>
<td>530</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within</td>
<td>53.2%</td>
<td>20.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
We further examined the influence of attained education on the level of motivation. The Table 7 shows the calculation of this dependence at the significance level 0.05%, degree of freedom 12, where the compared table value of the chi square test is 21.026. As the calculated value of the chi square test is higher than the table value, the relation between the attained education and level of motivation to continuous improving the level of knowledge and skills and level of motivation to presenting new ideas and increasing the effectiveness of performed processes is dependent and these factors mutually affect each other.

Table 7. Chi square test for education and level of motivation to quality work done, to permanent improvement of knowledge and skills and to new ideas and increase of processes effectiveness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Motivation to permanent improvement of knowledge and skills (A)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>48.562*</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>46.790</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>26.545</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td>2,626</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it can be seen in the Table 8 (cross-table), the highest motivation to own development and to making processes more effective show employees with higher education. Employees with secondary education feel usually average motivation to these factors, what confirms that it is necessary to focus on other work values and motives in motivating them in order to achieve the most effective result from the application of the motivating process both for the organization and also for employees themselves.

Other surveys and authors (Strydom & Meyer, 2002; Jernigan, Beggs & Kohut, 2002; Moynihan & Pandey, 2007; Toe, Murhadi, & Lin, 2013, etc.) also deal with the mutual influence between demographic data and motivation of employees (or their satisfaction at the workplace, loyalty and willingness to work for the organization and continue to develop, etc.). Analyses showed that age of employees has strong influence on satisfaction in work. Younger employees feel stronger satisfaction from work than older ones.

Another related factor was education, were growing trend of satisfaction with regard to the difficulty of tasks was revealed, i.e. the higher education the employee has attained, the higher his or her satisfaction was in case of tasks with higher responsibility. If employee with higher education should perform tasks with low responsibility and difficulty, his/her satisfaction from work was lessening.

What concerns the distribution according to gender, it turned out that men feel higher satisfaction from work than women. Where the satisfaction was compared with regard to the
number of worked years, it turned out that employees who worked for organization for a longer period of time are more connected with it and therefore feel higher satisfaction from work than employees who work for the organization for a shorter period of time.

Table 8. Frequency of characters between age and level of motivation to permanent improvement of knowledge and skills and to submit new ideas and increase of processes effectiveness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivation to permanent improvement of knowledge and skills</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vocational</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>Higher</td>
<td>PhD.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>309</td>
<td>460</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
<td>37.3%</td>
<td>55.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rather high</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>376</td>
<td>623</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within</td>
<td>9.4%</td>
<td>34.0%</td>
<td>56.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>298</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within</td>
<td>14.0%</td>
<td>29.1%</td>
<td>55.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rather low</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within</td>
<td>11.6%</td>
<td>33.9%</td>
<td>53.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within</td>
<td>25.6%</td>
<td>16.3%</td>
<td>58.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>254</td>
<td>886</td>
<td>1,466</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within</td>
<td>9.7%</td>
<td>33.7%</td>
<td>55.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Motivation to submit new ideas and increase of processes effectiveness | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Vocational | Secondary | Higher |
| High | Count | 37 | 185 | 247 | 6 | 475 |
| | % within | 7.8% | 38.9% | 52.0% | 1.3% | 100.0% |
| Rather high | Count | 82 | 371 | 606 | 3 | 1,062 |
| | % within | 7.7% | 34.9% | 57.1% | 0.3% | 100.0% |
| Average | Count | 91 | 258 | 454 | 7 | 810 |
| | % within | 11.2% | 31.9% | 56.0% | 0.9% | 100.0% |
| Rather low | Count | 28 | 53 | 112 | 3 | 196 |
| | % within | 14.3% | 27.0% | 57.1% | 1.5% | 100.0% |
| Low | Count | 16 | 19 | 47 | 1 | 83 |
| | % within | 19.3% | 22.9% | 56.6% | 1.2% | 100.0% |
| Total | Count | 254 | 886 | 1,466 | 20 | 2,626 |
| | % within | 9.7% | 33.7% | 55.8% | 0.8% | 100.0% |

Surveys like these point to the significant role of demographic factors and selected motivation factors, which influence the level of satisfaction of employees with their work and therefore also their performance, which forms part of the overall performance of the organization. These factors and dependencies should be monitored by organizations in order to be able to provide comfortable and motivating conditions for their employees so that they, in turn, could achieve higher satisfaction from work, what will assure their higher performance and general prosperity of the organization.
In such applied managerial and motivational efforts, the motivation of both managers and employees will build the grounds for the future sustainability and permanent growth of the organization position and firmness.
Chapter 4: Demotivation, amotivation and antimotive
Demotivation, amotivation and antimotive

According to Gallup’s 2013 State of the American Workplace Report, which surveyed more than 150,000 full- and part-time workers during 2012, only just 30% of employees are engaged and inspired at work (Gallup, 2013). But, and this fact is really alarming, results of the staffing agency Kelly Services’ annual survey that covers 120,000 respondents globally, a staggering 48% of employees are unhappy in their current jobs, up from 47 percent the previous year (Harjani, 2013).

We can generalize the hard tasks, ambitious challenges, felt fear or stress from possible failure or refusal from the colleagues or superiors, call up the high motivation in a case of very powerful personality. But in the case of majority of other individuals, and especially in the case of less psychically or physically disposed individuals, these instigations could cause a long-term tiredness pointing to the burn out, and to the disturbed motivation. In such the situations, these negative elements and events or wrongly judged experiences lead often to the specific terms: demotivation, amotivation, and antimotives.

Demotivation

It is possible to define demotivation, initial of aforementioned terms, as a significant resentment or reluctance leading to a conscious and demonstrated negative attitude of an individual towards impulses and challenges of an environment. Demotivation is exact opposite of motivation. Meaning that person does not have willingness to do something and therefore s/he does nothing, or in some cases he or she might purposefully boycott considered activities and act in contrary to an expected behavior. It is possible to describe the mechanism of demotivation and state that perceived disappointment created by negation/unfulfilled desire is so huge that it can lead to anger. Accumulated anger, multiplied by previous and repeated disappointments in assumed environment (in a system of organization’s management), can subsequently lead all the way to undesired behavior. It is dangerous that, besides strong expressed rejection of expected commitment or specific behavior which may result in interpersonal conflict – misapprehension, rejection or even condemnation by close surroundings (in organization or in private life), demotivation strengthens both intrapersonal and behavioral conflict as well, often resulting in psychic tensions and eventually even stress.

The demotivation causes differ from one person to another … and could be caused by financial, social and organizational factors (Abu-Jarour, 2014). Demotivated individuals are under-challenged, uninterested, and spend hours each day simulating work. These employees have given up and become resigned to their situation, suffering what is effectively the opposite of office burnout. Boreout lowers morale, productivity, and profits (Rothlin & Werder, 2008).
Chapter 4: Demotivation, amotivation and antimotive

The negative result of the Amabile and Kramer’s survey performed in 2009 might be used as a strong warning: „Scrupulously avoid impeding progress by changing goals autocratically, being indecisive, or holding up resources. Negative events generally have a greater effect on people’s emotions, perceptions, and motivation than positive ones, and nothing is more demotivating than a setback – the most prominent type of event on knowledge workers’ worst days,” (Amabile & Kramer, 2010). This means the level, content and frequency of unsatisfied needs have to be monitored carefully and managed thoroughly.

Amotivation

Based on self-determination theory, in contrast to the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, Deci & Ryan (1985) defines also so called ‘amotivation’. This dimension of motivation is connected with the absence of a contingency between one’s actions and concrete outcomes. Amotivation occurs when an individual has very low levels of motivation towards any given task (O’Connor & Vallerand, 1989). Amotivation generally involves more of an overall reduction in goal-directed behaviors (Foussias & Remington, 2010) and can include both internal and external processes (Luther et al., 2015: 418).

In comparison to the demotivation which is sometimes connected with intentional negative actions, the amotivation is characterized by a decreased or dampened activity or even an inactivity. Akpayeva et al. (2016) treat the anti-motivation as a total of antimotives and a specific motivational subsystem of personality. “Amotivated individuals do not demonstrate the intent to engage in an activity. They experience feelings of incompetence and lack of control,” (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and are neither intrinsically motivated nor extrinsically motivated. When individuals are in such a state, they no longer identify any good reasons for why they continue to work. Eventually they may even decide to stop practicing their activities (Pelletier et al., 1995: 38).

Trying to better explain the nature of amotivation, Barkoukis, Tsorbatzoudis, Grouios & Sideridis (2008) distinguish four different types of amotivated behavior: (a) the belief concerning the lack of ability to perform an activity; (b) the belief that the adopted strategies will not produce the desired outcomes; (c) the belief that the activity is too demanding for the individual; and (d) the belief that even high effort is not adequate for successful task performance. It is important to win these reasons or excuses, and run from amotivation to intrinsic motivation, for behaviors to become self-determined (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

De-motive and anti-motive

Despite the mostly positive impacts of organizational or social environment (i.e. forms of behavior, approaches, and tools applied from the side of senior staff, coworkers, support staff, etc.), motivation become impaired. When searching the sources of both demotivation and/or amotivation, i.e. considering the problems related with the conflict of motivation, so called ‘demotives’ and ‘antimotives’ have to be searched and respected.

In our opinion, if the demotivation could be understood as the absolutely negative opposite of the motivation, and the amotivation as the powerless or defensive opposite of
the motivation, the de-motive could be understood as the active negative opposite of the motive, and the antimotive could be understood as the defensive opposite of the motive. This means that antimotives and demotives represent all the possible motives that were unsatisfied previously. In the case of antimotives, based on unpleasant or unwise experience connected with unsatisfied previous promise or need, the antimotives call up the disappointment, resentment, and/or aversion. In the case of demotives, the negative results and impacts of previous needs (dis)satisfaction could even lead to strict rejection, fear, hatred, and so on.

Based on opinions of many researchers, Clark (2003) summarizes five destroyers of motivation, i.e. de-motivators:

- Dishonesty, hypocrisy, and unfairness;
- Vague, impossible and constantly changing performance goals;
- Unnecessary rules, policy and work barriers;
- Constant completion with everyone;
- Negative and/or prejudicial feedback with gap-focused feedback (pp. 24–26).

When experiencing and evaluating perceived de-motives or antimotives, the main motive should consist in overcome, remove, or reduce their impacts. According to John, Robins & Pervin (2008), in contrast to the active approach and active avoidance modes, which are both associated with high levels of motivated behavior and can therefore coexist in a person, the passive avoidance mode represent the antimotive, because here active attainment of the incentive is followed by punishment, which leads to the inhibition of behavior aimed at the incentive (p. 609).

Antimotive is understood neither as an inefficient level of development of the motive nor as an absence of the motive, but as a motive with negative valence, featuring a reverse direction towards the educational activity (Akpayeva et al., 2016: 266). In these intentions, the research of Ivanova & Minaeva (2015) draws attention to the antimotive of educational activity. The antimotives are mostly negative in their content (laziness, dislike of a superior/teacher, or conflicts with one), although they can be positive in relation to other activities, e.g. the employee’s/student’s hobbies and free time activities, active participation in social life or teambuilding events of the organization/university, etc.

What is very important and even crucial in facing demotivation and amotivation, i.e. mastering demotives and/or antimotives, is managers’ (or lecturers’) deep understanding of true matter of fact of the improvement of potential and personality of employees (or students). „In a real sense, the study of personality is a study of motivation.“ (James & Rentsch, 2012: 223). It means the person, who motivates oneself or other person/s, must disclose and understand the personality = motivation of oneself or other person touched, and, at the same time, disclose and fully activate one’s own and other’s personality = motivation.
Motivation and motivating

Productive motivation as a result of deliberate motivation arises when people just want what the organization needs and vice versa (Maccoby, 1988: 17). In human psychical life, the motivation performs instigative, reinforcing, accelerating, directive and selective functions (Jedinák, 2011: 24). But, the fact is extraordinary important, that it is necessary to differ between the motivation (as an inherently intra-psychical state, or set of the motifs, etc.) and the motivating (as an intentional, premeditated process to motivate oneself or someone other). It is needed so that the motivation in organizations is:

- Addressed respectably (to express the organization is a loyal employer);
- Called up and instigated sustainably (to explain the motivation is the core of success);
- Improved continuously (to achieve the expected qualitative content);
- Strengthened systematically (to acquire the desired intensification level);
- Orientated/navigated carefully (to fulfill the visions and objectives, and obtain the satisfaction);
- Harmonized permanently (to connect with the motivation of other individuals, managers, groups, departments, sections, divisions, and the organization). It is needed to harmonize all the individual, sectional (group) and organizational motivations in following way:
  - Various and different organizational motivations (organization viewed and motivated to become a successful employer and/or an innovative producer and/or a profitable unit and/or renowned and respected authority on the market, etc.) that have to be harmonized with
  - Various and different group motivations (groups viewed and motivated to become an efficient and/or sociable and/or progressive teams, etc.) that have to be harmonized with the organizational motivations and with
  - Various and different individual motivations (individuals viewed and motivated to become a friendly coworker and/or manipulative careerist and/or trustable subordinate, etc.) that have to be harmonized with the organizational motivations and sectional motivations.

It means, the motivation has to be suitably and cautiously identified, understood, redefined, regained, renewed, reoriented, reevaluated, etc. This deliberate and permanent process can be called as a motivating.

Motivating as a process

From the sociological point of view, we can define the term motivating (as a process of affect the motivation of individuals and groups) as consciously prepared, implemented with
Chapter 5: Motivation and motivating

precision, utilized in results and evaluated system or process of influencing social relations and individual and group behaviors, leading to the increasing prosperity of society.

On the other hand, from the managerial and behavioral point of view, the motivating represents a purposeful, permanent and thinking-relational process the intention of which consists in creating suitable conditions and using convenient motivational approaches, tools, events, and measurements in a way that the quality and value of the individual effort can be increased, and by this, also the value of the organization’s outputs and parameters can be improved. “The motivational process consists in the unification or setting a common goal which shows the distance between the state that currently exists and the condition to be achieved while the employee will feel this distance like a tension that has to overcome. If an employee’s certain performance finally reaches the fulfillment of the agreed target and if this fulfillment is really proved (desired state is achieved), the employee will feel a liberating relief thereby additionally will prepare oneself for the new role,” (Zucha 1993: 127).

For a deeper disclosing various specificities of this complicated process, the presentation of other authors’ opinion and ideas could be very helpful. For example, Soanes & Stevenson express a really short but an absolutely true opinion that to apply the motivation effort, i.e. to motivate someone means “... provide (someone) with a reason for doing something,” (2003: 1145). Plamínek presents that the purpose of motivating is to create a non-violent positive approach to something – often to any performance or type of behavior. In a word, motivation is usually referred to a process as well as its outcome – fact that something is going on, as well as the fact that there is something (2010: 14). According to Reichheld & Rogers (2005), motivating people represents getting the right people on board and then all enthusiastically pulling in the right direction. Motivating is the system of forces which cause people to behave in a certain way (Steers and Porter, 1991: 518) and the fact has to be emphasized that the motivating people is becoming increasingly important to the modern organization because human potential is becoming more and more central to the organization’s operations (Rajan & Zingales, 2000).

More concretely, motivating the individuals or groups is usually described in relation to the direction and duration of activity (Dédina & Cejthamr, 2007). The said idea can be developed in the sense that the person who motivates others should positively address the motivation of an individual, address his/her personality with desired incentives and instigations, stress urgency and contribution of expected behavior, outline the future acknowledgement and significance and so on.

When searching the ways of influencing the motivation, the important fact has to be respected that any behavior might be caused by some combination of both internal and external factors. To motivate means ‘to cause to move’, and the first question is the question of causation (Grusec, Lockhart & Walters, 1990: 149–150). From the pragmatic perspective, the process of motivating someone takes place by means of management techniques and system of rewards and punishments, by means of stimuli and impulses (Veber, 2009). This means, the motivational process can be activated by person’s mental, emotional or physical structures and processes, known as self-motivation (intrinsic motivation). Alternatively, as an external motivation (extrinsic motivation), it may be activated via external stimulation: by other people (managers, co-workers, customers), by objective situation (for example,
organization’s transformation), or by physical objective circumstances (for example, unpleasant or physically hard work conditions), (Matuska, 2014: 84).

But, an idea is extraordinary substantial: most people make the mistake of trying to motivate others on the basis of faulty assumptions about their future behavior. People’s needs and the ways in which they are satisfied are much more complex than we tend to think (Armstrong, 1991: 204). This means that there exist a significant difference between the expected efficiency of motivators applied towards the employees viewed by eyes of the managers, versus, viewed by eyes of the employees. Mentioned differences will be searched more deeply in the chapter devoted to the motivation tools and events.

**Self-motivating**

We can consider the most frequent form of motivating, i.e. self-motivating (Thomas, 2000). Self-motivating means that the individual motivates oneself (acts on one’s own motivation), while this influence might be performed in the harmonizing, eliminating, redirecting, or retarding sense. Building the self-motivation is always a long-lasting process which is sometimes full of controversies and often characterized by the endeavors purposed to meet requirements put on the individual from the side of the other (environment, colleagues, partners, friends, etc.).

With a certain amount of tolerance, we can point out that the intrinsic motivation (including the autonomous motivation) is very close to the self-motivating. Some of the authors even equate these two terms, e.g. Matuska (2014). Thomas (2009) uses a little different term: self-rewarding, and equates this one to the intrinsic motivation as follows: “We talk about this kind of motivation when the motivation to act lies in the pleasure of that particular action itself.”

In our opinion, when differed intrinsic motivation and/or self-motivating, the intrinsic motivation can be defined as a resulting state of all the internally felt motives (needs, ambitions, interests, expectations, etc.). This state, i.e. intrinsic motivation, is achieved mostly through inner, intra-psychical effort. And when considering the intentional, purposeful and systematic motivational affects, this effort might be understood as a self-motivating. For literate completeness, when considering the accidental, unconscious or random affects, the ego-involved motivation or extrinsic motivation play a dominant motivational role.

As a personality construct, self-motivation helps to answer the question of why some people work so hard and persistently to achieve personal goals whereas other people do not (Cheng & Ickes, 2009: 818). This implies that the self-motivation concerns the strength of one’s tendency to set goals and to persist in working to attain them (Dishman & Ickes, 1981). Motivating oneself provides a stronger effect in increasing the satisfaction in work, in contrary to external motivation (Raišienė & Vilkė, 2014). In addition, Cheng & Ickes (2009) relate the self-motivation to conscientiousness, and confirm that a relatively high level of conscientiousness can be a compensation for a relatively low level of self-motivation, and vice versa.
Ryan & Deci (2000) in their research have focused on the social-contextual conditions that facilitate versus forestall the natural processes of self-motivation and healthy psychological development. Their findings have led to the postulate of three innate psychological needs – competence, autonomy, and relatedness (as mentioned already in this monograph when quoting followers of these authors) – which when satisfied yield enhanced self-motivation and mental health and when thwarted lead to diminished motivation and well-being. More specifically, when decoding the nature of self-motivation, a few questions indicate how motivated the individual is: what gets the individual motivated at work; what factors result in the individual’s lack of motivation; what does the individual do for fun that motivates oneself; etc. (Provitera, 2012).

We asked employees and managers in our survey of 2016 which factors they consider to be the most important when they motivate themselves (Table 9). As much as 68.28% of employees specified that they are motivated by the possibility to learn something new. Other factors, specified by more than 50% of employees, included financial remuneration, having the feeling of being useful, expected satisfaction from the superior and expected self-satisfaction and personal fulfillment.

Table 9. Factors considered by employees when motivating themselves (N = 2,626)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivators</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fast versus long time of achieving the goal</td>
<td>586</td>
<td>22.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fear of failure in too demanding goal</td>
<td>218</td>
<td>8.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simplicity versus complexity of goal</td>
<td>659</td>
<td>25.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The need to do something</td>
<td>373</td>
<td>14.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expected self-satisfaction</td>
<td>1,339</td>
<td>50.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obtain financial reward</td>
<td>1,600</td>
<td>60.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expected satisfaction of colleagues</td>
<td>597</td>
<td>22.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accelerate career growth</td>
<td>718</td>
<td>27.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expected satisfaction of superior</td>
<td>1,365</td>
<td>51.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Damping the qualms for conscience</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>4.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possibility to learn something new</td>
<td>1,793</td>
<td>68.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effort to prove you can do it</td>
<td>1,174</td>
<td>44.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obtain a sense of usefulness</td>
<td>1,251</td>
<td>47.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feel of responsibility</td>
<td>1,452</td>
<td>55.29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We subsequently asked respondents to assign first three places to factors they deem to be the most important. We identified using the modal value the most frequently occurring motivators on the first, second and third place. As can be seen in the Table 10, the most frequently occurring motivational tool is the financial remuneration and the possibility to learn something new. After we filtered respondents, it was clear that it is very important in motivating to see them as individual and not only as the complex set. Closer look revealed that managers consider the feeling of responsibility to be the most important self-motivator and place the financial remuneration to the third place. After we structured respondents
Motivation: Motivational spirals and decision making

According to age, it turned out that employees aged 28 to 37 are motivated especially by expected self-satisfaction and personal fulfillment and even employees aged 38 to 47 placed on all three places values other than the financial remuneration. It could be also seen that after respondents were structured according to the size of the organization in which they work, it turned out that employees working in micro-organizations are motivated mainly by financial remuneration, what is due to the nature and possibilities of micro-organizations.

Table 10. Factors considered by employees when motivating themselves classified according to importance for various groups of employees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>1st place</th>
<th>2nd place</th>
<th>3rd place</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>Obtain financial reward</td>
<td>Possibility to learn something new</td>
<td>Obtain financial reward</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers</td>
<td>Sense of responsibility</td>
<td>Possibility to learn something new</td>
<td>Obtain financial reward</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees</td>
<td>Obtain financial reward</td>
<td>Possibility to learn something new</td>
<td>Obtain financial reward</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18–27</td>
<td>Obtain financial reward</td>
<td>Possibility to learn something new</td>
<td>Obtain financial reward</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28–37</td>
<td>Expected self-satisfaction</td>
<td>Possibility to learn something new</td>
<td>Obtain financial reward</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38–47</td>
<td>Feel of responsibility</td>
<td>Possibility to learn something new</td>
<td>Sense of responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48–57</td>
<td>Sense of responsibility</td>
<td>Possibility to learn something new</td>
<td>Obtain financial reward</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58–68</td>
<td>Sense of responsibility</td>
<td>Obtain a sense of usefulness</td>
<td>Obtain a sense of usefulness</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Size of organization</th>
<th>1st place</th>
<th>2nd place</th>
<th>3rd place</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Micro (&lt;20)</td>
<td>Obtain financial reward</td>
<td>Obtain financial reward</td>
<td>Obtain financial reward</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small (20 – 50)</td>
<td>Obtain financial reward</td>
<td>Possibility to learn something new</td>
<td>Obtain financial reward</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium (50 – 250)</td>
<td>Sense of responsibility</td>
<td>Possibility to learn something new</td>
<td>Obtain financial reward</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large (&gt;250)</td>
<td>Sense of responsibility</td>
<td>Possibility to learn something new</td>
<td>Obtain financial reward</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Apart from the self-motivating that is understood here as the most frequent form of performing motivational influence on the individual, while the individual as the subject motivates oneself (as the object of motivating influence), we can also consider motivating from the part of other subjects. In these intentions, namely the other individuals, groups, or the organization as a whole, including its external partners and cooperating subjects, could be ranked among the most significant motivating subjects.
Motivating others

When related to the usually used terminology, the extrinsic motivation (including the controlled motivation) is very close to motivating the others. Koontz & O’Donnell (1972) present following ideas on motivating people: „To motivate is to induce people to act in a desired manner. Inanimate objects can be made to perform certain functions with a certain degree of reliability by the direct application of force,” (p. 525). In the organization, the superior and coworkers are the most frequent motivating subjects. Of course, from the pragmatic viewpoint, Kerestešová (2010) states that there are the managers who play a major role in a motivating other employees and who must make good use of motivational processes offered by the organization, like they must provide and implement a quality and well-prepared appropriate processes of applying incentives for their employees (p. 74).

Defining the forms of motivational influence, an idea of Arshad, Masood & Amin (2013) has to be presented: “Managers’ interests have two influential elements: motivational motive and punishment motive.” Ismail et al. (2012) explain that the motivational motive is often defined as a manager’s personal motive (self-interest) give out high performance ratings in order to stimulate, direct, and endure employees (appraises) actions to achieve job, department and/or organizational goals. Whereas, punishment motive is often related to a manager’s personal motive (self-interest) assign low performance ratings in order to punish employees (appraise) who have committed misconducts in order to correct their faults as well as increase their work ethics.

If the managers want to improve work of the organization, they have to focus on the level of motivation of employees, have to also support them in directing their efforts to the successful fulfillment of aims and tasks of the organization (Dědina & Cejthamr, 2007). Managers should look for tasks at which an employee excels and respond with specific, timely verbal approval that will energize the individual. Excellent performance will thus be reinforced, and, studies suggest, it’s likely that the person’s work in related areas will also improve. Reinforcement theorists call this shaping and chaining. Through careful use of positive feedback, the manager can shape the employee’s behavior into successively closer approximations to the ideal and induce that person to connect several good efforts in a rich, complex chain of excellent performance (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2009). The motivation system should be cohesive, specific and equal for each of employees (Igielski, 2015: 77).

We therefore asked managers in our survey what factors they take into account when they decide how to remunerate their employees (Table 11). On the contra-view, we asked employees how they see factors that are taken into account in decision making of their superiors about their remuneration (Table 12). After we compared these two views, we found out that both managers and employees agreed on factors on the grounds of which decisions about remuneration of employees are made. They include especially the quality of work, commitment to work and industriousness, responsibility, independence, and reliability. The biggest difference was seen in the quality of work, where less employees by 15.83% placed emphasis on this decisive factor and less employees by 18.71% gave emphasis to responsibility, independence, and reliability.
Motivation: Motivational spirals and decision making

Table 11. Factors considered by managers when they decide on how to remunerate employees (N = 559)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Frequency*</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Demanded extent of outputs</td>
<td>229</td>
<td>40.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of achieved tasks</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>33.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keep of defined deadlines</td>
<td>284</td>
<td>50.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Savings achieved by employee</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>12.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of employee work</td>
<td>499</td>
<td>89.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee hard work and diligence</td>
<td>374</td>
<td>66.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee participation in developing their skills</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>18.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee responsibility, autonomy and reliability</td>
<td>414</td>
<td>74.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee career development and opportunities</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>10.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee friendliness and creating good relations</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>35.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lodging of proposals from employee</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>30.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee work overtime</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>17.35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Respondents could mark more factors

We can see the positive aspect of these results especially in the agreement in perceived factors. This indicates that majority of employees is aware of how decisions will be made about them. However, the negative aspect of these results indicate about the disproportion in seeing the said factors. It is necessary here that managers take into account the fact whether their requirements they expect from employees and what they will assess are perceived by employees in the same way.

Table 12. Factors considered by managers when they decide on how to reward employees, viewed by employees (N = 2,067)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Frequency*</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Demanded extent of outputs</td>
<td>924</td>
<td>44.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of achieved tasks</td>
<td>747</td>
<td>36.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keep of defined deadlines</td>
<td>917</td>
<td>44.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Savings achieved by employee</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>6.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of employee work</td>
<td>1,518</td>
<td>73.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee hard work and diligence</td>
<td>1,129</td>
<td>54.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee participation in developing their skills</td>
<td>271</td>
<td>13.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee responsibility, autonomy and reliability</td>
<td>1,144</td>
<td>55.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee career development and opportunities</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>7.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee friendliness and creating good relations</td>
<td>414</td>
<td>20.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lodging of proposals from employee</td>
<td>360</td>
<td>17.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee work overtime</td>
<td>559</td>
<td>27.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Respondents could mark more factors
It means that the motivating has to be realized systematically, must be planed and coordinated, and must involve all employees, and all managers, on all managerial levels, and in all expert areas of the organization.

**Bench-motivating**

When building the perfect organization, we can recommend to compare and connect purposefully the *strengths and wisdom, and especially the motivation* of employees and managers of various organizations. Similarly as the benchmarking as well as bench-learning are appropriate and desirable approaches successfully applied in the last two decades, we propose to implant the new term ‘bench-motivating’ into the contemporary managerial and behavioral theory and practice. Proposed term represents the active collaborative methods which may be creatively included into all the types of organizations, institutions, and companies. The content of bench-motivating consists in an intentional examining the effective motivational strategies, programs, systems, procedures, etc. of the best organizations that operate in the country, branch, or sector, possibly even in a world perspective. After this, the best possible experiences and inspirations should be premeditatedly grasped, suitably adapted, carefully implanted, and precisely applied in the conditions of touched organization.

The concept of bench-motivating could be very important and even inevitable also in a situation that some of the organizations create a common *cluster*. The cluster connects (intentionally selected) activities of agreed partner organizations, with a clear purpose to obtain a higher measure of common result, decrease costs or other business problems, etc.

With a certain level of willingness, this type of mutual educational, motivational and process help and cooperation in the field of précising business activities inside the cluster can be called as ‘cluster bench-motivating’. Essence of this new term could consist in trying to not only compare own managerial and motivational system with motivational systems of other well-known and/or successful organizations (in international or at least national conditions). It could also consist in following content namely:

- Sharing voluntarily;
- Developing commonly;
- Improving permanently; and
- Utilizing systematically

the advanced and sophisticated managerial methods and techniques as well as motivational (incentive) programs and measurement, supported by each clustered organization, and offered/applied towards all the senior and administrative staff, and especially towards the employees and the customers or clients.

The reason of this recommendation lies on an idea that the building something to the new and perfect quality has to be based both on:

1. The precise work of all participants, which includes the perfect managerial influence from the side of managers … + … perfect working behavior and results from the side of employees;
2. The high motivation of all participants, which represents the strong motivation on the side of managers … + … strong motivation on the side of employees.

Apart from other important prerequisites, the strong motivation has to be especially based and supported by the built trust and unwavering reliability (Blašková et al., 2015).

**Individualized versus socially motivated behavior**

Each individual has his/her own motives of the behavior. These motives can be on the one hand, pro-social, but on the other hand, even egotistic. But being mutually intertwined, the motives could be simultaneously pro-socially oriented as well egoistically intended: satisfaction of the individual (egoistic probably) need will contribute to meeting the common, social needs.

Furthermore, despite the efforts to preserve one’s autonomy and independence, the individual is naturally (as a social being) and purposely incorporated into different groups (social, professional, organizational) in order to satisfy his/her need for interpersonal relationships. There appears the importance of affiliation theory which emphasizes and highlights the motivating importance of broadly-approached social aspects of the human behavior. According to Schachter (1959), an individual searches for the society of other individuals, and reduces his or her anxiety there. In particular, s/he searches for individuals with similar opinions and vision of the world. The individual has tendency to search for social contacts, to come closer to others and be with them in the appropriate relationships, namely with those ones with whom s/he shares a common living (working) space, with individuals who have similar opinions, similar or close value orientations, similar lifestyle, often similar life destiny (Provazník et al., 2004: 197).

An aspect of causes and consequences of the motivation on behavior can belong to other considerations in the field of motivating the individuals. In doing so, „the most directly observable aspect of social system is the behavior of its members – that is, their interactions and activities,” (Cohen et al., 1992: 77). In other words, the individual tries to understand, adopt, and use social norms and habits of each group s/he enters. “According to the theory of belonging, social pressure in the group has the greatest power, greater than individual needs,” (Bedrnová, Nový et al., 2004: 277).

Behavior of individual in his or her social role is largely managed by the expectation of the audience (Jandourek, 2003: 62). This tendency/motivation reinforces the social adaptability and gives to the individuals (group members) clear instructions, what behavior is desirable. If it is normal to work in a group responsibly and with full devotion, an individual, originally with any other motivation, inclines to such ‘sample’ behavior. S/he wants to be closer, compare to other members of the group and their motivation. We can express that „s/he voluntarily assumes certain features of group motivation to become more accepted as a member of this group and be able to get a sense of belonging, support and full understanding from the side of the group/team,” (Blašková & Hitka, 2011: 105). Therefore, not only material elements, but also social and relational aspects should be a part of influencing behavior (motivating).
Flexibility and variability in relation to motivating others

Reciprocal social interaction is a prerequisite for social behavior, which is typical for its high flexibility and/or variability. Variability of behavior is apparently given to a man as a biological species (Nový, Surynek et al., 2006). Variability of needs of people and their motivational structures is very broad but motivational resources are also varied and various (Bedrnová, Nový et al., 2004). Variability as a certain volatility, is therefore one of the fundamental characteristics of human behavior. When we want behavior to be desirably affected and effective, it must be flexible. In this sense, variability and/or flexibility are very often perceived as the basic motivational tools in the area of providing desirable working comfort of employees.

The close and firm connection between the flexibility and the motivation can be seen also in publications of Nakonečný. Author points out the relation between the motivation and the action: motivation determines the aim of action, whereas the situation in which it takes place determines the method of action, which means that the same aim can be achieved in various situations with various methods of action, what is the function of cognitive analysis of situation. Wide structural links between motivation, cognition and behavior (behavioral patterns) are formed which jointly predestine the complex of motivated instrumental behavior (Nakonečný, 2005: 63).

In combination with the philosophy of maintaining the balance between work and private life, many organizations use for instance flexible modes of work, such as flexible work time, teleworking and so on (Figurska, 2003; Gilarová, 2004; Armstrong, 2007; Hitka et al., 2015; etc.). According to Graham, the overall objective is to strengthen the motivation and performance of the employee by providing greater flexibility of work and working time (1996). It is significant that the concept of consistency of working and family life is very variable, and depends on the specific circumstances. The European Union also included flexibility, time management, pension reform, and reorganization of the labor market in the concept (MPSVR SR, 2012). The process of incorporating flexibility into the working environment is a tool used not only within the pro-family policy but also a tool to promote equality of opportunities and gender equality at the organization level (Gilarová, 2004: 2) which affects the employer’s image positively.

In this field, a positive flexibility of forms of employment (employment flexibility = quantitative external flexibility) as well as a positive flexibility of forms of work (work flexibility = quantitative internal flexibility) can be considered. I.e., it is variability of different alternatives of employment and the work organization (Šipikal et al., 2007: 5–6). The values where arise equal opportunities of men and women can be, according to Musilová, related to the concept of ‘well-being’ (public welfare), public benefit, social benefit (1999: 9). Of course, the policy of helpfulness towards family requires a discussion, because the weak points and potential solutions we can reveal only in this way which will bring a long-term effect. Helpfulness towards family is not a limitation of the business. It means the financial benefit that can be quantified. It is projected into the improved motivation of employees, higher performance, reduction of stress loads, etc. (Jacková, 2006).
Flexible modes of work strive to assist not only needs of the organizations but also employees (habits, family life, women after maternity leave and so on) and thereby of course influence their motivation and relationship to the organization (Pauknerová, 2006: 227). Flexible working time in the aspect is characterized by the system which allows employees to choose, in widely drawn limits of their own working hours (Griffin, 2007). Such type of flexibility is concerning not only the employees but also the managers. Managers will find it necessary to work irregular hours, accept re-training and cross traditional job boundaries (Graham, 1991).

**Motivational flexibility**

Based on mentioned above ideas and many other inspirations and experience, motivational flexibility can be perceived as a form of continuous adaptation of the personality, classification and restructurization of its motives and choice of forms of behavior adequate in that moment, showing high probability of acceptance by one’s self (i.e. the individual) and by others (colleagues, superiors, etc.). The higher the rate of manageable flexibility (vs. so-called over-motivation or inconsistence in motivated behavior), the higher chance to succeed in the intended action and achieve the required appreciation and satisfaction for one’s work the individual has.

There are more motivating forces, more individual themes at once acting at any given moment on the side of the subject (Bedrnová, Nový et al., 2004: 53). There is a need to use a variety of motivation tools because of various tasks, people attitudes, value judgements and the personalities of employees also differ from each other (Bencsik, Machova & Hevesi, 2016: 191). It is interesting that the rate of achievement of satisfaction and acceptance for motivated behavior can be increased by the individual to a certain level also during the course of the particular situation. For instance, Hewstone & Stroebe (2006) mention the existence of so-called ‘situational correction’ which as if enabled to react very promptly to changed parameters of considered situation and acting powers by an immediate choice of corrected method of better reaction to specific situational conditions.

Issues of the necessary flexibility and/vs. certain constancy in motivating were elaborated in a specific manner also by Výrost & Slaměník: “Motivation of employees in an organization and influencing their work willingness take place at both the individual and group level. They can occur in some cases spontaneously and on an improvised basis to a certain degree but they should substantially remain within certain motivation scheme. Such scheme is delimited by social mission, aims and tasks of the organization but also by the corporate culture and its values, standards, and patterns of behavior,“ (1998: 53).

It is similarly desirable to point out the quasi ‘controversy’ with the defined topic of this chapter: flexibility in motivating and/vs. long-term invariable motivational tools applied to the employees. For instance, Zanger examined conditions in Lincoln Electric, where the management implemented policy of guaranteed employment without influence on the amount of profit. The policy meant motivating employees by means of guaranteeing lifelong employment to those employees who have worked in the company for more than two
years. This policy contained also program of the motivation management, the task of which was to stabilize employees and keep them in the company (Zanger, 1978).

This means that despite the efforts to achieve maximum flexibility of decision-making about/in motivation (motivational decision-making), also those motivating elements should be used in motivating which are based on the principle of permanence, invariability, constancy.

**Important aspects of motivational flexibility**

The preceding text indicates the motivation effect must respect the knowledge that the motivation of each individual is different. This is indicated through the diversity of priorities, needs, values of human beings (Clegg, 2001; Armstrong, 2007; Bender et al., 2012; Lisiak, Molden & Lee, 2012; etc.). In this view, the individuality of each person is crucial.

However, apart from motive differences mentioned in previous chapters, there are some further features or specificities which are appeared in:

- Motivation of the older versus motivation of the younger individuals;
- Motivation of the highly qualified versus motivation of the less qualified individuals;
- Motivation of the men versus motivation of the women;
- Motivation of the managers versus motivation of the staff;
- Motivation of the newcomers versus motivation of the stabilized staff, etc.

These ones put the flexibility in motivating in different light. It means that when examining the flexibility in motivating, it is also necessary to pay particular attention to other aspects. It seems to be interesting to pay attention, for example, to aspects of sex or gender. According to Maccoby, men and women themselves must create models of their roles, but in addition, there is a new working motivation. Humankind is in the era of new value changes that were brought about by changes in the structure of work and family (1988: 20).

In mentioned above intentions, we asked employees and managers in our survey what factors and circumstances contributed to the change of their motivation, i.e. induced in them needs, plans and desires other than they felt in the past (Table 13). There were two answers standing out in the case of managers, marked as much as half of asked managers, namely that the change of their motivation was caused by significant professional success and their gradual maturation and development of personality.

Employees gave more diverse answers than managers. The most significant factor (marked by 43.69% employees) causing the change of previous motivation of employees is the gradual maturation and development of personality.

Almost a third of employees marked also factors such as significant professional success, realization of own qualities and contribution, achievement of long desired aim, health and health condition, and change of work position or employment. They are factors that must be monitored by creators of motivational programs and on the grounds of these events they must grasp necessary changes to be incorporated into said motivational programs.
Motivation: Motivational spirals and decision making

Table 13. Factors of change of past motivation and emergence of new needs, plans and aspirations of employees and managers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Managers (N = 559)</th>
<th>% of managers</th>
<th>Employees (N = 2,067)</th>
<th>% of employees</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Significant success in the work area</td>
<td>291</td>
<td>52.06%</td>
<td>656</td>
<td>31.74%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Death of a loved one or friend</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>4.11%</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>7.74%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large failure in work</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>7.16%</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>7.16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arising the hidden, latent need</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>6.26%</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>4.45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience of joyful, pursuing event</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>10.91%</td>
<td>281</td>
<td>13.59%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long-term fatigue, stress, burn-out</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>20.04%</td>
<td>484</td>
<td>23.42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The success and happiness of a child</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>15.03%</td>
<td>227</td>
<td>10.98%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awareness of own qualities</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>35.78%</td>
<td>624</td>
<td>30.19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slow maturation and own development</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>49.37%</td>
<td>903</td>
<td>43.69%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demotivating influence of superior</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>13.24%</td>
<td>381</td>
<td>18.43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction in partner life</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>23.97%</td>
<td>536</td>
<td>25.93%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Failure, unfortunate of the child</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.79%</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>2.32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meeting recognized, respected man</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>14.67%</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>10.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disappointment in partner life</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>5.19%</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>5.61%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achieving a long-desired goal</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>38.10%</td>
<td>593</td>
<td>28.69%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change of job or employment</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>28.98%</td>
<td>569</td>
<td>27.53%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Starting a family</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>16.10%</td>
<td>291</td>
<td>14.08%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health and state of health</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>20.39%</td>
<td>585</td>
<td>28.30%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These changes also confirm that motivation and motivating are dynamic processes changing over time on the grounds of various events and affecting factors. We asked employees and managers whether they are aware that the effectiveness of motivating tools towards them changed over time (from the past up to the present).

Results in Table 14 show that managers are much more aware of this fact than employees, what is also due to the nature of their work (creative leadership). Only more than a third of employees claimed that the effectiveness of motivating tools towards them did not change over time.

Table 14. Change of motivation tools efficiency applied toward respondents during the time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>All</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Managers</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Employees</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>1,792</td>
<td>68.24</td>
<td>443</td>
<td>79.25</td>
<td>1,349</td>
<td>65.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>834</td>
<td>31.76</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>20.75</td>
<td>718</td>
<td>34.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2,626</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>559</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>2,067</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We have found under closer examination that this perception is affected by the duration of practical experience, which was confirmed also by means of the Pearson chi-square test, where at the degree of freedom 4 the table value 9.488 is lower than calculated (Table 15). This indicates the dependence between the selected factors, whereas the Asymptotic Significance (2-sided) shows a high significance of this correlation.
Table 15. Chi square test for duration of practical experience and perceiving the change in effectiveness of motivational tools over time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>22.637*</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>21.889</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>17.305</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td>2,067</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The cross-table (Table 16) shows that a third of employees (34.74%) who answered that they do not feel any change in the effectiveness of motivating tools are especially employees with shorter duration of practical experience.

Table 16. Frequency of characters between duration of practical experience and perceiving the change in effectiveness of motivational tools over time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceiving the change in effectiveness of motivational tools</th>
<th>Practice</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>1349</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>1349.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>786</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>757.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>375</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>403.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>718</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>718.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>1,161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>1,161</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Man (2013) in his study confirmed two facts: firstly, that the motivation can take different orientations, but what has been left out is the importance of the ability to appropriately shift motivation orientation according to changing contexts; secondly, that the motivational flexibility contributes to well-being. It means, when trying to improve the system of motivation (of employees, citizens, etc.) onto the level really flexible motivational system, it is always necessary to maintain a desirable degree of objectivity and cognitive correctness.

There are too many effects, potentialities and expected consequences mingled in any social situation. Therefore, it is necessary to work with so-called ‘sociological imagination’. „The sociological imagination enables its possessor to understand larger historical scene in terms of its meaning for the inner life and the external career of a variety of individuals,“ (Mills, 1970). It is a certain talent that allows to see the connection between own personal experience and wider social and historical context. We must not fail to see the world which is due to our limited experience or prejudices (Jandourek, 2003: 13).
In particular, social imagination requires the ability to ‘take away’ from the normal routines of ordinary life, to be able to look at it in a new way (Giddens, 2005: 18). And just this way of understanding, accepting and developing human behavior and motivation is inevitable.
Chapter 6: Motivational programs, tools and events
Motivation programs

Every organization needs its motion engine which will lead it forward towards success and own growth. Motivation programs pose this kind of motion engine for an organization. Point of motivation programs lies mostly in strengthening the identification of employee’s interests with those of the organization; in forming of interest of an employee, in growth of own abilities, knowledge and skills and additional dimensions of personality and their active use inside work process; in realizing of individual responsibility and in the same time need for cooperation; in development and application of creative human potential of an organization which is currently fundamental condition of survival and competitiveness of an organization in difficult condition of market environment (Fuchsová & Kravčáková, 2007).

Motivation programs are in general focused on meaningful use and constant development of human potential during completing tasks (goals) set by the organization for a defined time period. However, motivation programs have to be also concurrently aimed at balance and ethical satisfying and development of personalities of individuals and groups involved in transformational company process (Blašková & Hitka, 2011: 171).

Motivation program is a drive tool in all of activities done by people in the organization, tool of increasing work motivation (Szarková, 2016), tool of increasing work performance of employees (Urubio, 2017; Velázquez-Iturbide, Hernán-Losada & Paredes-Velasco, 2017), and tool of increasing quality (Majtán, 2016) mostly of processes of human potential management and development (but other organizational process as well). “Motivation programs express the basic conditions of work motivation that have to be created inside every organization as positive work conditions. Thus, they express somehow complex and permanent work motivating of all employees,” (Nakonečný, 1992: 217). Mentioned opinion is supported by research of Shanks & Buchbinder (2017) too.

Motivational program represents an extensive complex of approaches, activities, measures and tools the mission of which is to improve the quality of motivation and devotion of employees and managers. It should be adjusted to the effort to achieve such functioning of organization as was defined by members of the organization team in the vision and philosophy, i.e. it should facilitate to get the actual organization culture to such required (desired) level. It should respect capacities, traditions, growth potential, but also all notable restrictions and experienced failures of the organization. It certainly should comply with the principle of individual motivational approach. The final version of the organization’s motivational program should thus stem from the analysis of motivational preferences and motivational profiles of employees and managers of the organization.

In her publication, Dvořáková argues that: “Motivation program of an organization is not clearly defined both in management theory and managerial practice. It can be understood as a partial, as well as a comprehensive set of measures in area of human resource management which, following the other management activities, aims to actively influence
work performance and to create positive attitudes of all employees towards the organization,” (2012: 239).

Motivation program is a tool used by senior employees to influence behavior of their subordinate co-workers, colleagues, superior co-workers and themselves through a variety of different thoroughly premeditated activities (Cherian & Jacob, 2013). All employees of the organization must participate in the process of its creation and the program has to be created based on opinion and request of each and every individual. Naturally, all of the employees must be familiarized with the program, so that it has the desired effects and the goal of motivation program was achieved (Guzzo, Jette & Katzell, 1985).

Creation of motivation program itself is influenced by vision, mission, philosophy, and strategies of organization and it is necessary to constantly update the program based on needs, wishes and abilities of all employees of the organization. Motivation program cannot be considered only as a proposition of motivation factor that motivate employees. It must be adjusted to conditions of the organization, to its culture, to its goals, its vision, mission, strategy, tactic and approach towards organization, management and development of human potential and must comply with the principle of individual motivation approach (Bouček & Herbolt, 1978; Korschun, Bhattacharya & Swain, 2013; Long & Perumal, 2014).

Content of motivation programs

Based on research of motivation programs of numerous successful domestic and international organizations, it is possible to characterize four basic views on motivation programs, or content types of motivation programs:

1. **Compensation.** Its typical features usually include bonuses and rewards for ideas created by the employees. Thus, it is a financial compensation for employee’s effort beyond his or her duties (Läpple & Hennessy, 2015). As successful examples, it is possible to mention results of organizations like Zappos.com, Genentech, or Samsung. In particular, employees of Zappos.com confer financial rewards to their other colleagues (Zappos.com, online); employees of Genentech are being rewarded with the standard amount of financial bonus whenever they exceed performance threshold set by the organization (Genentech, online); Samsung grants its employees by patent rewards, where the organization financially rewards those employees, whose file patent applications on the behalf of organization (Samsung, online).

2. **Gifting.** Typical feature of this approach is to offer various gifts to employees of the organization. It does not necessarily have to be expensive but rather creative gifts that must possess a sufficient perceived value for employees, whose organization wants to motivate. This type of remuneration is appropriate to support exemplary behavior in the short term and promoting long-term loyalty. Several organizations can be mentioned as successful examples from practice, for example company Westin, which uses rewards in form of a 5 day exotic trip to an employee with the best idea of a quarter-year period (Westin, online); DDB Worldwide, which uses prestigious rewards in form of sending a bottle of premium champagne to employees that exceed the expectations (DDB, online); UK’s Department for Work and Pensions, which uses virtual rewards in form
of platform called Idea Street, where employees gain points for submitting and developing ideas that they can use – organization had roughly 4,500 users and created 1,400 suggestions of which 63 were moved to the implementation phase within 18 months since launch of this platform.

3. **Recognition.** Typical features of this approach are to publicly present employees that are showing signs of behavior or performance that could serve as an example for other employees (Ali & Ahmed, 2009; Rizwan & Ali, 2010). This approach is more effective than financial reward in the long run. Examples from practice include organizations Honeywell and Intuit, where Honeywell grants VIP rewards through portraits and stories of their best employees whose posters are located in the offices, where all employees can see them (Honeywell, online); Intuit organizes a festive award ceremony, where it among others gives ‘Failure Award’ which is awarded to a team whose unsuccessful idea has resulted into valuable education (Intuit, online).

4. **Pleasure.** Typical features of this approach include nontraditional rewards in form of pleasures that are not common in other organizations. Such an approach is used to attract and retain ‘talents’ within the organization and also to increase long-term performance of the employees. It is possible to mention organizations Thrillist Media Group, Genentech and Starbucks as successful examples. Thrillist Media Group maintains a culture, where everyone cares for hard work for which organization pays in advance (Thrillist, online); Genentech offers its employees with an unconventional rewards such as a dog in the workplace, haircut, or a weekly car wash (Genentech, online); Starbucks offers its employees the opportunity to study at the Arizona State University where the company pays the tuition fees in full (Starbucks, online).

Today’s motivation programs are more diverse and reflect the unique culture and creativity of the organization. Motivational programs must play a key role during managing innovative behavior and meeting business goals (Wojtaszek, 2016). The most successful organizations understand how motivation programs work and *effectively combine* financial rewards with recognition, individual rewards with group rewards in order to achieve balanced motivation program.

The basic idea in creating motivation programs is to apply the ‘three-stage implementation concretization’ scheme. This assumes that the motivation program for the whole organization is created in the first stage. Its ambition is to improve the motivation of all members of the organization, regardless of age, gender, job classification, achieved education, professional orientation, etc. In the second stage of the implementation concretization, the motivation program of organization serves as the basis for creation of motivational programs of the groups defined in the organization. Defined groups can be e.g. hierarchical levels of organization, and/or organizational units and/or individual working groups or teams operating in the organization. In this sense, for each defined group, a unique motivation program is created, tailored and concretized to the motivational profiles and preferences of the members of this group. Consequently, the third stage of the implementation concretization means that the motivation program of the organization, together with the group’s motivation program, form the inspirational basis for creating the
individualized motivation programs – motivation programs created for each employee and each manager in the organization.

Creation of motivation program

Based on the findings of numerous authors, it can be argued that the organization’s motivation program cannot remain only in the form of a declared document but must be published and available for all employees of the organization. Also a timetable and responsibility for its fulfillment must be defined. Satisfied employees contribute greatly to the reputation of organization in the eyes of the public. On the other hand, the current time creates high demands on employees in terms of their abilities, physical strength and also in area of constant development. Because of these aspects, it is important that the motivation programs of organizations are designed to the smallest details.

Because each organization is different, each needs its special and unique motivation program that will include the specifics of the organization and its employees. As well the creation of motivation program in each organization varies depending on the type, the character and the culture of the organization, the course of its individual processes and all its specifics. These must be taken into account when creating motivation programs. In other words, if the organization wants to save time and other resources by ‘replicating’ (or, in line with intellectual property law, it actually steals) the motivation program of another organization and not creating its own, unique program, it will commit a serious mistake. It is imperative to always thoroughly consider each adopted program or program generally referred in literature as general and guaranteed. It is imperative to always very sensitively implant the very unique elements, traditions, feelings, development potential, and the expected limits of a particular organization. This means that copying the motivation programs of other organizations absolutely can pose a great risk to the organization: the ‘adopted’ program not only does not have to appeal to motivation of employees and managers, but can even lead to their amotivation or demotivation.

Based on aforementioned warnings, it is therefore appropriate to gain as many trustworthy findings about motivation, motivating and motivation programs as possible. In pragmatic terms, it is assumed that managers and staff of human potential development departments in each organization are, or, they should be professionals in the area of work performance and motivation. In this spirit, Majtán (2016) argues that during creation of motivation programs it is important to follow basic principles such as identifying differences between individuals and consequently assigning them to the right job (to give employees a job which will satisfy their needs), to set goals that organization wants to achieve through motivation program, to have correctly set up wage system and to maintain individualized, transparent and fair remuneration. Mallaya (2007) is also referring to this opinion and argues that in fact the only way to achieve what management of an organization wants from its employees is that the desired behavior must be objectively and fairly rewarded. A well-designed motivation program will increase employee performance, increase satisfaction, and improve the ability to maintain high-quality staff that will provide customers with quality service and thus increase profit of the organization.
When creating a motivation program, it is necessary to analyze external and internal factors that affect the whole organization. Internal factors analysis should focus on a detailed analysis of the organization’s financial situation, its organizational structure, the level of formal and informal relationships between employees and management staff, etc. It is necessary that the motivation program reflects the overall direction of the organization (Blašková, 2003; Pohanková, 2009).

In order to create a motivation program, it is important to follow a several steps that each organization has to adjust to its specific conditions (adjusted based on recommendations of successful world companies and many authors, e.g. Bedrnová & Nový, 2002; Blašková, 2003, 2007, 2009, 2016; Stýblo & Hain, 2013; Majtán, 2016; Urubio, 2017; Zanetti et al., 2017):

1. **Proposition of motivation program’s mission.** The mission of a motivation program expresses its meaning and purpose of its implementation and existence and helps to realize which purpose the motivation program is created for. The defined mission must reflect three dimensions (Rey & Prat, 2017): must be formal in character, must reflect the dynamic nature of the motivation program, and must be motivating so employees will want to not only participate in the program but also to be involved in its creation. In our opinion, the mission of motivation program needs to be formulated very specifically to be understood and believed by all employees of the organization.

2. **Proposition of motivation program’s philosophy.** Philosophy talks about the basic principles of the motivation program, it specifies the motivation program’s mission of complementary ideas and values, and reflects the culture of the organization that this philosophy transfers to the motivation program. It also reflects the spirit of the motivation program in which the whole process should be carried, from design, creation itself to implementation, and feedback.

3. **Proposition of motivation program’s goal/goals.** It is possible to have different goals of motivation program for various groups of employees (for example, based on nature of their job). Many organizations want to increase their profits and improve productivity through a motivation program, but these goals are too vague to be really effective for the motivation program. As goals for strategic planning, even when creating a motivation program, it is necessary that the goals are set specific so they could be achievable, measurable. It is necessary to set the time to achieve them, incorporating the necessary time reserve in case of minor delays.

4. Proposition of a way in which achievement of goals will be measured (for example customer satisfaction assessment, production level measurement, measurement of accidents caused by loss of time, etc.). These metrics are derived from the proposed goals, and their tracking can be used to determine not only whether or not the goal is met, but it is possible to monitor what tools of the program help the achievement of short-term and long-term goals. Based on these results it is possible to set the motivation program more accurately for the future direction of the organization.

5. **Proposition of a budget, or funds that it is possible to invest in motivation program.** It is clear that the motivation program requires sufficient financial coverage while on the other hand, an immediate return in the form of a specific profit cannot be expected – the
benefit of increased or more correctly oriented motivation will come with a certain time shift, usually up to 2–4 months after the program is put into practice of the organization. Therefore, it is highly important for organizations to determine how much from the budget they can afford to spend on motivational programs and look at these finances as an investment in human potential. Motivational programs do not have to be enormously expensive because effective motivation/incentive programs can be built and implemented even with a small financial budget.

6. **Analysis of needs, motivation preferences and profiles**, that need to be made in order to enable management staff to determine the unfulfilled and expected needs of their employees, to set motivational preferences and to define comprehensive motivation profiles of employees and managers. Based on identification of needs and preferences, the organization will gain one of the input data for the creation of a motivation program. The analysis of needs itself poses a process which is built up in a few steps and leans on *expected and assumed needs* of employees that senior employees try to predict based on current knowledge and experience. Consequently, with use of gained findings, it is possible to make a selection of appropriate analysis for identification of *actual* needs and motivation preferences of employees. It is necessary to analyze needs, preferences and motivation profiles of individuals, work groups, and whole organization and consequently to reconcile and link these results together. Analyses can be performed by various methods (it is possible to recommend use of several analytical methods), while it is appropriate to combine these methods with each other and that depending on the necessities and possibilities of the organization. Such methods can be, for example, observation, questionnaire survey, interviews with employees, brainstorming, brainwriting, assessment centers, and so on. Excellent help is the involvement of facilitators and psychologists of the organization. After selection of appropriate methods of analysis, these methods should be applied to all employees, all work teams and the organization itself. At the end of this phase, it is necessary to evaluate all the results of all analyses and draw relevant and objective conclusions from them.

7. **Identification of unsatisfied need/s** of all surveyed objects (individuals, work teams, and the whole organization) based on the results of analyses of previous needs, preferences, and profiles. These results are very important for managers because they are the most important knowledge/background for creation of a motivating program.

8. **Analysis of available options to satisfy needs**. There is a necessity to thoroughly examine all available resources and options to meet the unfulfilled needs of employees and managers, and to increase motivation and work performance. During this analysis it is necessary to quantify all financial and non-financial costs, time, process and psychological difficulty, and to consider the suitability of the funds for the organization, but also for the individuals themselves. Available resources and options of satisfying the needs of individuals and teams need to be searched for in the organization’s internal environment. There must be explored all its capabilities, capacities, variants and internal resources. After reviewing the internal options it is necessary, or, it is suitable to also explore the possibilities of an external environment that are available and appropriate for the organization, whether financially or in terms of time and performance.
9. **Selection of appropriate means to satisfy unmet (unfulfilled) needs.** This is a selection of specific motivational tools, events, and activities that need to be thoroughly thought out and based on previous analyses of available options to satisfy the needs. Responsible employees who are in charge of selecting activities for a new motivation program have to, based on set goals and analysis, develop a number of new propositions and determine the criteria for selecting the most appropriate propositions for the organization.

10. **Creation and testing of preliminary version of a motivation program.** By extensive communication that is by involving appropriately selected staff (team representatives) and managers at all levels in the organization it is possible to create an initial version of the motivation program. Probably the most complicated issue is to achieve a conformity between opinions and expectations of employees versus those of management of the organization. However maturely handled communication, helpfulness and visualization of potential results of motivation program that is being created, should overcome this complexity. It is possible to even recommend selection of 2–3 work teams in environment on which the preliminary version can be tested. During and after this period, it will already be possible to get the initial impulses and expressions of the concerned employees and managers, and to create an overall picture of the positive and blocking elements of the tested program. Consequently, again by mutual communication, creators of the program can develop a final version of the organization’s motivation program. It is appropriate to also define instructions and rules by which individual managers will specify and concretize the organizational program into group and team motivation programs, and into individualized programs for their individual employees and managers.

11. **Creation of an official motivation program document.** This document needs to be created in particular so that the entire motivation program of the organization is binding and at any time demonstrable, and will not end up only in the plane of ideas and promises. The document must be formally anchored, must have the appropriate graphic editing and its validity. It must be available to all employees and managers, so they can review and recall it anytime. The document must be written understandably as it is intended for all employees, on all managerial levels, in all departments, and units.

12. **Proposition of promoting the motivation program to the employees and managers.** It is necessary to make sure that all employees and managers understand the goals of the motivation program and are identified with its content, course, and functioning. It is important to communicate the motivation program to all members of organization, to explain and to elucidate the program so that they identify themselves with it, so that they feel motivated to participate in carrying out all the necessary activities. This means that employees and managers do not take the implementation of a motivating program just as another of their ‘unnecessary or useless’ duties and they do not have a feeling that they are forced to participate in activities included in the motivation program without the necessary benefits for themselves and their team.

13. **Assessment of the course of the creation and implementation of the motivation program,** its effect and effectiveness. At the end of the whole creation of motivation program, it is necessary to verify whether or not the correct course of program has been maintained.
If evaluators find out that an error has occurred in one of the phases, an immediate remedy is needed as it may result in a motivation program’s failure in effectiveness and unnecessary financial costs, and in the worst case even in demotivation of employees. For such an assessment, it is necessary to premeditate the criteria for assessing the course of program implementation and the criteria for assessing its success. These criteria must be based on a defined mission and goals of the organization, the motivation program and the needs of all employees. During the control and evaluation of motivation program’s successfulness, which are a feedback for the creation of a new program or for rehabilitating the current program, it is necessary to monitor and record all the benefits the program has brought and to capture all the shortcomings that need to be taken care of as soon as possible. It is appropriate to measure the effectiveness of individual activities and consider how to make them even more effective when creating a future, updated program.

14. Feedback. Before updating or creating a new motivation program, it is necessary to look at the overall course of the current program and to evaluate which steps in the creation should be modified and which steps should be preserved, considering dynamic development of influences and factors that constitute individual inputs for the creation of motivation program.

It is worth mentioning that if the organization wants to get its own, potentially highly efficient motivation program, all of these phases should be implemented. As well as in other processes, the sequencing of individual activities is assembled in predicted logical continuity. Bypassing any of the phases could result in a loss or damage to the whole effort.

**Motivation ‘ambushes’**

There are numerous pitfalls in creating motivation programs that organizations can quickly succumb to in effort to facilitate the process of creating a motivation program (Nelson, 2012). The most common motivating traps present in today’s organizations are competing traps, one gift for all, and money traps.

*The competition trap* is a scenario where the best employees will be rewarded while the rest of the team will remain unpaid. In this case, employees who have made a tremendous effort to increase their performance and are not valued for it, will feel a great disappointment not only from injustice but also from their own failure, which is even more dangerous to the demotivating effect. Videlicet, the loss of faith in oneself and his/hers skills and abilities leads to a decrease in the efficiency and overall performance of an employee, sometimes leading even to a possible burnout.

*One gift for all* poses a common, but absolutely inappropriate practice. Within this framework, managers may slip to believe that if they offer their employees with a prestigious gift (e.g. exotic holiday), they will motivate everyone so much that everyone will increase his or her performance in effort to get this gift. However that is not true. Every employee is unique and has own unique desires and needs. Especially with a large number of employees, it is highly unlikely that there will be a single ‘common gift’ that will be sufficiently motivating for all employees.
Motivation: Motivational spirals and decision making

Money traps. Money is an indispensable part of the remuneration system in employment, and today it is still ranked highly (first places) in the list of effective motivation tools. However, our surveys show that recognition, self-satisfaction, sense of utility, self-development, etc., appear much more often among more-effective motivation tools. People need money, but when they have enough, money no longer have motivation effect in form of improving their performance at work (Garbers, 2014; Cerasoli, Nicklin & Ford, 2014).

In our survey from 2016, respondents were asked what measures from the superiors or leaders of the organization they would propose to help increase their own motivation and willingness to further develop, or, what the organization should improve or change (Table 17). In the replies of managers it can be seen that the majority (63.15%) still leans towards improvement of the financial remuneration, but almost half of the managers claim that it is also necessary to improve the employee benefits (47.05%), to show a greater interest in their opinions (44.19%), (this points out to the need for self-actualization and better use of their capabilities), and allow the mutual and open cooperation (40.25%).

Responses of the employees are more varied and distinctive, indicating that there are much bigger reserves and shortcomings in the creation of motivation programs for employees than in the creation of those for the managers. Besides employees’ responses that match with those of the managers (higher financial remuneration and rewards: 76.10%; employee benefits: 52.69%; greater interest in employees and their opinions: 46.64%; mutual and open cooperation: 46.64%), employees feel the shortcoming and would accept changes in behavior against them, and that in terms of correctness, justice and human approach (43.64%).

Table 17. Suggestions for increasing motivation in organization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Managers</th>
<th>Employees</th>
<th>All</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Greater interest in employees and their opinions</td>
<td>247</td>
<td>44.19%</td>
<td>964</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing the necessary information</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>28.98%</td>
<td>605</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training activities and skills development</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>32.20%</td>
<td>625</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mutual and open cooperation</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>40.25%</td>
<td>964</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creating good relations and a positive atmosphere</td>
<td>209</td>
<td>37.39%</td>
<td>853</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Space for autonomy and self-actualization</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>24.33%</td>
<td>425</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher financial remuneration and rewards</td>
<td>353</td>
<td>63.15%</td>
<td>1,573</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Better working conditions</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>25.04%</td>
<td>715</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career growth and job perspective</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>35.42%</td>
<td>858</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expression of recognition for quality work</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>37.75%</td>
<td>881</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation in management and decision making</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>27.37%</td>
<td>361</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee bonuses and benefits</td>
<td>263</td>
<td>47.05%</td>
<td>1,089</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairness, justice and humanity of the superior</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>36.67%</td>
<td>902</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improvement of mutual communication</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>33.27%</td>
<td>627</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Another important incentives were in the area of career growth and work perspective (41.51%), which indicates an interest of employees to development of their skills and to use them for more responsible and prestigious positions within the organization and in the area...
good relationships and positive atmosphere (41.27%), which is a fundamental for a motivation environment and for the creation of motivation programs.

Table 18 shows the responses on the creation of motivation programs. An alarming finding is that only 10.11% of employees confirmed that motivation programs were created with their participation, and up to 53.46% of employees admitted that there were no motivation programs created for them.

Another significant indicator of the fact that there is a problem in the area of motivating and creation of motivational programs in Slovak organizations, is that the view of managers and employees on motivation programs is very different. Only 24.33% of managers admit that they do not create motivation programs (which makes up the difference of 29.13% of the respondents), and exactly 24.87% of managers feel they engage their employees in motivation programs, even though the employees do not feel that way (difference is 14.76%).

Table 18. Working out the motivation programs for employees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Managers</th>
<th>Employees</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you create the motivation programs for your employees?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>284</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes, with participation of employees</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>559</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is precisely such alarming values that ought to be an important motive for managers so they take the creation and use of motivation programs with full seriousness and so they realize the power of motivation programs that they can use for the development and prosperity of their organization and employees.

Motivational tools and events

Both the motivation and the motivating indeed represent differing but at the same time very close, mutually linked phenomena. Motivation represents a structure/classification of motives, intensity and persistence of behavior, accumulated and voluntarily spent energy, etc. taking place inside the personality. Motivating is an intentional relation-emotional process which someone acts on the motivation of man through. Organization as an unique subject has to prepare and provide an environment in which it is possible to achieve a high level of motivation through the suitable incentives and rewards, work and social satisfaction, opportunities to training and growth, etc. “Successful business leaders, who are close to their customers and employees, know that inspiring, motivating, and training their people are the best ways to deliver outstanding services to differentiate them from competition,” (Lendel & Kubina, 2008).
According to many authors (Nakonečný, 1992, 2005; Tureckiová, 2004; Bakanuskinė, Žalpytė & Vaikasienė, 2014; Varmus et al., 2016; etc.), the motivating always means acting on motivation by means of offering sufficiently attractive facts, incentives, offers, instigations, tools, techniques, events, etc. The nature of such offers/impulses can be:

- Factual (productive working facility/equipment);
- Financial (reward, bonus);
- Emotional (attractive image of the future);
- Social (acceptance by others, friendship);
- Psychological (self-assertion, acknowledgement);
- Developmental (application of potential, self-actualization);
- Intellectual (challenges for intellect and wisdom); and so on.

This means that the spectrum of efficiently applied motivators has to be as the most colorful and varied as possible. In such a situation, the motivation of addressed employees as well managers gets the chance to be actualized, strengthened, developed, and moved to the wished and expected level.

On the other hand, from the viewpoint of behavioral rationality, the present is still marked with after-effects of the financial crisis. But the fact is extraordinary important that the crisis of social relations is developed more and more. An economic contraction induces a motivation towards avoiding negative outcomes (i.e., financial losses), while an economic expansion motivates individuals to achieve positive outcomes (i.e., financial gains), (Millet, Lamey & Van den Berg, 2012). This leads to the knowledge that it is both possible and suitable to apply other, more economical (non-financial) motivational tools. These ones are capable to decide about the resulting intensity of motivation much more and longer in comparison to financial motivators (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2009; Vetráková et al., 2011; Tomšík & Duda, 2013; etc.).

**The most efficient motivators**

Intrinsic motivation involves people doing an activity because they find it interesting and derive spontaneous satisfaction from the activity itself (Gagné & Deci, 2005: 331). This means that the content of work and enjoyment (experienced satisfaction from the concrete, interesting and useful activity) rank among the most important and efficient intrinsic motivators. The power of this kind of motivators is confirmed by many authors. Furthermore, employees to be motivated to perform their work must find their job to be important and have confidence that they can successfully perform it (Wright, 2003: 19).

According to Byars & Rue (1997), from the point of view of motivation to achieve personal goals, people strive to achieve objectives they have set for themselves. The most frequently identified objectives of employees are job security, financially and intellectually rewarding work, recognition, status, responsibility, and achievement (p. 218). Another very strong motivator could be represented through the desires to know and to understand, i.e. acquiring knowledge and systematizing the universe have been considered as techniques for
the achievement of basic safety in the world, or, for the intelligent man, expressions of self-actualization (Maslow, 1943: 385).

Based on the well-known survey of Amabile & Kramer from 2009, a close analysis of nearly 12,000 diary entries, together with the writers’ daily ratings of their motivation and emotions, shows that making progress in one’s work – even incremental progress – is more frequently associated with positive emotions and high motivation than any other workday event. On days when workers have the sense they’re making headway in their jobs, or when they receive support that helps them overcome obstacles, their emotions are most positive and their drive to succeed is at its peak. … So, managers should celebrate progress (Amabile & Kramer, 2010). This is closely related to the opinion of Drucker (1992): “Motivation of the expert depends on the efficiency of his/her actions, on the ability to achieve good results. If it turns out that his/her work is not beneficial, his/her zeal for work soon wears off and the employee is changed to a man who only waits for the end of working time,” (p. 13).

On the sample of 210 respondents in Poland, Figurska (2015) focused onto the searching determinants of knowledge workers engagement. Pay equivalent to the employees input in work, good atmosphere at work, opportunities for career development, appropriate relationships with people (in particular with superiors), opportunities for knowledge and skills development are factors which have the greatest influence on the employees decisions about changing a place of employment or staying in the organization they work in (p. 56).

Accepting motivating inspirations from other successful individuals belongs amongst very strong motivation measures. In this spirit it is possible to accept examples of positive motivational patterns from people whose motivation is very strong by itself. According to Harvey, highly motivated people follow these three approaches in fulfilling their life concept:

1. Positive approaches. Seeing things from their better side (this attitude will attract individuals and groups as a magnet);
2. Selflessness. Realizing that selfless people glow with precious and attracting harmony that constantly refreshes and is connecting the best people;
3. Own values. Never underestimating importance of own values, because in the opposite case people cannot utilize all of their options (Harvey, 1992: 16).

Although the perfect ideals (as the motivators) can also never be attained, these ones preserves their motivational value as transcendent incentives to approach (McGregor, Nash & Prentice, 2011).

The group of further specific motivators might be completed by both a mutuality and an altruism. First of these motivators – mutuality – is “a way of relating, a shared activity in which each (or all) of the people involved are participating as fully as possible,” (Miller & Stiver, 1997: 43). When there is a high degree of mutuality, there is greater mutual empathy, which fosters a sense of psychological safety (Carmeli, Brueller & Dutton, 2008: 85–86). Second of mentioned above motivators – altruism – is selfless and unselfish care for the good of others (Soanes & Stevenson, 2003: 47). If an individual behaves altruistically, his or her personal benefit is partially decreasing, however, the benefit of society as a whole is growing. Altruistic individual has relatively minor personal benefits as an individual
egoist; however, society with altruistic individuals has a greater benefit than the society without them (Bandera, 2009). From the practical viewpoint, the altruistic needs might and we are convinced that even should be accepted and called up. Based on one’s full identification with the altruistic need, the individual could perceive his or her behavior as really contributive, especially contributive not only to him/herself but also to other colleagues and partners. Such an altruistic behavior could be inflamed which cause that the individuals will help to easier solve the tasks and overcome the work and (several) private problems of other colleagues.

We asked respondents in our survey to evaluate the effectiveness of individual motivational tools on a scale from 1 to 10, where 10 marks the motivational tool with maximum effectiveness and 1 marks ineffective motivational tool. The survey showed that the effectiveness of motivational tools does not differ very much for employees and managers. Table 19 shows that the most efficient motivational tools include especially work performance appraisal criteria, granting personal bonuses and rewards, training activities, and correctness (fairness) of the superior. It still applies that the effect of exercising threats and sanctions is very low and has rather demotivating effect on employees than the effect of motivating them to giving better performance.

**Table 19. Average efficiency of motivation tools applied on employees and managers (scale 1–10)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivation tools</th>
<th>Managers</th>
<th>Employees</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal bonuses and rewards</td>
<td>7.50</td>
<td>8.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing the necessary information</td>
<td>7.01</td>
<td>7.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Praise</td>
<td>7.52</td>
<td>7.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good relationships and atmosphere</td>
<td>7.28</td>
<td>7.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest on opinions and suggestions</td>
<td>5.87</td>
<td>5.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing platform for independence</td>
<td>5.89</td>
<td>5.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career growth</td>
<td>6.84</td>
<td>6.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairness of superior</td>
<td>7.61</td>
<td>7.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development and training activities</td>
<td>7.70</td>
<td>7.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Criterion of performance appraisal</td>
<td>8.12</td>
<td>8.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engaging employees into the decision making</td>
<td>6.77</td>
<td>6.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Application of threats and sanctions</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>3.81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We asked employees and managers to determine three motivational tools most important for them. Table 20 shows that both managers and employees placed granting of personal allowance and bonuses on the first place (what is also due to the nature of amount of wages in Slovakia) and placed fairness of the superior and the management on the third place. The second place, however, differed in the importance of motivators for employees and managers. Managers consider the career growth as more important motivational tool (what is more typical for managerial functions) and employees the praise. This indicates that employees also need to hear praise for well performed work.
We subsequently examined what of the motivational tools are actually applied in organizations. Table 21 shows that more than half of the respondents confirmed that personal bonuses and rewards are used in organizations as well as giving the praise. Other notable answers (about actually applied motivational tools) included showing interest in opinions and proposals (which were, however, evaluated with the average value 5.8 as to their efficiency), provision of necessary information, creation of good relationships and atmosphere and provision of space for independence (which was also evaluated only with the average value 5.8 as to the effectiveness).

Table 21. Applied motivation tools (N = 2,626)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivation tools</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal bonuses and rewards</td>
<td>1,390</td>
<td>52.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing the necessary information</td>
<td>1,096</td>
<td>41.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Praise</td>
<td>1,560</td>
<td>59.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good relationships and atmosphere</td>
<td>1,088</td>
<td>41.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest on opinions and suggestions</td>
<td>1,198</td>
<td>45.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing platform for independence</td>
<td>1,080</td>
<td>41.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career growth</td>
<td>636</td>
<td>24.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairness of superior</td>
<td>963</td>
<td>36.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development and training activities</td>
<td>913</td>
<td>34.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Criterion of performance appraisal</td>
<td>561</td>
<td>21.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engaging employees into the decision making</td>
<td>553</td>
<td>21.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Application of threats and sanctions</td>
<td>583</td>
<td>22.20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We further wanted to find out whether superiors vary motivational tools as the motivation is very dynamic. It was proven also by our previous surveys (in 2009 and 2013) that motivation changes over time and on the grounds of various influences, events and factors. Table 22 shows that only 18.51% respondents confirmed that the motivational tools are varied over time, when the needs, interests and expectations of employees also change. It is an alarming factor that almost half of employees and third of managers confirmed that motivational tools are not varied at all. This is in a contradiction with a necessary flexibility that has to be performed both in motivating oneself and motivating others.
In addition, such approach to the developed motivation system, motivational program and general motivation approach is highly ineffective, because the lack of varying and obsolescence of these processes is devastating and in the end demotivating for employees and managers. It therefore means for the organization uselessly spent financial and non-financial means, or ineffectively evaluated financial and non-financial means.

### Gamification as the newest way of motivating

In a recent years, the group of the most efficient motivators can be extended through a non-traditional, very new motivational tool: game (or gamification). According to Perryer et al. (2016), game might be applied with the intention to improve workplace motivation, and gamification concepts and techniques are used primarily to engage and motivate their ‘players’ to behave in a particular way. Gamification means the use of technologies to simulate game characteristics with the potential to motivate ‘players’ (Hamari & Koivisto, 2015). In addition to enhancing engagement, organizations use gamified applications to improve skill development through increased participation in training programs, motivate employees to better performance and for recruitment purpose as well (Gupta & Gomathi, 2017).

According to Tcyplakova (2016), gamification includes influencing of work behavior of employees by their engagement into a game through secured software inside of an organization (for example applications of social media); employees are being encouraged to perform various task and to complete online assignments which are directly related to organization and workflow while all of interactions between employees are necessarily based on competitiveness (p. 83).

It is possible to understand the game as a space and an opportunity for real intensive activity and showing deep interest for modeled and fantasy induced scenarios. Engagement in game assumes primary motivation – initial willingness to play. It is also based on follow-up willingness to put into the game own powers and thinking and to continue in the game with full engagement and involvement. Motivation is a driving force of the game. However, what is extremely benefiting, game can support and bolster follow-up and final motivation: the feeling of victory in game replenishes the energy and drive to feel the success once more. This can lead individual to a decision to transfer attributes and positive dynamics of game
Chapter 6: Motivational programs, tools and events

into the real work life. Amongst the potentially biggest contribution in this area it is possible to mention idea that game can trustfully simulate motivation, or influencing of motivation. That means that appropriate game can be created in a way that it will simulate (model) different situations in work environment. Such situations can appropriately affect the motivation of individuals – motivation of employees and managers of specific organizations – in many ways.

Same as in computer or friendly game, in game of motivation it is required to carefully consider all elements of environment (organization influences, processes etc.), all participants with their strengths and weaknesses (motives), and decide about right selection of best options (motivational tools and measures). This game can help managers to make better decisions in motivating their employees. Simultaneously, motivation games can help employees as well, i.e. they can facilitate understanding of situational forces and motivational efforts of their superiors.

Financial motivators

In addition to the mentioned above non-financial motivators, the organizations are currently oriented to motivate by means of salary with the option of professional and career growth (Priglová, 2005: 52). Shortly: monetary incentives can also complement and enhance the effect of motivational effort (Kvaløy & Schöttner, 2015). In this context, the importance of the theory of exchange emerges. Related to this theory, there are people in social situations who are motivated to maximize positive outcomes for themselves (Hewstone & Stroebe, 2006: 346). Money can provide positive motivation in the right circumstances not only because people need and want money but also because it serves as a highly tangible means of recognition. But badly designed and managed pay systems can demotivate (Armstrong, 2009: 330). This is a reason for existing and utilizing the principles of sophisticated reward management. The reward management has to be concerned with the formulation and implementation of strategies and policies the purposes of which are to reward people fairly, equitably and consistently in accordance with their value to the organization and to help the organization to achieve its strategic goals (Armstrong, 2009).

More specifically, Homans in his publication Social Behavior: Its Elementary Forms dealt with the question of distributive justice in this way: "Exchange is fair, if everyone gets enough to make it proportional in view of how much he invested," (1961). Unlike Homans, Blau (1964) was also devoted to the exchange, but he considered it in the context of power. He examined why individuals accept the power of someone else. He found that every interaction among people is a profitable exchange. There is even exchange in case if an individual does not want any for reward for the service – reward is in the form of unselfishness of altruistic benefactor (Blau, 1964).

Differences in understanding efficiency of motivators

Organization as a whole can provide the conditions in which a high level of motivation by offering incentives/offers and rewards and also opportunities for learning and growth can be
achieved (Armstrong & Stephens, 2008: 70). This opinion indicates the necessity for consider various impacts and consequences that are perceived through the individuals and groups whom various motivators are applied to. Firstly, we can consider the different efficiency of applied motivators from the viewpoint of the type of organization or sector which the individuals are working for. As the examples we can use the research results of Wright (2003): “The composition of the public workforce has been expected to reflect the nature of the work in the public sector by attracting employees who desire greater opportunities to fulfill higher-order needs and altruistic motives by performing public service”; Tigu et al. (2015): “The employees of social entrepreneurs are mostly intrinsic motivated and financial rewards are not the prime element that determines them to work in a social economy organization”; and Akdemir & Arslan (2013): Motivation scale of teachers consists of four factors that are ordered by their experimental importance, i.e. expectations (appreciation of the work, positive critics, social activities, participation, fairness, etc.), communication (active interaction between colleagues, cooperation, etc.), institution (security, non-monotony, health care, participation in decisions, etc.), and progress in profession (carrier, progress, salary, advancement).

In comparison to the employees of socially oriented organizations, the employees of productive organizations (with a predominance of manual work) are often characterized by preferring the financial or other tangible motivators (Armstrong, 2002; Priglová, 2007; Hitka, 2009; Blašková et al., 2015; etc.). Although the tangible motivators often take first place in the list of effective motivational tools, it should be noted that such employees deem as very important also the relationships in the workplace and interestingness of work they do in their organization.

Secondly, we can disclose the different efficiency of applied motivators from the viewpoint of the organizational hierarchy. A lot of studies strongly point out that there is a big difference between particular working wishes and needs felt by employees, and managers’ projection how they assume the employees’ needs. For example, according to Tepper (1996), most of the managers believe that their employees ranked first in their employment incentive/motivational requirements especially money and job security. On the contrary, most of the employees assigned money and job security for third to sixth place – it means over such values as good jobs, recognition, a sense of belonging to the company, and a good working environment (p. 98). In addition, “Management believes that pressing the person from both sides (availability and cost) will make the person come up with the best decision. But it is not true!” (Schragenheim, 1999: 100).

Thirdly, we have to respect the motives differentness also from the point of view of time, concretely, viewpoint of passing the time. It is not evaluated as something surprising if some of the motivators had stronger impact on the individual’s motivation in past (in previous years or even decades of the individual’s life) in comparison to the motivators efficiency perceived through the same individual at present. This fact is confirmed by many researches in the world (also by our surveys performed in 2009, 2013, and 2016). As one of many of these views, we can mention the opinion of Thomas (2009) who points out that the validity of certain motivators also changes over time, and therefore organizations need to constantly update their motivation system to answer to always changing needs of employees.
When summarizing the opinions and results of mentioned above authors and concluding this sub-chapter with a needed scientific seriousness, the most important knowledge has to be commemorated: motivation of every human being is different. The motivation of every human being is different because “while powerful and more or less universal motivators exist, every individual is different” (Hill, 2016: 4). Presented finding of Hill’s study was selected as the only one of many other authors’ identical expressions. And, although the motivation of every human being is different, this one is the same simultaneously: people (together with their children) strive to survive and be happy. However, the ways, goals, tools, directions, etc. on how to achieve these the most basic human motivations are absolutely individualistic and variable.

**Transcendental motivators**

Maslow (1968) explained the self-transcendence as a person’s ability to obtain a unitive consciousness with other human. Self-transcendence is reached when a person seeks to further a cause beyond the self and to experience a communion beyond the boundaries of the self.

Our classification of motivational tools and events, published firstly in 2007 (Blašková, 2007) and later in 2009 (Blašková & Gražulis, 2009: 293–311) consisted of six groups of the motivational tools, arrangements and events:

1. **Process motivators.** Their essence consists in systemic and systematic using the motivational accent in all of key processes of human potential development (i.e. in the process of strategic management and development; human potential planning; projecting new jobs; recruitment and selection; orientation; performance appraisal; leadership; training; etc.);

2. **Personality motivators.** Their essence consists in using the superior’s and colleagues’ personality traits, features, approaches and competences as the real motivator (i.e. their cordialness, keeping and complying with the promise, refusing the protection and protégé, etc.);

3. **Symbol motivators.** Their essence consists in using the symbolizing values which reflect a measure of appreciation and contribution of existing effort of the individual or team for organization (i.e. career, providing an important status in organization, strengthening the prestige of individuals);

4. **Intellect motivators.** Their essence consists in using the calling, instigating and helping to achieve a need for intellect self-actualization of the individual (i.e. challenges for organizational development, participation in decision making, building the conditions for inflaming a high measure of innovativeness and invention);

5. **Communication-social motivators.** Their essence consists in using all forms of motivationally performed mutual relations and interpersonal communication (i.e. work meetings, non-formal discussions, appraisal interview, motivation interview, accidental work encounters, newspaper of organization, feedback, praise, mastered communication skills);
6. **Cognitive-dynamical motivators.** Their essence consists in using the extended and maybe unusual spectrum of individually suitable tools orientated to a real integration of motivation, as a right and prompt reaction to the changes of motivational preferences and needs of the individual (i.e. decoration of the walls in office by wished color, ergonomic table and chair, etc.).

In addition to mentioned classification, at present we can also take into account the *transcendental motivators*. According to Vasiliou (2016), transcendental perspective implies that both reason and sensibility have the power to directly motivate the will to action.

Transcendental motivators cultivate the personality of individuals and move them on the level that emphasizes and builds such features and qualities as following:

- Humanism and existential interconnectivity with others;
- Deep faith in goodness and companionship;
- Selflessness, or relative, mutual selfishness;
- Creating happiness of others;
- Creating instigative future for others.

Peculiarity of these motivators is that their accomplished and expected final state is identical with ways how to reach it and apply. In other words, transcendental motivational tools, utilized by motivating persons/subjects, develop desired qualities through applying the same qualities on the side of motivated persons/objects. And, an idea is interesting and really important that it is possible to reach the transcendental motivation through applying the transcendental motivators.
Motivation in relation to organization culture

Organizational culture represents something like a personality of an organization; suitable organizational culture should be a summary of ways of behavior and acting of both an organization as a whole and its individual employees on their way to achieving strategic goals of the organization (Jahanian & Amini, 2015), as well as employees’ personal objectives (Muhtadi et al., 2013). At a general level, climate perceptions are viewed as providing a mediating link between organizational characteristics and employee attitudes, motivation, and performance (Parker et al., 2003). Organizational culture, teamwork, and organizational development have a direct and significant effect on organizational commitment (Ghorbanhosseini, 2013). For this purpose, good examples of leader behaviors may be used which may in turn effectively motivate employees to follow (Huang et al., 2008). It is clear from the above that if employees are internally consistent with the defined and real organizational culture, they also have an inner motive to act and behave in compliance with the culture of the organization based on the fact that such behavior is natural for them and the working environment suits absolutely them.

Organization culture as an important precondition of motivation


- Organizational culture is a considerable subsystem of an organization, a determinant of the effectiveness of an organization and the quality of working life of organization members.
- Organizational culture does not have an objective form of its existence. It exists in the form of essential convictions, values, standards and patterns of behavior shared by individuals within an organization. It is outwardly manifested by means of behavior and artefacts.
• Despite the fact that organizational culture only exists through individuals, it is a group phenomenon with a supra-individual nature.
• Organizational culture is a result of a learning process carried out within solving the problems of external adaptation and internal integration. It is accumulated experience of an organization, transferred in socialization process.
• As accumulated experience of an organization, transferred to individuals in socialization process, organizational culture is relatively stable. However, as a product of dynamic tendency occurring on the grounds of constant confrontation of environment’s requirements and internal possibilities of an organization, it always comprises a certain potential to change.
• The organizational culture acts as a significant element of motivation in decision-making of employees and applications to select or stay in the organization. The position of the organizational culture as motivating element gains in importance especially when there is a larger opportunity to choose employment in organizations, i.e. at a time when there are enough job offers on the market, as is the case in the present. It is also in case of individuals who possess specific work skills organizations need to obtain, but there is only a limited number of such individuals on the market.

In relation to the aforementioned facts organizational culture can be comprehended as a management component of an organization, it unifies individual levels of management and leads to a situation when organizational objectives and methods to achieve them are accepted and supported by all employees (Ohara & Cherniss, 2010), because only in such way all the employees are motivated to behave in their contextual concord not only in standard but also in crisis situations.

The existing culture in the organizations is outwardly manifested by its external elements, namely items represented by following components:
• Symbolic artefacts of material nature (including signs, logos, images, style and formal arrangement of correspondence, architecture of buildings, interior furnishings, organizational colors, promotion items, staff clothing, etc.);
• Verbal symbols (including jargon, jokes, metaphors, proverbs, slogans, stories, legends, myths, sagas, etc.);
• Symbolic behavior and actions (including customs, behavioral standards, codices, rituals, ceremonials, etc.);
• Status symbols (traditional designation of some work positions, e.g. president, inspector);
• Various titles awarded as the expression of appreciation of the employee’s work (e.g. the best employee of organization);
• Tangible means corresponding to individual, especially higher, positions (e.g. placement and furnishing of office with furniture, artistic items, plants, allocation of secretary, organization car, mobile phone, membership in clubs, visit cards, etc.).

It is possible to act on means of organizational culture relatively simply, mainly through direct measures, as they can be clearly named and are easily understood and grasped for employees. It is significantly more difficult to act on inner elements of culture, represented
by values, attitudes, and beliefs. To have them internally accepted by employees, it is not enough to use direct measures, but it is necessary to act on employees more deeply and with indirect tools. From among them, a prominent place belongs to motivation of employees, both inner (consistency between values of the employee and values of the organization (Da Silva, et al., 2010) and outer in form of stimuli (Brown, 1995), which characterizes the system of remuneration as the method of clear expression of values of the organization and a key to the understanding of culture of the organization by employees. An important role in this acting on is played especially by a direct superior of the employee, who should be in the position of the instructor of organizational culture, as well as the system of individual functions of human potential management and development, through which the suitable culture can be not only spread, but also promoted.

Clearly legible organizational culture is more and more becoming an important added value of services and products offered on the market by the organization, a determinant of relationships with business and other partners and especially a way of distinguishing the organization in the eyes of present and potential employees and a tool of management and motivation of people in the organization (Uriga & Obdržálek, 2009). However, in order to apply the said in practice it is required for top managers of organizations to start to consider the organizational culture as a real tool which can be influenced in a targeted and systematic manner (improved, motivated, cultivated, managed) and through which it is possible to assure the achievement of the required level of performance of the given organization in a long-term manner (Cagáňová et al., 2010).

Unfortunately, the organizational culture as such belongs in the perception of the management to so-called ‘soft areas’ which are relatively difficult to measure, and therefore is considered by the management of the organization to be only an extra activity which is shifted to the background in times of crisis or during bad times of the organization. However, suitable organizational culture directly affects the performance (Ogbonna & Harris, 2000; Škerlavaj et al., 2011; Rezaei, et al., 2016; etc.) and resulting financial success of organization. All studies from the past (since the eighties of the last century) until the present are linked with a common idea which attributes key importance to the organizational culture in influencing the performance. What is the organizational culture like, i.e. what is its power and content, depends on the particular organization and conditions under which it operates at the given time.

**Motivational content of organization culture**

Authors dealing with the issue of the organizational culture in general are of the opinion that suitable organizational culture contributes to long-term maintenance of organization’s performance, of engaged or motivated employees, and especially that it is the source of competitive advantage (Wilderom, Glunk & Maslowskí, 2000). This is clearly implied also by functions of organizational culture, on which authors relatively highly agree both in the past and in the present. It is also implied by the agreement in opinions that organizational culture reduces conflicts, assures continuity, intermediates and simplifies coordination and control, reduces uncertainty of employees and affects their work satisfaction and emotional
Chapter 7: Motivation in relation to organization culture

wellbeing, can be an important source of motivation and is a competitive advantage (Lukášová, 2010). A survey completed by the organization Armstrong Competence Consulting in 2009 showed that as much as one fifth of performance of employees can be explained by differences in organizational culture.

The aforementioned implies that it is necessary for an organization to ensure concordance, or, the greatest possible intersection between the values declared within the sustainable development concept, values enforced by an organization, and the values of its employees. In order to be able to achieve the greatest possible extent of concordance between human resources in an organization and desirable elements of organizational culture declared by an organization, it is necessary to interconnect activities within individual functions of human potential management and development with required values, approaches, and behavior at work (Stachová & Kachaňáková, 2011). We can claim on the grounds of the above that there is an important mutual influence between the content and power of the organizational culture in the organization and the level of motivation of organization’s employees to act and make effort for the benefit of the organization.

Values, objectives and intentions in organization culture

The basic task of both the postmodern management and the concepts of sustainable development and ‘shared value’ is to identify the performance with morality. As Branson puts it: “Ethics is not an important part of business, but forms its substance,” (2009). It is important to assure that “achieving the performance is not considered more important than following the rules,” (General Electric, 1993, In: Hroník, 2012). However, this task can be achieved only with the precondition that the behavior of employees is based on and corresponds to their own attitudes, which will be in compliance both with their own values and values of the organization and that such values will be ‘right’. That requires dealing with the system of values and standards employees of the organization would actually accept and would be manifested in their behavior as well as in the expectation of such behavior from other including new employees. Even though their presence is mainly natural and depends on people’s wishes, the management should influence them in relationship to objectives of the organization.

Whereas the individual value system of a person determines what is significant for him or her personally, organizational values express to what important is attached in the organization as the whole. According to e.g. Hofstede (1994), Hall (1995), Kachaňáková (2010), Lukášová (2010), Hroník (2012b), Muller et al. (2013), organizational values form the core or roots of the organizational culture. Formulation of key values and their communication to employees is therefore an important tool of building the culture of the organization. Defining values in the organization was characterized by Jack & Suzy Welch (2007) as the: “description of acting of the best employees on their best days.” Values of the organization should not represent only some extra addition or ‘icing on the cake’, but should be roots in the organization.
Change and anchor of organization culture

When an organization decides to focus on organizational culture and on its positive adjustment, supporting sustainable development of an organization in accordance with a vision and objectives of an organization, it is desirable to follow several steps, within which three levels necessary in the process of creating a suitable culture should be fulfilled (Cooper et al., 2001; Lukášová, Nový et al., 2004; Schein 2009).

Justification of the organizational culture and its influence on the motivation, performance, profitability and sustainability of an organization was and has been permanently confirmed by world-recognized authors (e.g. Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Hofstede, 1991; Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Pfeifer & Umlaufová, 1993; Buckingham & Coffman, 1999; Lencioni, 2002; Kachaňáková, 2003, 2010; Lukášová & Nový, 2004; Denison, 2006; Hofstede & Hofstede, 2007; Kotter & Rathgeber, 2008; Lukášová, 2010; Cagaňová et al., 2012; and many others). The above implies that focus of organizations on creation or support of suitable, desirable, supporting or positive organizational culture is necessary, because same as it is proved that suitable organizational culture supports the organization in the context with its sustainable development concept. It is also proved that unsuitable organizational culture prevents its progress.

It is therefore of priority importance for that managers or the management of the organization to succeed in determining what culture is the most suitable for the particular organization and subsequently to be able to achieve the ‘popularization’ of such suitable culture in the organization to a level where employees would not be forced to adjust their behavioral values to cultural values in the organization, but where consistency between such two sets of values would be achieved. It is this state of consistency between the values of the organization and values of employees which can be deemed an ideal state, when the organizational culture in itself is considered to be competitive advantage. In order for the managers to succeed in determining which culture is suitable for the organization, i.e. the most suitable, it is necessary to complexly analyze the present state of culture in the organization and to continue further only on the grounds of analysis results (Stachová & Stacho, 2013).

An impulse for the analysis of organization culture can be on the one hand the realization of justification of the organizational culture by the management with regard to the achievement of organization’s sustainable development, but also for instance:

- The fact that the established culture does not correspond with changed conditions in the environment;
- The fact that there is a non-compliance between the established organizational culture and strategically necessary culture (e.g. in case of change of the vision, mission, objectives, strategy);
- The fact that the organization passes from one development phase into the next;
- The fact that there is a major change of the organization’s size;
- The fact that there is a substantial change in the scope of business activity, the position of the organization on the market is changing;
- The fact there is a merger or takeover of the organization;
• The fact that the organization changes because technology or the business environment changes, or the change is expected from them (Deal & Kennedy, 1988; Williams, Dobson & Walters, 1993; Pfeifer & Umlaufová, 1993; Šigut, 2004; Lukášová, 2010; Kachaňáková, 2011).

The process of formation of the suitable organizational culture, which generally expresses the sequence of individual steps, can be expressed by various schematic models. One of the first was the Lewin’s three-stage model of organizational culture change (1947), which was later elaborated by E. Schein (1999). The nine-step model of Lukášová, Nový et al. (2004) is also clearly transparent, as well as 6-step process of Sackmann (2002) and the D–V–Z methodology, which was defined by authors Pfeifer and Umlaufová (1993) for the purpose of creation of the suitable organizational culture. Several various step-by-step processes, methodologies and schemes can be found in literature for the formation of suitable or desirable organizational culture, but despite they differ in scope, height, width and depth, it is possible to point out a certain parallel of three levels of the process of formation of the suitable organizational culture in all of them, namely:

1. Level of understanding;
2. Level of directing;
3. Level of implementing or anchoring.

An idea is very important that the process of building or re-building the organizational culture is based on sufficient level (strength) and quality (orientation and content) of the motivation of managers and employees.

**Selected processes of human potential development in context of motivating and organization culture**

Regarding the achievement of a required state of organizational culture change, encouraging organization sustainable development, authors like Lukášová, Nový et al. (2004), Kotter & Rathgeber (2006), Welch & Welch (2007), Armstrong (2009), Koubek (2011), Covey (2013), etc., state that there are several factors having a significant impact on success, or a failure of the whole process of creating a suitable organizational culture, as well as several instruments appropriate in order to support the implementation of a suitable organizational culture. Selected human potential management and development processes/functions are declared by Hroník (2013), Stachová & Stacho (2013) and Kachaňáková & Stachová (2014) as both significant factors and essential instruments for achieving the objectives of a process of changing a culture. However, as Lukášová (2010) presents, none of the human potential development processes has such a significant impact itself, i.e. without a relation and interconnection with other processes. All activities carried out within human potential management and development have an effect in relation to culture, and each of them can be a critical element in the process of organizational culture change, however in isolation their effects are limited by the present culture. They can thus work as instruments of change only in case they will represent an integrated group focused on the promotion and implementation of suitable ways of behavior of employees, compliant with the orientation of culture and...
strategic goals of an organization, supported by appropriately declared desirable approaches and values.

The aim is to achieve that all employees perceive the organization as successful in the context with sustainable socially responsible business practice with priority focus on the social pillar, i.e. as the organization which employees associate their objectives, desires and ambitions with, whereas it is a set of relatively permanent (developed and maintained on a long-term basis) ideas, approaches and values shared within the organization. It is primarily about people having the opportunity to perform work which they are qualified for, which they like and which satisfies them, because they perform it in pleasant environment and thus achieve above-standard results, from which both the organization and they profit. Their motivation, participation in organizational intentions, energizing, ability and willingness to engage for the organization (Barták, 2010) all stem from it.

**Job analysis in context of motivating and organization culture**

Job analysis is generally a systematic process of collecting and evaluating data about the nature of individual works (work activity), (Urban, 2009). Job analysis provides the image of work on such job positions and thus creates the idea of the employee who should work on such job position (Koubek, 2011). Job analysis is a process where information about the nature, content and requirements of particular job positions in the organization are collected, sorted and analyzed. Work and job positions must be analyzed before other activities of human resources management can be performed (Bajzíková et al., 2013). The aim of the job analysis is to obtain information about tasks, methods, duties, rights and links to other horizontally and diagonally connected jobs within the organizational structure and also to obtain information about the need and level of physical and mental disposition of employee who will perform the work in question. Obtained information must be subsequently assessed from the perspective of current needs and strategy of the organization and also from the perspective of present technologies, which can make the work significantly easier for the employee but also reduce the time demand of the work. Obtained information must be summarized in form of job description and specification of requirements for the employee and their implementation should be assured (Stachová & Stacho, 2013).

There are several methods for the performance of job analysis. Main criteria for the selection of one of them is the purpose for which the analysis is to be used, its efficiency in obtaining the required data, level of expertise necessary to process the analysis, achievability of sources and time demand for the performance of the analysis (Armstrong, 2002). Basic job analysis methods include method of procedure analysis, interview, questionnaire, observation, control records, assessment scales, logs or diaries (Kocianová, 2010). According to Hroník (2007), the most frequently used tool in the past was the ‘professiogram’ and ‘work catalogues’. Currently used methods include screening of work, time and movement studies, assessment of functional post job, etc.

Justification of the job analysis is based especially on the fact that it is a *cross-cutting function* of human potential management and development, which means that it directly influences the creation of organizational structure and subsequent human potential planning.
in the organization. It forms the basis for the determination of criteria for hiring and selection of employees. It significantly influences following adaptation of employees, especially to working and social conditions, when the employee is informed on the grounds of such job analysis about all future colleagues, not only the closest ones (Stachová & Stacho, 2012).

The job analysis plays a considerable role in education of employees, especially in case a new technology that can make the work for the employee easier. Last but not least, the job analysis plays an important role also in the creation of safe working conditions and ergonomic environment, because it is the complex of conditions affecting person in the working process that influences that person’s performance. As Vetráková et al. point out (2001): “Job analysis is a necessary precondition for majority of key HR processes.” It results from the above that if the job analysis is not prepared, or is prepared inconsistently, or is being prepared within a longer time interval, there occur serious problems in all areas of human potential management and development.

Its interconnection and mutual influence with the organizational culture and motivating of employees results especially from the position of the job analysis as a supportive function of human potential development. Outputs from the job analysis should make clear what values, attitudes, ways of acting and behavior are expected from the employee performing the job in question and also what tools, space equipment and status symbols belong to that job position. We can claim that the extended spectrum of outputs/documents resulting from the job analysis, i.e. job description, specification of requirements for the job, norms of manual and/or mental work, competence models and also many other obtained information form a basis of information which serve for the organization (to know the content of the job, improvement of the working environment), for the employee adapting to the job, for the employee applying to the job, for employee adapting to another job position (by recognizing status symbols s/he knows how to behave towards the employee having the job and also knows the position within the organizational structure) and last but not least, properly utilized job analysis has a motivating effect on the employee working on the job position, because its objective is to improve the working environment and adequate working environment is a cardinal factor in motivation of the employee. Motivational accent of these outputs builds the future effectiveness of all jobs done in the organization.

Information in context of motivating and organization culture

Justification and influence of the job analysis thus rests both in the suitable and complex job position analysis and in correct drawing of conclusions from the analysis of obtained information. Information having a direct influence on the motivation of the employee and organizational culture is with priority information from the areas of competences of the employee of analyzed job, working tools and environment in which the employee works. It is therefore necessary to focus within the job analysis in the context of said two areas to the following activities (findings).

It is necessary to find out whether and how many employees the senior employee (manager) working at the given job position leads, or has at least partial or secondary influence on, because manager should be identified with values of the organization not only
on the outside but also internally (Fatehi & Veliyath, 2006; Lee, 2015), and should act and behave in line with them permanently, because s/he is the example for subordinates and has the possibility and should also have the ability to influence and motivate them to good performance.

It is necessary to find out what contacts and at which level are expected from the employee at the analyzed job position with other people and divisions in the organization as well as with other organizations, because regardless of whether those contacts are personal or made through some kind of medium (email, telephone call, videoconference, etc.). Their common denominator is language as a natural tool of communication. Language can be designated as a decisive tool for mediating standards and values of organizational culture, what has direct impact on the level of formality or informality of work relations (standard of behavior: form of addressing, using position/title/surname/name/nickname, usage of language expressions – jargon, jokes, metaphors, slogans), but also on the content of rendered information (Vegiayan et al., 2013), (provision of information about acknowledged values, attitudes, behavior, heroes, legends...).

The form of contact of the employee at the given job with other persons determines also motivational symbolic artefacts of material nature s/he uses for it. They are in this case for instance formal arrangement of correspondence, visit cards, promotion materials, clothing of the employee, equipment of office (possibility to receive visits or call meetings, computer, telephone, projector, camera, etc.). The position of persons which the employee at the analyzed job communicates with also determines what status symbols of the organizational culture the said employee should have.

It is necessary to find out whether the work requires usage of some machine, instrument or equipment. For this purpose it is again necessary to focus on what symbolic artefacts of material nature and status symbols the employee uses in the course of work. However, in this case we look on tools from the perspective of their functionality, performance, quality and also external appearance, with which especially employees working outdoors represent the organization outwardly (i.e. clothing, work safety outside the framework of statutory occupational health and safety, logo of the organization on used machines and equipment, or usage of generally recognized top quality, ergonomic and ecologic brands, etc.).

It is necessary to find out what are the unpleasant physical obligations arising from the performance of the analyzed job. If the organization knows about such positions, it can set as one of its values e.g. customer and employee care. If it subsequently manifests this value in its behavior to its own employees and cares about them, whether with ergonomic actions (Dragcevic et al. 2011; Pauluk & Michaloski, 2016), or by minimizing the time they need to spend in such work, or provides other benefits for such employees, such as above-standard healthcare, treatment or spa vacations, it gives out a signal about positively set organizational culture both inside and outside the organization. Such positive behavior subsequently has a direct influence on the satisfaction, loyalty and degree of motivation of current employees, influence on the number and quality of job applicants and also on present and potential customers who achieve trust in the value declared by the organization, which presents the customer and employee care, on the grounds of their positive experience.
Recruitment in context of motivating and organization culture

The interconnection of employee recruitment and organizational culture results directly from the key objectives of employee recruitment as defined by Foot & Hook (2002), i.e. to recruit a number of suitable candidates for vacant positions; not only to declare but also adopt fair practices; to ensure that individual employee recruitment activities contribute to organization objectives and its desirable image; and to carry out recruitment in an efficient and cost-effective way.

The mentioned ideas imply that employee recruitment should not only respect ethical and legal values of a country where the touched organization operates but should concurrently outwardly declare the values, visions and objectives of the organization so as to attract potential applicants for a position as well as other stakeholders (Urbancová, Stachová & Stacho, 2015).

Each organization should make efforts to recruit suitable labor potential. Labor potential not only includes a number of employees but also their knowledge, abilities, skills, intelligence, talent and personal characteristics necessary to fulfill the objectives and mission set out by an organization (Gyurák Babeľová, 2011; Pavlendová & Šujanová, 2011; Cagáňová et al., 2012; Dries, 2013; Hilliard, 2013; Walker, 2013). Recruitment of such employees is therefore among the key and permanent activities of human potential development. The term ‘employee recruitment’ (i.e. not the customary usage of terms ‘search and hiring’) means that it does not only refer to hiring necessary employees from external sources but there is an effort made to gain employees representing a greater asset for an organization, its interests and objectives. There is an effort made to gain competent and motivated employees whose individual goals and interests do not contradict a value system and culture of their organization. They can thus also include own, stabilized employees who have demonstrated their qualities at work (Kachaňáková et al., 2002; Stacho et al., 2013). The usage of internal sources is evaluated very positively by employees, and such behavior of their organization has the strong motivating effects on them (Blašková, 2010; Vetráková et al., 2013; Hitka et al., 2014).

A particular task of employee recruitment is thus to ensure that a vacant position in an organization attracts a sufficient number of suitable applicants at adequate costs and timely, as well as to obtain adequate information on applicants, which is necessary for a reliable selection of the most suitable of them (Tempone et al., 2012; Furtmueller, 2013; Klotz et al., 2013). It is also desirable that costs incurred at employee recruitment are optimal. The amount of such costs is most significantly affected by a method chosen for this purpose. With regard to the fact that there is not a single correct method, instead, numerous methods are utilized nowadays, while each of them has positive and negative features, it is necessary that organizations make individual choices, always on the grounds of current needs (Stacho & Stachová, 2015).

Bottlenecks in motivating suitable applicants

Surveys conducted by School of Economy and Management of Public Administration in Bratislava at 239 organizations between 2010 and 2014 showed that although 100% of
organizations declare that they realize the justness of organizational culture, only 21–33% of them have defined an organizational culture strategy within their business strategy in writing. The research showed that organizations realize financial, motivational, qualification and value benefits of using internal sources upon occupying senior positions, which even increases the justness of focusing on organizational culture already upon employee recruitment also for junior positions. However, the research also indicated that cooperation with educational institutions is only very little used to recruit employees in all categories.

The given finding appears negative from the global viewpoint of a prospective possibility of young people finishing their studies at grammar schools or universities to succeed at present times, affected by the average unemployment rate: the number of the unemployed between 20 and 29 years of age was up to 28.7 % in September 2012 (Heric, 2013) and more than 25% in 2015 (Statistical office, 2016). From the viewpoint of comparison with other European countries, the average youth unemployment in 2011 in EU-27 was about 21.4%, and only the Czech Republic had a rate lower than this. Poland’s youth unemployment and Hungary was on the level of about 26% (Council of Europe, 2011), as these applicants often enter the labor market without any prior practical experience.

The greatest deficiency is perceived in this sphere, even though satisfying results in the method focused on active cooperation of work sphere and schools can be achieved even at low costs, as many grammar schools and universities are currently trying to establish cooperation with organizations where their students can gain practical experience. On the other hand, room is opening for organizations to choose, get to know and gain the most prospective students, whom they are able to try in practice, train already during their studies, and offer them a position after completing their studies. Trained student will know the touched employees and will know the concrete organization and its desirable organizational culture, promoted values, approaches, and behavior. This will save organization’s financial costs of not only the selection and recruitment of the considered employee but also his or her adaptation. The given clearly indicates that it is necessary to focus on both organizational culture and employee recruitment separately and possibilities how to mutually influence one another positively.

The mentioned inspirations are also confirmed by the results of a research conducted by the Business Alliance of Slovakia (BAS), which pointed to ‘vocational schools unlinked with practice’ as the fifth greatest competitive disadvantage of Slovakia (Hajko, 2011).

Motivational content of recruitment in context of organization culture

The mutual influence of employee recruitment and organizational culture is based on the fact that addressing of potential applicants occurs with organization presentation and information flow inside but especially outside the given organization. Stakeholders’ approach towards their organization is influenced at any presentation of the organization. The key objective of employee recruitment in context with organizational culture should be to recruit employees with similar value orientation, including preconditions for identifying themselves with organizational culture. Achievement of this objective can be influenced by the following activities (Stachová, 2015):
Chapter 7: Motivation in relation to organization culture

1. **Profiling of potential employees.** On the grounds of declared information, applicants have a possibility to decide whether an organization is attractive enough for them to be willing to actively consider the submission of job application, i.e. they are willing and able to work in the organization and identify themselves with its values, approaches, and behavior.

2. **Advertising of a vacant position.** By means of defining the criteria and requirements for employees, an organization both advertises a vacant position and presents what values, ways of behaviors and approaches it considers to be proper and desirable, i.e. it presents the elements of its organizational culture.

3. **Application of values declared by an organization, also during the selection and recruitment of employees.** Non-application of declared values has secondarily unfavorable effects on employees, as they also lose their trust in other values declared by the organization. There is also a great probability that, based on a group of applicants advancing to employee selection, these selection criteria will be revealed, while these ones do not even have to be legally challenged, however the organization loses trust of the public in its values. On the other hand, application of declared values can significantly increase the trust of both employees and customers of the organization.

4. **Following organizational tradition.** If an organization has a tradition of educating its own employees, i.e. recruiting employees at senior positions from internal sources, and if suitable conditions for career growth and training are created in the organization, it is perceived very positively by both internal employees and possible, especially young applicants, who can relate their professional career to the organization. It significantly increases their motivation to identify themselves with the values, standards of behavior, and approaches declared as desirable.

5. **Addressing of suitable applicants.** If an organization addresses applicants who do not agree with the values, approaches and behavior declared by an organization, it can result in prolonging the time of employee selection (organization needs to select from a greater number of applicants) in a better case, or it can result in disturbing a working team or in unsatisfactory employee adaptation (if the disagreement with organizational culture is not revealed during selection) in a worse case.

6. **Harmonize the sources of employees with suitable organizational culture.** If the organization wants to support and maintain the present culture in a phase of organization growth, it is also desirable to recruit internal employees in newly established teams and departments, as they are identified with the culture and can be a model of behavior for other new employees recruited from external sources. The same result can be achieved by recruiting employees from external sources, however on the grounds of recommendations of internal employees. There is thus a high probability of their awareness and easy identification with values, approaches and behavior of an organization. If the organization wants to support the implementation of a new and changed organizational culture, it is desirable to recruit employees from external sources who agree with the newly implemented culture. However they at the same time agree with the former culture and leadership skills (especially an ability to persuade people...
from the viewpoint of natural authority). Such a combination is necessary, if a new employee is to be able to create so called ‘islands of positive deviation’.

7. **Refuse tactfully and ‘tactically’**. Preliminary selection and classification of applicants take place already during employee recruitment from the viewpoint of satisfying, or, in this step unsatisfying requirements imposed on the considered position (selection in terms of ‘who not’), which indicates that some applicants are already rejected within recruitment. It is necessary to realize that most applicants will remain in the same, or similar, or closely related sphere, or sector as the organization carrying out recruitment. Such a rejected applicant can subsequently get a job position in other organization at which s/he will decide on providing, or, accepting a cooperation with an organization which rejected him or her as an applicant before, or will have a different impact on the quality of such potential cooperation. The position of customer as a bearer of information on organization and its behavior to rejected applicant is essential. For the given reasons, it is necessary to focus on this activity as not marginal.

It flows from the mentioned above list that activities carried out within the employee recruitment process have a significant impact on motivation and declaring organizational culture, and at the same time they play a significant role in implementing a new and changed organizational culture, supporting sustainable organization’s development (Stachová, 2015).

**Selection in context of motivating and organization culture**

The purpose of employee selection is to distinguish what applicants included in the recruitment process, after succeeding in pre-selection, will most likely not only meet the requirements for the considered position but also contribute to the creation of interpersonal relations in both the concerned working group and in the organization as a whole. On the other hand it is necessary to find out whether the job and environment will be sufficiently suitable and motivating towards good work results and willingness to stay in organization. From the viewpoint of organization, it is also necessary to determine what applicants will be able to accept the values of the concerned working group, department and organization as a whole, and to contribute to the creation of a desired team and organizational culture (Armstrong, 2009; Koubek, 2011; Blašková, 2011; Kachaňáková & Stasiak-Betlejewska, 2013; Bajžiková et al., 2013; Stachová, 2013a; Stacho & Stachová, 2015). It is also important for the employee to be sufficiently flexible and to have a growth potential so s/he will be able to adjust to supposed changes in the work position, changes inside the work group and also changes considering the whole organization (Koubek, 2004).

The aforementioned indicates the importance of the fact that along with the capacity and ability to hold the given position, an applicant should also meet so-called contextual criteria. Through these ones, the hiring party needs to consider whether an applicant meets the requirements resulting from the specificity of particular working groups (whether an applicant has the characteristics requested for efficient cooperation in such groups, whether s/he has the characteristics that may lead to disruptions to a well-functioning working group which s/he is about to join) and, as already mentioned above, whether an applicant will contribute to the creation of the desirable culture of the organization (Lukášová, 2010). The
importance of focusing on contextual suitability increases with placing the job position in an organizational hierarchy, as the higher-ranked the position to be occupied, the more often its incumbent will represent organizational culture, i.e. they will considerably affect the culture of the organization.

Employees’ identification with culture of the organization, or as states Čambál to get with the culture into a ‘state of match’ (Čambál, 2007), is very important because in the opposite case it may, and often will, cause leave of the employee or at least forced abideance of the employee on the current position, mostly because of financial reasons. Consequently this creates financial costs for the organization, funds that need to be either spent on repeated hiring of a new employee or to be spent on motivating of the current employee towards desired behavior in form of financial motivators. State of match, between the system of values inside organization and system of values of the employee, poses ideal state where these systems of values are either similar to each other or they coincide. This means that behavior patterns are understood by the employee and there is an assumption that these patterns will be accepted based on identified attitudes, because they allow him or her to behave in accordance with their own values. In this case, atmosphere of the organization has motivational influence and employee voluntarily submits to its course and actively participates on achieving the goals because his or hers own goals are being achieved in the same time.

Selection process as a predictor of selection’s motivation of both interested sides

Employee selection is a decision-making process whose purpose is, based on gathered information about applicants and their analysis, to consider and in final phase also choose the best suitable candidate with the best preconditions for carrying out the work successfully (Kachaháková et al., 2011) and in the same time to choose a person that will feel satisfied and happy inside the specific organization. In such situation, s/he will be motivated to stay within the organization as long as possible and to achieve desired, or higher than desired, work performance. Whether or not and how will organization handle this process will not be revealed until the very last step of selection process, which is the selection process’ evaluation (process/procedural feedback).

It is possible to mark a few areas as a bottleneck of employee selection process in the suitability context of selection of motivated employees. First area is the very organization of selection process itself because, based on procedure, readiness and level of professionality of employees performing the selection, the applicant creates his or her image of organization. Concretely, the applicant acquire the picture about/from material artifacts (premises where the selection takes place, interior equipment, materials that are being provided to him or her by the organization, clothing of employees, etc.), as well as about verbal symbols (language terms used by employees during communication with applicants and with each other, stories or experiences that are mediated to the applicants either within presentation of the organization or from the materials available for the selection process, etc.).

During the selection process, applicants also gain overview about behavior and actions inside the organization, as for example about norms of behavior and also about status
symbols used inside organization. If the selection process is unprepared (in terms of time and materials); the premise in which it takes place is unrepresentative; the employee performing the process is incompetent to provide applicants with required information; there is a high probability that organization acts towards its employees as much perfunctorily and incompletely. And from this points of view, organization becomes unattractive employer for the applicant and s/he does not have motivation, and often neither opportunity (due to the unpreparedness of the selection process), to manifest his or hers positives and preconditions for performing the work position.

In the context of quality of selection process it is needed to focus on the quality and suitability of the use of each individual selection methods, based on which it is possible to reveal not only work skills of the applicant, but also elements of the organizations’ culture preferred by the applicant as well as level of his or hers motivation to work.

While from references it is possible to assume what will the employee do and how will s/he behave based on what s/he has already done (how his or her previous employer and colleagues perceived his or her actions, and what values are basis for his or her attitudes that serve as basis for his or her behavior and motivation), from interview with the applicant it is possible to find out his/her true values. It is a space for determining the extent of match of value orientation of the applicant and of the organization, or of the work group of employees in which s/he will possibly be supposed to work in future (it is necessary that the key interview is attended by at least superior employee of the work group, however it is appropriate for a common member of the work group to also be a part of selection). Based on above and applicant’s reaction on past and his or her description of vision of future, the organization’s representatives can also assume level of values match.

From applying the questionnaire techniques, it is possible to quite unambiguously determine what kind of organization’s culture is preferred by the applicant. The oldest and the most standard questionnaire created and used for this purpose till this day is Dr. Roger Harrison’s questionnaire. Lukášová (2010) for this purpose recommends tool P – O fit, which analyzes accordance between personality of an individual and culture of the organization.

By using case studies and role-playing methods, evaluators can put the candidate in a certain decision-making position and based on applicant’s proposed and explained rationale of the solution it is possible to judge whether the values and attitudes declared by the applicant in his or her speech are in accordance with his or her behavior.

The right choice about a ‘winner’ poses a very important bottleneck during the selection process. While in terms of expertise, disinterestedness and complexity it is appropriate that the applicant is being reviewed by a number of evaluators and that more selection methods are used, in terms of ‘s/he is ours, s/he resembles us’ it is necessary that the applicant is in the final round (selection in sense – who meets the majority of specified requirements and expectations) being chosen by a direct superior, or team of employees which s/he will become part of.

The other bottleneck in selection process is a need to motivate selected applicant so s/he would not reconsider his or her decision to work for the organization, or so s/he would not prioritize other organization (in case there is a longer period of time between the end of
selection procedure and entry into employment, for example applicant’s three month long notice period; or in case the specific applicant was successful on several interviews), and also so s/he starts gradually and fully identify with the organization. The faster this change occurs in the head of a new employee, the faster and simpler the orientation will be. Once the selection is completed it is desirable to also maintain contact with applicants who have not succeeded in the selection procedure, because on the one hand this means the building of database of possible candidates for the future jobs who were already judged by the organization, and on the other hand, it is likely that rejected applicants can later become business partners or customers of the organization.

A fact is very important that the same way organization searches for the most suitable applicant, the same way applicant searches for the most suitable organization. It is hence necessary to base the entire recruitment and employee selection process on the aforementioned pattern. The higher the position, or the more important position for the organization is being filled, the smaller the role of wage from the perspective of the applicant, due to fact that almost every organization that is interested in the specific profession is able to provide similar wage. Much more important role is being played by the motivation, or that the ‘soft’ what organization can provide and what organization is in the eye of applicant.

**Orientation in context of motivating and organization culture**

Orientation can generally be understood as a process of active adaptation of people to living conditions and their changes (Remišová, & Búcová, 2012; Závadský et al., 2015). Social aspects of work, relationships with co-workers and the feeling of belonging in a work environment are important for everybody, as they result in achieving devotion and stability already from the first moment, or, on the contrary, they can result in demotivation or dissatisfaction resulting from the lack of information and worries about coping with work assignments.

It is important that the orientation process is carried out at all three necessary (adaptive) levels. Firstly, at the level of performance orientation, it is necessary to provide an introductory training of employees with regard to the whole formation of their abilities according to business needs and specify definitely the allocation of a new employee at a ‘right’ position (Papula & Volná, 2012). Secondly, it is necessary at the level of social orientation to incorporate employees in the existing system of human relationships at workplaces and in organizations (Kachaňáková et al., 2011; Maloney & Stanford, 2011; Stacho & Stasiak-Betlejewska, 2014). At the third – habitual – level, which is adaptation of employees to organizational culture and total orientation in the culture, it is necessary to help new employees orientate in the existing social standards, standards of acting and behavior, recognized values as well as status symbols and other means and remarkable elements of organizational culture, aiming at employee’s identification with them, or adaptation to them, in the greatest possible extent.
Motivational focus on adaptation to organization culture in orientation

An effort in trying to mediate and help in adopting existing organization culture should be necessary focused on the following activities and procedures (Stachová, 2015):

- **Guiding an employee in the orientation process about organization’s premises.** Presentation of the premises of an organization and related material artefacts is not only necessary from the viewpoint of employee’s orientation in an organization (Rosse & Hulin, 1985) but also from the viewpoint of organizational culture, as it first of all includes the employee’s recognition of individual artefacts used by an organization, like the size and placement of logo, colors used in an organization and its premises. Office equipment also reflects how an organization appreciates its employees, or, how it takes care of them. Employees also obtain a picture of required or traditional clothing of employees. Due to the fact that as well as all symbols, also the symbols of material character tend to have a multiple meaning (Ornstein, 1998; Van Wijk & Finchilescu; 2008, Morrison, 2011; Berlin & Carlström, 2015), it is appropriate that their actual meanings are presented to new employees (e.g. explanation of a reason why some employees within a working team sit in an open office and others do not, or, why some of them wear formal corporate wear while others do not).

- **Explaining the organizational structure to an employee.** Familiarization with an organizational structure in terms of organizational culture is crucial from two viewpoints. The viewpoint of an employee and their realization of their position or status within their organization as a whole and resulting formal relationships on the one hand, and familiarization with an organizational structure, primarily leading representatives, is important from the viewpoint of the image of an organization on the other hand. (Newly hired employees are frequently asked about their satisfaction, position and management of their organization by their environment especially shortly after starting at a new position).

- **Communicating the characteristics of status symbols attributed to individual levels of management.** The need of new employees to become familiar with status symbols results directly from their nature, i.e. the fact that they suggest, or, should suggest who new employees are encountering, thus suggesting a corresponding way of behavior and eliminating or reducing possible misunderstandings and conflicts. They at the same time support the identification of employees with their organization.

- **Explaining the desirable behavior and acting to an employee.** Awareness of causes of individual standards of behavior and acting in an organization and their understanding (e.g. formal or informal address; address according to a position, title, surname, name; the position of women/men, etc.) is necessary in order for new employees to adapt (Lindsley, 1999; Van Wijk & Finchilescu, 2008). The rules of behavior are typically non-written however they are a matter of course for employees and their non-fulfillment can even be punished in some cases. Awareness of individual habits, rituals or ceremonials (e.g. birthday or promotion celebrations or
welcoming of new employees in a team) and participation in them can make social adaptation of new employees significantly easier.

- **Presenting the history, strategy, code of ethics, the founder and heroes of organization to an employee.** Based on knowledge on the organization history or a story related to it, an employee in the orientation process can fully understand the roots of values supported by an organization (Preston, 1993; Lindsley, 1999). From such stories, legends and myths, employees obtain quite complex information on what attitudes and ways of behavior are considered to be correct and rewarded by the members of their organization and which are perceived as inappropriate and unacceptable. If an employee knows ‘a hero’, best personally, it means s/he knows the model of behavior and the bearer of values in the organization.

- **Performing the key impact and responsibility of direct superior in orientation.** Superiors should monitor the quality of an orientation process of an employee (Wojcik et al. 2015), should participate in it whether actively or from the supervisor position, and last but not least, they should be a model for such employees, i.e. their behavior should correspond to the values, attitudes and ways of behavior supported by the organization.

- **Applying the individual approach towards the employee in orientation.** The length of adaptation of employees to organization cultures and achieving a full orientation in organization cultures differ. This is affected by the ability of an employee to perceive such a type of information and transform it in their behavior, types of cultures they have experienced before (in both working and private lives), and the level of their own compliance or non-compliance with a new organizational culture.

### Orientation as motivational predictor or decision-making

It is the period of orientation that provides the biggest space for informing employees about objectives, intentions, content of organizational culture and about the organization as a whole, when such information can be provided by human resources/potential department as well as by direct superior, and when there should be officially reserved time for this purpose within the orientation. Only an informed employee can fully understand the reason and significance of his or her work and environment s/he works in, which directly affects his/her motivation to perform his/her work with quality and to approach it in a responsible and engaged manner.

Employee can clearly recognize already during the orientation what approach or method the superior uses, in what way s/he communicates with the employee and with what motivating or demotivating tools s/he acts on his/her performance. The employee can on the grounds of that assess whether the approach of the superior suits him/her and whether s/he will be under his/her leadership willing, able and motivated to fulfil requirements of the organization. It is because the superior’s approach and manner and content of his/her communication (quality of shared information) are directly related with the motivation to achieve high quality of work, willingness to learn and with quality and quantity of submitted proposals.
The employee should be also informed during the orientation period about factors his/her superior will take into account in his/her appraisal and subsequent remuneration, on the grounds of which the employee will be able to determine whether such factors are acceptable for him/her and whether s/he will be able and motivated to fulfil them. And, the employee learns during the orientation period also about the working environment, in which s/he should work, which is another important element of motivation or demotivation to remain in the specific environment.

The need to focus on employee orientation also results from the fact that starting a new job ranks among the most stressful life events. Unfortunately, orientation is frequently an underestimated sphere of human potential development, although it has a direct and significant impact on the result and success of recruiting and selection of employees, which are typically paid much greater attention (Stýblo et al., 2009). However if a new employee leaves an organization as a result of unsuccessful orientation, it always results in significant costs of such organization. As Armstrong (2009) points out in his Handbook of Human Resource Management Practice: “In case of losing a specialists, costs can represent up to 75% of their yearly pay. Such costs can amount to 50% of the pay in case of an auxiliary. If fifteen out of a hundred employees with an average yearly pay in the amount of EUR 12,500 leave an organization, the overall costs can amount to EUR 90,000, i.e. 7.5% of the overall labor costs,” (Armstrong, 2009). There is a need to ensure a quick adaptation to all aspects of a new position. Organizations can thus contribute to stability and satisfaction of employees from their first working day and reduce the level of fluctuation which frequently occurs shortly after starting a new job and results in unnecessary financial costs of the organization (Stachová, 2015).

**Appraisal in context to motivating and organization culture**

The work performance appraisal reveals the actual state of the work potential of the organization as well as possibilities of its better utilization. If there is an effective system of appraisal existing in the organization that is acceptable for all parties, such procedures of employees can be supported that are positively appraised not only from the perspective of performance of employees but also from the perspective of organization culture. This assumes with priority an objective selection of appraisal criteria and methods which can then become a tool of line manager for directing behavior and actions of employees and also for motivating employees. The existence of a strong organization culture means extension of rules and standards of expected behavior of employees into criteria for their appraisal, which prevents also conflicts related to their appraisal. At the same time, it supports the motivation of employees’ acting in compliance with set criteria and thus in compliance with the set organizational culture.

On the grounds of a complex informing of employees about appraisal criteria, it is possible to achieve desirable behavior of employees, not only in the context of strengthening the organizational culture but also in the context of change and implementation of new patterns of behavior, standards, attitudes, and values of the organization. That is because appraised employees are complexly informed in advance about all attributes, obligations,
values, standards, required behavior and expected results that will be subject to appraisal. Employees are in such case able to adapt their efforts to appraisal criteria and achieve even above-average results. Organizations should have the appraisal of employees incorporated in individual means of the organizational culture, especially in relation to remuneration and motivation (Stachová & Stacho, 2013a).

Culture function of appraisal
The work performance appraisal has a significant impact on the organizational culture and also on the motivation of employees in strengthening the desirable organizational culture as well as in the change of the same. This significance arises from the substance and aim of the motivating and cultural function of the performance appraisal which is about employees knowing what is right, and subsequent evaluation to what extent their behavior and actions correspond with or differ from the required result (Stachová & Stacho, 2014). The consequence is that employees are motivated to behave in compliance with both working and value requirements of the organization, to have the outcome of the appraisal positive. Such behavior, controlled and appraised on the first sight, has from a long-term perspective positive impact on fixation and identification with procedures and manners of behavior of employees (Stachová & Kachaňáková, 2011).

Also on the grounds of the above it is therefore necessary to complexly focus on the work performance appraisal in the context with its impact on the organizational culture and motivation of employees to act in compliance with it. It is necessary to focus in the appraisal on the level of compliance between actual behavior of employees and required behavior declared by elements of the organizational culture, and that on two levels. On the first, backward-oriented level, it is focused on remunerating the employee for desirable behavior, or on drawing consequences or pointing out the consequences in case the employee fails to change his/her behavior to a desirable one. On the second, future-oriented level, the appraisal should in the context with the organizational culture serve as a predictor of needs of training, management and career planning, or else as the method to find talents within the internal environment.

In order to determine suitable criteria and appraisal methods, it is necessary to know the orientation of culture the organization prefers. Both supporting and suppressing expressions, values and standards of employees’ behavior that are desirable to be appraised can be subsequently determined on its grounds. Under the present market conditions, organizations are most often oriented to the customer, innovations, results and quality, team work, market, and products.

The most preferred challenge of the present is the transition from product orientation to market orientation which includes also the orientation to the customer and quality of products and services, what is the priority focus of orientation to quality. This means that the overall and systematic orientation to innovations, which is aimed at assuring adaptability and flexibility, is becoming necessary. As Lukášová (2010) stated, if the organization wishes to keep or to build market culture, the key feature of which is competitiveness and focus on result, it needs a system of values thoroughly based on the measurement and evaluation of
results. If the organization wishes to assure primarily a trouble-free and smooth running of set processes, or if it strives for the culture oriented on the compliance with rules, low costs, reliability of deliveries, etc., the behavior of employees must be a key criterion of the appraisal.

The ability of employees to learn and personal development should be appraised with priority in the innovative culture.

**Behavioral (cultural) aspects of performance appraisal methods**

As mentioned above, the work performance appraisal can be used for obtain information about actions and behavior of employees in the past. At the same time, this one allows learning about the current behavior of employees. However the appraisal can affect also the performance of employees in the future. It is therefore desirable to perceive appraisal methods from the perspective of their time orientation. From the spectrum of methods oriented to the past, it is suitable to use in the context with the analysis of organization culture elements especially the questionnaire technique, appraisal based on meeting standards in line with competence models, appraisal scales, and method of key events. From the spectrum of methods oriented to the present, it is suitable to use in the context with the analysis of organizational culture elements especially the mystery shopping, observation, and method of giving continuous feedback. From the spectrum of methods oriented to future, it is suitable to use the method of work objectives creation, self-assessment, and assessment center.

It is possible to work further in the context of the organizational culture on the grounds of information obtained in form of concretely utilized methods. Methods of performance appraisal oriented to the past can provide information that can be used for remuneration of employees for suitable behavior in line with desirable organizational culture and thus accentuate their behavior and fixate it in appraised employees and also motivate their colleagues to such behavior. On the grounds of information obtained from methods oriented to the present, the organization, direct superior or observing person can immediately start, or start with only minimum time shift, affecting the change of the current behavior of the employee. Information obtained from methods oriented to the future should be used for the development of employees.

Whereas it is suitable to choose either one or rather a combination of several from listed methods according to the need, there is an appraisal phenomenon that must be used always, or should form at least one of the last steps of the appraisal. That phenomenon is absolute conclusion of appraisal, so-called appraisal interview. It has a special place in the process of performance appraisal. It forms not only a basis for monitoring and appraisal of the work performance, but, what is the most important with regard to the context with the organization culture, it provides also an interactive feedback for the appraised, whereby it enables an exchange of opinions of both the appraised and the appraising, and that allows them to find a solution together regarding how to improve or change the performance, behavior and actions. It also allows to positively influence the change of employee’s attitudes. With regard to individual objectives of the appraisal interview (evaluate, motivate, develop, and
communicate), which directly or indirectly influence the creation, maintenance or change of content of the organizational culture, quality and culturally aware performance of the appraisal interview is important for the organization. And on the other hand, formal and unqualified performance of appraisal interviews can, as said by Lukášová (2010), cause so-called cultural damage in the organization. (Chapter 8 dealing with motivational approach to the performance appraisal contains more information about the appraisal interview.)

There is, however, also the possibility that values of organizational culture are set badly in the context with the activity of the organization. In such case it can negatively impact the behavior of employees. If desirable behavior of employees is not promoted and enforced with priority, and is not supported with appraisal and training, it can negatively impact the performance of employees. For instance, the cause of frequent machinery failures can be weak focus on maintenance and cleanliness. Lengthy process of solving complaints can be a consequence of lack of focus on the customer satisfaction, focus on production quality, or way of behaving in communication, whether outwards (customer, supplier, media, etc.) or towards the inside of the organization (towards superiors, subordinates, colleagues...).

Because of this, it is necessary to focus within the performance appraisal both on the determination of the level of compliance in the required and expressed behavior of employees and analysis whether values are correctly declared and defined in relation to the type of the organizational culture, and whether promoted procedures of behavior of employees support the performance of the organization.

**Remuneration in context of motivating and organization culture**

Remuneration affects employees by means of their motivation, while motivation is a predictor of behavior and actions of employees at work (Potkány, 2008). The basis of creating an appropriate employee remuneration system, which would motivate them to achieve organization goals as well as their personal goals, is the precise identification of needs, interests, and value orientation of employees. Human resources/potential managers need to consider issues associated with autonomous motivation, controlled motivation, and motivation as a predictor of employee performance (Ankli & Palliam, 2012).

Notably, extrinsic rewards need to be used with caution in practice. Appropriate rewards may be comprehended to be a kind of approval and inspiration, however never go beyond surplus (Jiacheng et al., 2010). As Kachaňáková (2011) states, it is possible on the grounds of such bases and evaluation results to elaborate and carryout a system of financial and non-financial remuneration encouraging the desirable behavior and performance of employees in line with organizational culture (Kachaňáková et al., 2011).

Remuneration of employees depends on what value they represent for the organization. The system of employees’ remuneration consists of mutually interconnected rules, processes and practical procedures of the organization in remuneration according to benefit, abilities as well as market value of the employee (Bajziková et al., 2013). Organizations thus have a broad range of various tools which they can use to create a system of remuneration for their employees. In order for it to be appropriate, fair, and motivating, remuneration should be constructed according to the needs of the organization (Stachová, Stacho & Pajtinková
Bartáková, 2015). Of course, the well-functioned remuneration system has to be sufficiently attractive and comparable with the remuneration systems of the key competitors.

**Motivational and culture function of remuneration**

Remuneration in modern human potential development does not only mean a salary, pay, or other forms of financial remuneration provided by the organization to the employee as compensation for executed work. The modern concept of remuneration is *much broader*, including promotion, formal recognition (appraisals), employee benefits (usually non-financial), provided by the organization to the employees independently of their performance only on the grounds of employment or other relation, on the basis of which the concrete employee works for the organization. Remuneration can include things or circumstances which are not self-evident, e.g. the allocation of an office equipped in a certain way, allocation at a certain workplace, the allocation of a certain machine or equipment (an office with a carpet instead of linoleum, an office in the headquarters building, the allocation of a computer, etc.).

Remuneration more and more extensively includes employer-provided training. Besides these more or less material rewards controlled and decided by the organization (i.e. extrinsic rewards), increasing attention is drawn to intrinsic rewards. These do not have a material nature and are related to the satisfaction of the employee with executed work, joy brought by work, pleasant feelings resulting from the fact that they can participate in certain activities or tasks, with the feeling of usefulness and success, informal recognition of their environment, with their position, achieving work objectives, and career, etc. Remuneration of this kind *corresponds to the personality of employee*, their needs, interests, attitudes, values, and standards (Koubek, 2006). Their content and promotion can be thus incorporated into the content and influence of the set organizational culture in the organization.

The mentioned above elements gain in importance also on the grounds of results from the survey which was performed under Slovak Republic conditions with the focus on identification and definition of characteristics of the youngest generation of present employees, the ‘generation of millennials’ born between 1981 – 1994, with the aim to offer HR specialists a starting point for forming HR strategies reflecting the new nature and potential of these young people. The survey was performed by the organization PriceWaterhouseCoopers in 2009 (PwC, 2009). The survey shows that it has a priority importance for the new generation of employees to feel proud about the organization they work for. They wish to be loyal and they consider the value consistency and strong socially responsible business practice to be important. As much as 86% of them stated that they would leave if the behavior of the organization was not in line with their own beliefs. That means that they are significantly critical and in case they feel that the organization does not function according to declared values, they relatively quickly leave.

**Motivational and cultural content of remuneration**

Brown characterizes the remuneration system as a way of unequivocally expressing organization values, and the key to comprehending organizational culture (Závadský et al.,
The aforementioned clearly implies that it is necessary to focus separately on organizational culture and employee remuneration as well as their mutual possibilities of positively affecting each other. The possibilities of affecting organizational culture by means of employee remuneration and their reasons can be summarized as follows (Stachová et al., 2015):

1. **Focus on encouraging desirable behavior of employees upon remuneration.** The justness and key nature of remuneration in relation to affecting organizational culture is primarily given by its focus on quite directly affecting desirable behavior. An organization can have a direct impact on employees and their behavior in quite a short time by means of remuneration, most frequently financial. Such behavior influencing is easily recognizable and due to possible fast feedback which is also notable for employees. From a long-term viewpoint, organizations can gradually fixate the desirable behavior of employees in this way, and make it a standardized behavior norm. However, affecting and influencing the approaches and values of employees is gradual, and it cannot be expected that this process can be accelerated by the organization, not even on the grounds of significant financial remuneration. On the contrary, unless the elements of culture are presented to employees sufficiently and in a suitable way, employees can start behaving desirably as a result of remuneration (there will be a certain level of conformity in employee behavior), however their inner values will not correspond to organization values. The organization thus records a desirable performance in a short time; however significant subcultures, gradually growing stronger, start to be occurred in the long-term.

2. On the grounds of desirable performance type, **to set employee remuneration criteria in relation to organization culture elements.** In relation to remuneration, criteria performance and organizational culture, it is necessary to focus on what criteria are desirable to reward for achieving a requested performance, complying with organizational culture elements. Velíšková provides three variants or bonuses, which can be paid to employees for the fulfilment of requested criteria, with their impact on organization culture (Lukášová, 2010). The first variant is based on the selection of criteria aimed at encouraging individual performance, i.e. bonuses based on individual performance, which maximizes the performance of an individual on the one hand. However it significantly strengthens individualism, and an environment of competition or rivalry is created on the other hand. The second variant is based on the selection of criteria encouraging team cooperation, i.e. bonuses based on team performance, which enhances team cooperation and the sharing of responsibilities. However such an approach can demotivate an individual with greater performance. This can subsequently result in raised tension within a team, or, the occurrence of a sub-culture within the team. The third variant is based on the payment of bonuses resulting from business results. Such remuneration enhances the feelings of fellowship, cooperation, and loyalty of employees. However, it does not have a significant impact on individual employee performance, except managerial bonuses (Lukášová, 2010). These ideas clearly shows that upon remuneration criteria selection it is necessary to consider the impact of remuneration on employee performance as well as its impact on organizational culture.
3. **Using the formal recognition as a remuneration tool encouraging desirable organization culture.** Recognition, either formal (in the group of colleagues or supported by a ceremony, celebration, or status change) or informal (between an employee and his or her direct superior) also has a significant impact on the identification of employees with organizational culture elements. This has the most significant impact on the engagement and initiative of individuals (Maloney & Stanford, 2011; Zhang et al. 2013; Sheehan et al. 2014), however it also has a secondary impact on the atmosphere inside the organization and its teams. While the act of rewarding and appreciation by superiors, as well as getting recognition from colleagues, or obtaining certain status symbols (e.g. allocation of an office, an assistant, a car, a parking place, etc.) have a particular impact on individuals. Also, the atmosphere among employees is affected in the way of reward presentation (i.e. common participation and the creation of relationships at a ceremony, celebration, etc.).

4. **Using the training as a tool of remuneration encouraging desirable organization culture.** Organizations, as well as their employees, realize the need of permanent training which is why it can be used as a reward. This ‘training as a reward’ primarily represents training and development tailored to the needs of an employee or a team. Outdoor training is most frequently arranged for team education as a reward. Organizations thus get qualified, motivated and loyal employees.

5. **Using the organizational culture as a tool for remuneration and motivation.** Organization culture itself is a significant means of motivation. Organizations with solid organizational culture declaring, externally as well as inwardly, its values and particularly its engagement in charity, ecological, or other generally helpful activities, take on a favored position in the eyes of their employees as well as the public. Employees are proud to work in the organization which has a positive impact on their performance and behavior inside the organization as well as outside of it. On the grounds of usage of such a positive organization culture, it is possible to acquire so-called ‘3S’ employees: Say – they talk about the organization positively, also outside of it; Stay – they are interested in staying in the organization; and Strive – if necessary, they work for the organization beyond the framework agreed in the contract (Zábojníková, 2012).

   Employee motivation only framed by directives, regulations, and standards and the perception of employees by management as only as a means, results in a situation where employees actually start to perceive themselves in the same way, and they subsequently start to behave accordingly – i.e. they become passive and only carry out activities strictly arising from their employment contract. The aforementioned clearly emphasizes that such employee behavior is not desirable for the organization, and is definitely not its competitive advantage. It is therefore necessary to actively build and declare the organization’s positive relation to employees and employees’ relation to the organization. It is necessary for this purpose to set a desired organizational culture (Stachová et al., 2013).
Training in context of motivating and organization culture

Getting a job position is not associated with lifelong safety. It means motion in interest of the organization, employee’s own ambitions and for that purpose also created preconditions. Requirements for the knowledge and ability of people are constantly being changed and formation of working abilities and skills is becoming a lifelong process (Vetráková et al., 2001). Training and development of employees is one of the basic forms, through which employees become aware of the elements of organizational culture. Through targeted training and development of employees it is possible to contribute to their better identification with the organizational culture and its values. The opportunity of learning and increasing the competences are being offered to the employees by the organization often as one of the options in the selection of motivational tools during the motivation process. However this poses certain contextual mismatch because training the employees should be the organizations’ mission if they want to progress and not just to rely on employees’ awareness and their feel of need to learn.

Employee training should be a permanent process in which adaptation and change of work behavior, level of knowledge, skills, competences and motivation of organization’s employees take place by learning based on use of different methods. As a consequent result, difference between actual competences of employees and requirements imposed on them should be reduced. It is important so the training is effective, meaning it has to be well organized and systematic, it must be continuous within the repeating cycle (Identification → Planning → Implementation → Monitoring).

Career management and talent management itself are still anchored and perceived in mind of managers as something that is intended only for a small group of employees, or potential employees. However the latest researches point to the need of understanding these two components or rather inevitable processes as intended for all employees who are expected to stay in organization for longer than 5 years because in this case it is possible to achieve that after 3 years, career management will affect up to 70% of organization’s employees (Hroník, 2007).

In case when the development and training is linked with career management and talent management, it allows to purposefully influence the employees in a way they can identify themselves with such a thinking and action that is expected from them during achieving the organization’s strategic goals. If the function advance of an employee is evident from his or her career plan, it becomes achievable and subsequently, it motivates him or her towards the behavior which is required of him or her by the organization in terms of its culture (Kachaňáková, 2010).

For aforementioned reasons, it is necessary to focus not only on knowledge, abilities, skills and competences of employees, in the course of the career planning and talent selection, but to also focus on employees’ identification with individual elements of organization’s culture. It is mostly due to the fact that to such employees, attention is paid in a greater extent: internal attention (employees are comparing with them or trying to act like them in order to ensure same opportunities of either career or professional growth), and external attention (mainly employees that are part of talent management often participate in
competitions, conferences, or various discussion forums). It is them, who are often leaders, models, and sometimes even heroes of the organization and that is why their inner identification with content of organization’s culture is desirable.

Last but not least it is necessary to view training and overall development/growth as a way to acquire motivated, loyal and devoted employees. Providing employees with an opportunity to educate themselves is also of appropriate use as a form of motivation and acquisition of loyal and devoted employees because that is the way the organization shows them that they are valuable enough so the organization is willing to invest money and systemic effort in them. This subsequently results in a fact that the organization is counting on them in future, either on their current position or, after obtaining higher education, on a higher position as a part of career growth.

The opinions and findings in this chapter together confirm the motivational and cultural dimension of all processes of human potential development in each organization. Only together they will be the real help when acquiring the innovative, enthusiastic, loyal and proud employees and managers. At the same time, it points to the necessity to perceive all the processes of human potential development from a system perspective and from the perspective of a perfect combination of organizational motivation and culture.
Chapter 8: Symbiotic motivational spirals
Symbiotic motivational spirals

The study of motivation concerns those processes that give behavior its energy and direction (Reeve, 2009: 8) because of human activities are motivated by one or many very complicated factors known an unknown (Faletar & Jelačić, 2016).

Apart from other factors which usually predetermine the quality and shape of motivation and motivational processes, i.e. profile of motives, power of personality, sense of responsibility, permanency of capture, matureness of zeal, etc., whereas these factors have clear explanatory power or ability and relatively simple internal structure, we can consider also a little more complicated factors which act upon the motivation and motivating: processes of human potential development. Thus, the intention of this chapter is highlight the interlinkages that exist between the motivation and crucial processes of human potential development, and define the concept of symbiotic motivation-process spirals.

As crucial processes of human potential development we consider those which have the strongest influence or relations on/with motivation and motivating the human potential. Especially these processes are ranked into this group: creative leadership, objective work performance appraisal, open communication, and building a suitable work atmosphere, i.e. atmosphere of trust and belongingness.

Next parts of this chapter attempt to explain a matter of fact of these processes and present basic independencies that exist between and among motivation and other crucial organizational processes.

Motivation and leadership

In the best organizations, everyone is encouraged to act like a leader. Leaders act in ways to develop and grow people’s talents, including their leadership capabilities (Kouzes & Posner, 2012: 15). At present, we can consider the importance of leadership from the viewpoint of both the employees and the managers. From the perspective of employees’ leadership, it is very important to have good leaders in teams of employees. They have significant influence on creativity of work and motivation of other employees in team (Soviar, Varmus & Kubina, 2015). From the perspective of managers, leadership is a highly sought-after and highly valued commodity (Northouse, 2016) and represents the critical component to great performance (Kouzes & Posner, 2015). It includes many various and concrete impacts, i.e. leads to a change in preferences (Sokól, 2015: 172).

According to Matarazzo & Pearlstein (2016), important is understanding the role of the leader (as opposed to that of the manager) as the strategic thinker, visionary, and motivator, who inspires his or her team to excellence (p. 162). Leadership is the gentlest, the most personal and, if connected with motivation, the most difficult definable aspect of management. Because of this, it should be understood as a mutual relationship in which a credibility is very important. A motivating leader with typical characteristics leads
Chapter 8: Symbiotic motivational spirals

a successful organization, inspires, and motivates (Kerestešová, 2012: 169). Inspirational leaderships use words, slogans, metaphor, symbol, image, cue, ceremony, ritual, and code to manage meanings and impressions, to generate expectations and stimulate intellectuality, and provide visions that can be achieved and realistic future. Inspirational leaders are accepted by followers because they have extensive knowledge, illuminating or relieving, and having sensitive feeling to problems occurring in organization. Based on this, the followers trust is built (Indrawati, 2014: 81).

Shin & Zhou (2003), based on their survey which used a sample of 290 employees and their supervisors from Korean companies, found that transformational leadership is positively related to employee’s creativity, follower’s conservation a value moderated that relationship, and intrinsic motivation mediated to contribution of the interaction of transformational leadership and conservation and partially mediated the contribution of transformational leadership to creativity.

Also another survey might be pointed out: survey of Gupta & Singh (2015). Authors collected data from 482 scientists in Indian Research and Development Laboratories and tested hypothesized relationship between leadership and creative performance behavior. Study found evidence for both direct and indirect relationship between searched variables. In addition, justice perceptions partially mediate the relationship between the leadership and the creative performance.

Because of the different motivation and the integrated actions of leaders, the outcomes or purposes of leadership are also significantly different (McClellan, 2009: 93). In mentioned intentions, the conviction of Crossan & Mazutis (2008) has to be emphasized: “Leadership at one level will no longer be sufficient to guarantee high firm performance in the long run. The era of the turnaround CEO, for example, is over.” We can point out that the introductive idea of this chapter is absolutely confirmed by this. This means that within the progressive organization, all the individuals (no matter whether s/he is working on the managerial position or not) have to behave as the loyal, responsible, visionary and motivating leader. In other words, despite the great impact of the great managers or leaders on their organization, this individual influence has to be shared, transferred and empowered to the other clever, prepared to, unselfish, and enthusiastic organization’s members.

Based on mentioned ideas, we devoted an attention also to searching relations between the motivating and the creative leading (leadership) in all our surveys (in 2009, 2013, and 2016). We used the chi square test for testing dependencies between these processes. We mutually compared the question aimed at the creation of motivational programs (as these programs form an inseparable part of the motivation process) with the question aimed at the style of leadership, where we can think about creative leadership in the case of participative style of leadership (the superior creates space for self-realization, co-decision, responsibility and, motivation of employees). We compared (Table 23) the view of managers and employees about what style of leadership is applied in the organization.

Results show that majority of managers (78.18%) consider their influence on employees and their leading to be participative, however employees do not feel it that way at all. Much more employees think that the style of leadership used on them is neutral and partially even authoritative or autocratic. These results indicate that it is necessary for managers to be aware
of their actions and behavior against employees much more sensitively, as well as of the strength of influence they have on employees, as employees do perceive all of it and react to it with their motivation and thus their performance.

Table 23. Expressions on applied style of leadership

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Managers</th>
<th></th>
<th>Employees</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participative</td>
<td>437</td>
<td>78.18</td>
<td>1,038</td>
<td>50.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>15.74</td>
<td>673</td>
<td>32.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authoritative</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>6.08</td>
<td>356</td>
<td>17.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>559</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>2067</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 24 shows the calculation of dependence between motivating and creative leadership with the significance level 0.05%. We compared in the calculation the calculated value at the degree of freedom 4 with the table value, which is 9.488. As the calculated value of the chi-square is significantly higher (191.188), we can consider the strong dependence between these two factors. The fact that this correlation is very significant and that these two processes indisputably affect each other is confirmed also by the Asymptotic Significance (2-sided), which has the value 0.000.

Table 24. Chi square test for motivating and leadership

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>191.188*</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>196.129</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>149.612</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td>2,067</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Table 25 represents a cross-table showing closer details of the confirmed dependence between selected processes. It can be seen in the process of creative leadership that the application of participative style of leadership enhances the motivation process, i.e. creation of motivational programs and application of a motivational accent.

Table 25. The frequency of characters between motivating and leadership

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership (viewpoint of employees)</th>
<th>Participative</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Authoritative</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Motivating</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>484</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>753</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, with participation</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>404</td>
<td>434</td>
<td>267</td>
<td>1,105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1,038</td>
<td>673</td>
<td>356</td>
<td>2,067</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Transformational leadership in relation to motivation

In order to react efficiently to the changes, it is important to rally the leaders that would be able to identify and tackle the problems arising in the organization creatively and innovatively, would possess competences of leadership, management of changes, strategic thinking and other (Adamonienė & Petrauskienė, 2014: 6). In outlined sense, creative leadership focuses on the creation of space for self-expression: a fair reward for work, strengthening the pleasant feeling of a job well done, experience of joy and recognition of achievement (Jedinák, 2011: 40).

Leadership should be encouraged at all levels and people be trained in ‘intelligent leadership’ which provides positive results or prevents failures or mistakes in a person’s actions or that of a directly or indirectly related worker or staff (Frankel, 2008: 85). It means, the management should invoke the feeling of satisfaction in the subordinates, which would depend on the results of their work; development should be ensured by paying more attention to the application of transformational leadership principles in practice (Grublienė et al., 2015: 62).

The beginnings of transformational leadership, viewed through us as a specific and well-mastered type of leadership, are assigned to Burns – he analyzed relationships between leaders and followers and defined the theory of transformational leadership (1978). These thoughts were later modified and completed by Bass (1985). In 2006, Bass in co-authorship with Riggio defined this term in follow way: “Transformational leadership motivates and inspires followers with challenge and persuasion, providing both meaning and understanding (i.e. inspirational motivation); this one is intellectually stimulating, expanding the followers’ use of their abilities, and is individually considerate, providing the follower with support, mentoring, and coaching,” (Bass & Riggio, 2006: 5). The fact is important in this field that the transformational leadership has to be authentic – it must incorporate a central core of moral values (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999: 201).

From the perspective of transformational leadership: “Leaders behave in ways that allow them to serve as role model for their followers. The leaders are admitted, respected, and trusted. Followers identify with the leaders and want to emulate them; leaders are endowed by their followers as having extraordinary capabilities, persistence, and determination,” (Bass & Riggio, 2006: 6).

The channel through which charismatic/transformational leadership affects the motivation and productivity appears to be its effect on employees’ (dis)utility of work. Effective leadership makes employees like their job better (Kvaløy & Schöttner, 2015: 27). It means, the true leader is person who, by work and/or personal example, markedly influence the behaviors, thoughts, and/or feelings of a significant number of their fellow human beings (Gardner & Laskin, 2011: 8). Cunningham & Cordeiro (2009) claim that a school principal acting as a transformational leader creates conditions and motivates teachers to consult and discuss each other about the continuous improvement of student learning, choosing teaching and learning methods, allows teachers to take the responsibility for introduction of teaching and learning innovations (p. 231).
In almost all of mentioned above opinions of recognized authors was found that the leadership is connected, and we can emphasize that even necessarily built on the *role-model* behavior of the leader and positive impact on followers’ motivation. The more hard-working, creative, responsible and motivating is the leader, the more hard-working, creative, responsible and motivated will be his or her followers – employees, colleagues, partners in work. This indicates that the role-model behavior, which can improve the motivation, is based on the collegiality, partnership, and even brotherly spirit. But, this unique behavior is done not only for good relations, feelings and satisfaction of leader and employees. These positives serve as a creative platform for the strongest as possible motivation, the highest as possible performance, the most innovative as possible ideas, the most valuable as possible outputs, etc. In other words, the highest as possible level of both the followers’ and the leader’s effort could be inevitably expected and demanded.

**Transcendental leadership in relation to motivation**

Although the transformational leadership is really very inspirational and potentially very attractive, we can take into account also another, more sophisticated and more instigative style of the leadership: the *transcendental leadership*. This one is a unique style or qualitative level of leadership and is full of value inspirations, i.e. enthusiasm, heartiness, honesty, trust, responsibility, creativity and instigative fantasy of leader, and because of these excellent features and competences, puts high demands on such a leader. This means, transcendental leadership *develops and cultivates the personality and motivation* of the leaders, and based on this, *accelerates the quality and dynamics of personalities and motivations* of the followers of such a leader.

Transcendent leadership offers a pathway to increased trust necessary for global sustainability and a more inclusive and consensual decision making process for the economic, social, and environmental sectors, moving beyond a singular focus on the bottom line of profits to a multiple focus on the triple bottom lines of profits, people, and planet (Gardiner, 2009: 1). More concretely, according to Gardiner’s former article: “The metaphor of transcendent leadership moves us away from the tired language of our transactional/transformational reality into a reality worthy of a united planet, a planet of one humanity, moving from interdependence to wholeness,” (2006: 72).

From the viewpoint of transcendent leadership essence, the application of the value inventory fosters sustainable prosperity which means the development of all human beings to thrive with their fundamental necessities met, with self-esteem, and with enormous prospects to lead a fulfilling life, in the present-day as well as the future for them and the future generations (Nair, 2016: 671). This indicates the transcendental leadership is both follower-centered and leader-centered process (Liu, 2007) and also both present-centered and future-centered systematic endeavor. Sanders, Hopkins & Geroy’s (2003) model suggests that a leader’s development should be focused on three dimensions of *spirituality*:

1. **Consciousness (mind)**;
2. **Moral character (heart)**;
3. **Faith (soul)**.
Going on, the spiritual leadership comprises the values, attitudes and behaviors necessary to intrinsically motivate oneself and satisfy fundamental needs for spiritual well-being through calling and membership (Fry, 2009). A spiritual intelligence is the necessary disposition of a person (leader, HR specialist, etc.) who can apply successfully the philosophy and elements of spiritual leadership. “Spiritual intelligence of each person is perceived individually by forming wisdom based on life experience,” (Silingiene & Skeriene, 2016: 62).

Transcendental leadership, viewed here as a quasi-equivalent to spiritual leadership, uses values, attitudes, and behaviors (altruistic love, hope/faith, vision) to intrinsically motivate followers, thus increase followers’ senses of spiritual survival, i.e., calling (life has meaning, make a difference) and membership (interconnection, be understood, be appreciated), and the resulting positive organizational outcomes (Fry, 2003; Fry, Vitucci & Cedillo, 2005). Tehubijuluw (2014), in her study performed on a sample of 200 Indonesian respondents, confirmed that the transcendental leadership has a significant effect on worker’s job satisfaction. The leaders must be able to empower their employees by encouraging them to finish the job on-time, create a good cooperation among divisions to avoid conflict and maintain a good relationship at all organization level by implementing an open communication system (p. 514). In addition, the list of four contributions of transcendental leadership stated by Barney et al. (2015) might be consider as very inspirational:

1. Transcendental awareness (beliefs, assumptions, values, and accepting responsibility);
2. Seeing of things in new ways (sense of otherness);
3. System-level change (helping others in a global shift of consciousness);
4. Power of education (raising the aspirations of young people in their searching a new transcendental world); (pp. 2–13).

More concretely, an achievement of the level of transcendental leadership is based on tuning three instruments of knowing: the open mind, the open heart, and the open will (Scharmer & Kaufner, 2013). We can say the utilization of these opportunities/necessities can help the transformational leader in become the transcendental leader more easily.

**Transcendent leader as spiritual as well motivational leader**

A transcendent leader will be better positioned to rise to the challenge of leading in a complex, turbulent, and highly transparent environment (Crossan & Mazutis, 2008). According to Venter (2012), organizational leaders that self-transcend see the purpose of the organization as more than just financial success at-all-cost while taking from society. They find meaning in life by connecting their life’s journey and happiness to the condition of others; not only those from the same culture directly around them, but from others all over the world (p. 67).

From the perspective of transcendental leadership, the best way of creating such a leadership is by example (Cardona, 2000). This implies that the transcendent leader is a strategic leader who leads within and amongst the levels of *self, others, and organization*. Leadership of self includes the responsibility of being self-aware and proactive in developing
personal strengths. Leadership of others involves the mechanisms of interpersonal influence a leader has upon followers. Leadership of organization comprises the alignment of three interrelated areas: environment, strategy, and organization (Crossan, Vera & Nanjad, 2008: 569).

Spirituality as an inherent aspect of human existence is in every person (Silingiene & Skeriene, 2016: 62). Employees who demonstrate spiritual traits have a greater understanding to adapt to a changing environment, the ability to trust others, and a high level of commitment to the organization (Mohamed et al., 2004). Transcendental leader promotes unity by providing fair extrinsic reward, appealing to the intrinsic motivation of followers, and developing their transcendent motivation: the motivation to do things for others, the motivation to contribute (Cardona, 2000: 204). The influence on transcendental, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is emphasized also by Liu (2007) — but it must not be applied in a manipulative way, and thus is more effective than transformational leadership in motivating followers (p. 6).

Because the leaders and the followers are part of the leadership process, it is important to address issues that confront followers as well as issues that confront leaders. Leaders and followers should be understood in relation to each other (Northouse, 2016: 16). Concretely, an optimal balance between a managing and spacing, control and allowing freedom of decision in the manager’s supervision is needed (Benčo, 1998) but it is obvious that too much of control negatively affects motivation (Soköl, 2015). This means the positive motivators, i.e. approaches, processes, forms, tools, measurements, events, etc., should be applied. Unfortunately, according to Ryan (2012): “We have many habitual and overlearned behaviors that can be performed without intention or conscious control. Our attitudes and motives can be, to different degrees, implicit,” (p. 8). Based on this knowledge, there grows the importance of creativeness, role-model behavior, facilitation, help, and support from the side of leader – inconspicuous, subthreshold examples of positive practices, and cultivated work behavior must be permanently implanted into the working environment.

This means that the motivating leader should establish working conditions that enable creativity, cognition and efficiency (Soköl, 2015: 174). Creative, great leaders must be visionary (Navickaitė, Dačiulytė & Urbanovič, 2015), have to motivate people through persuasive communication, be an example (Williams, 2005: 5), have ability to learn (Kouzes & Posner, 2015), dispose by a charisma (Bryman, 1992; Barbuto, 2005; Hay, 2006; Bass, 2008, etc.), empathy (Finlay, 2005; Pavlovich & Krahmke, 2012), tolerance (Simonet & Tett, 2012), and spirit of community (Aldon, 2005). Charismatic leaders might be defined as leaders who emphasize perceived social needs, events to change, and interpersonal meaning derived from the effects of these changes (Strange & Mumford, 2002: 346). Charismatic leaders consistently possess traits of self-monitoring, engagement in impression management, motivation to attain social power, and motivation to attain self-actualization (Jung & Sosik, 2006), intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability (Northouse, 2016).

The opinion of Crossan & Mazutis (2008) has to be presented when defining transcendent leaders that the ability to recognize one’s own internal biases, to be aware of the mental maps that are causing one’s selective perception, and to self-regulate one’s
actions to be consistent with internal standards will be crucial to navigating the complex changes in today’s business environment (p. 133).

**Motivational accent of leadership**

Discussions presented in previous subchapters indicate that it is possible to confirm the existing *parallel* between the creative (i.e. transformational, transcendental or charismatic) leadership and the quality and even the strengthening of motivation. The more creative and the more imaginative and friendlier will be the leadership and cultivation impact on employees/followers – that is, the higher the motivation of leader will be towards the implementation of real, true and creative leadership, the greater the motivation and more valuable results of employees will be reached. In the context of known effects of *socio-motivational reciprocity*, a mention may be made that such an *escalation effect* can also operate in reverse: the stronger the motivation and creativity of employees and the more joy they experience from their work and cooperation with their leader, the stronger will be the motivation of leader to continue in applying the creative leadership and motivating his or her employees and other managers.

When attempting to fully utilize the *mutual escalation effect*, i.e. for the real fulfillment of reciprocity between the creative leadership and strengthening motivation at the organizations, it is appropriate to apply modern, especially creative and inspirational measures, e.g.:

- Maintaining a dignity and expressing an esteem;
- Respecting a freedom of thought and technical/professional inquiry;
- Assistance in reducing administrative burdens and removing de-motivational elements;
- Working out and applying motivational strategies and effective motivation programs of the organization, sections, groups, and individuals;
- Creating and implementing a thorough system of motivational core and support processes;
- Sensitive intervening when the motivation is slackened and help in solving private problems;
- Training and developing of leadership and motivational skills of managers and leaders;
- Expert advice for managers and employees in case of leadership conflicts and imperfections;
- Psychological guidance in case of interpersonal conflict and burn-out syndrome;
- Performing creative, informal meetings for encourage the teamwork and synergies achievement, etc.

On the other hand, creative and motivating leadership, either transformational or even transcendental, cannot do without employees – followers who are *ready to master* such a high level of partnership. Employees must be very well equipped in intellectual, personality and psychological characteristics and competences, allowing for succeed in
leadership-follow relationship successfully, and beneficially to both parties. Unfortunately, if they are not able to participate in such a sophisticated leadership, they will not reach metes which are expected. On the contrary, the leader may even suffer the disappointment of his or her unfulfilled leadership influence. Also employees may be disappointed because on the one hand, failed to meet the expectations of their superiors, and on the other hand, did not reach such intellectual and psychic power that would result in/from their work and relational satisfaction, career prospects, further open cooperation, higher bonuses, higher image of the organization, etc.

Stated differently, the failure in creative leadership could be very frustrating. However, it is also clear that success in the creative and motivational leadership can bring excellent results for the leader him/herself, his/her staff, the whole organization, and even the development of the region or country.

Motivation and work performance appraisal

With regard to fact that the main objective of work performance appraisal is to assure maximum utilization of abilities, knowledge and interest of every employee (Arthur, 2010), the performance appraisal is a measurement of actual results achieved within those areas where the employee is held accountable and/or the competencies deemed critical to job and organization success (Berger, 2004: 26). When properly conducted, performance appraisals not only let employees know how well they are performing but also influence their future level of effort, task direction (Byars & Rue, 1997), next motivation and willingness to continue in their hard work. This is probably the essence of the work performance appraisal. Thereto, if the individuals are confident in their abilities to perform a task and have the freedom both to explore alternative processes and ideas and to make decisions that they see as impactful to the organization and they see what they do as valuable for its own sake, they are likely to be both motivated and curious enough to explore options regarding their work beyond what their job description would dictate (Culmer, 2012: 42).

Information resulting from the work performance appraisal are manifold meanings, not only in terms of current needs and improvement, but especially in terms of preparation of the strategic decisions on the future shape and quality of the profile and motivation orientation of the employees and managers:

- Appraisal provides a preliminary look at career opportunities;
- Appraisal must reveal whether the employee has serious shortcomings; if identified, the way of their removal should be proposed (Berryová, 2009);
- Appraisal identifies real and objective compliance of the expected performance or capability with holistic potential of employee or senior employee who performed it;
- Appraisal reveals minor hesitation and imperfections, as well as a serious failure in the work effort of each individual;
- Appraisal provides a map of individual and group reserves and unrealized potential and shapes the ways to remove them.

Mentioned ideas could be emphasized even by results of our survey. We asked employees and managers whether they consider the appraisal (assessment/evaluation) of
their performance by the superior to be *objective and fair*. Results in Table 26 show that only
a third of managers and less than third of employees can unambiguously confirm that they
are appraised fairly and objectively. That is a very low number of statements with regard to
requirements placed on employees and managers in the present.

Table 26. Fairness and objectivity of performance appraisal

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Managers</th>
<th></th>
<th>Employees</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>33.09</td>
<td>558</td>
<td>27.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rather yes</td>
<td>295</td>
<td>52.77</td>
<td>918</td>
<td>44.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Averagely</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>11.81</td>
<td>441</td>
<td>21.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rather no</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1.97</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>5.27</td>
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<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>1.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>559</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>2,067</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We further examined the dependence between the *appraisal of complex work performance and motivating* (through the creation of motivational programs). We examined this correlation on a sample of employees (Table 27). We compared in the calculation of interdependence between motivating and appraisal the calculated value at the degree of freedom 8 with the table value, which is 15.507. The calculated value (284.186) is significantly higher than the table value, which shows very strong dependence between the selected processes. The value of Asymptotic Significance (2-sided) indicates very high significance of this correlation.

Table 27. Chi square test for motivating and appraisal

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>284.186</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>313.919</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>224.628</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td>2,067</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 28. The frequency of characters between motivation and appraisal

|                  | Appraisal                  |            |            |            |            |            |
|------------------|----------------------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|
|                  | Motivating                 | Yes        | Rather yes | Average    | Rather no  | No         | Total      |
| Yes              | 283                        | 359        | 103        | 6          | 2          | 753        |
| Yes, with participation | 98                  | 94         | 16         | 1          | 0          | 209        |
| No               | 177                        | 456        | 322        | 102        | 39         | 1105       |
| Total            | 558                        | 918        | 441        | 109        | 41         | 2,067      |

What concerns the appraisal of complex work performance, we can see that correct
application of objective and fair appraisal enhances the correct application of the motivating
Motivation: Motivational spirals and decision making

process (Table 28). This is confirmed by almost half of the employees who participate in the motivating decision making and clearly confirm that they are appraised fairly and objectively. The other half of the employees also inclines to this opinion.

There is an opinion of employees in other views of motivating employees that they are appraised fairly and objectively only on average level, or only rarely.

**Process and system of performance appraisal**

When understood the performance appraisal as a process, this one is just a permanent and systematic process of identifying, evaluating, communicating and developing the job-related strengths and talents, and removing weaknesses of employees’ work behavior as well. According to Shen (2004), performance appraisal is the process of identifying, observing, measuring and developing human resources in organizations. This one is the process of evaluating how well employees do their jobs compared with a set of standards and communicating that information to those employees (Mathis & Jackson, 1997: 343). In other words, it is the process of defining expectations for employee performance; measuring, evaluating, and recording employee performance relative to those expectations; and providing feedback to employee (Mohrman et al., 1989). As a process, the work performance appraisal must systematically and objectively determine quality, merit or value,” (Scriven, 1991: 4).

From the viewpoint of the organization, an appraisal system serves to measure and improve performance, to allocate such resources as pay and promotions, and often to answer critical personnel questions such as those related to charges of unfair discrimination (Waldman & Bass, 1987: 177). This means, the organization implements the performance appraisal system to allocate rewards for the employees, provide development advice as well as to obtain their perspectives and justice perceptions about their jobs, department, managers, and organization (Kaleem et al., 2013: 29).

It is important to recognize that a performance management system in the organization has two primary parts: performance appraisal (the process of measuring performance) and performance review (the process of communicating the results of the performance appraisal to the person whose performance was measured), (Wolf, 2004: 86). Although the performance appraisal forms the core of performance management systems (Venkatesh et al., 2012: 288), without an open, sufficiently concrete and motivating communication on achieved results and plans for future improvement it is impossible to achieve all potential effects and positives of performance appraisal and whole performance management system.

A dominant aspiration of progressive organizations is to create performance appraisal instruments that exhibit high internal and external validity. But when appraisal instruments prefer the fit with formal organization features, employees would be required to accept dependence and subordination to those in power. This condition would produce employee frustration and lead to absenteeism, performance restriction, and would be counterproductive to the management hopes, aspirations (Argyris, 2012: 379), satisfaction, trust and readiness to be an objective and fair appraiser.
In addition, if there is uncertainty about one’s decision making authority or the expectations related to how he or she will be appraised, a sense of powerlessness and lack of motivation ensues (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). Dissatisfaction and feelings of unfairness in process and inequity in evaluations, caused by unfair practices, can lead any appraisal system to failure (Venkatesh et al., 2012: 288). In such state, the appraisal system needs to be re-defined. Re-definition and improvement of the appraisal system, i.e. appraisal conditions, forms, criteria, rules, trust atmosphere, motivation impacts, efficiency or performance consequences, etc., should consist of the relevant motivational and system measurements and simultaneously the removal of nonsensical and/or rigid rules.

Based on their study published in 2011, Bouskila-Yam & Kluger present that the typical performance appraisal, which is applied in many organizations, and is not accompanied by other interventions, is ineffective and even destructive. Trying to remove these negative potentialities, the implementation of strength-based performance appraisal (SBPA) may be a clever solution. According to authors, the strength-based performance appraisal consists in the following six tools and principles:

- Feedforward (i.e. feedforward interview viewed as multi-purpose interview);
- Reflected best self-feedback (people excel when understand and extend their strengths);
- Happiness research (happiness affects hope, optimism, well-being and success);
- Developing strengths (finding each day a new way to use one’s signature strengths);
- The 3:1 ratio (average ratio of 3:1 of positive to negative emotions);
- Win-win approach (creative win-win solution that demonstrates full dual concern, both for oneself and for the other), (Bouskila-Yam & Kluger, 2011: 137–140).

According to Aldag & Kuzuhara (2015), in order to design and implement an effective team performance evaluation system, it is important that the system possess the following characteristics: trust and respect between management and teams; agreement about goals, procedures, and timing of the evaluation process; clear and well-defined performance objectives; open and active exchange of information; respect between peers on a team (p. 249). “If employees are afraid of being punished for honest mistakes, they will be afraid to trust their judgment and work will become less about doing the task in the best possible ways and more about not getting in trouble,” (Thomas, 2009: 164–165). A fact is generally known that when employees feel themselves in any tension and/or psychical stress, their motivation automatically and permanently decreases, and thus their performance decreases too, and even for a long time.

**Motivational and developmental aspects of performance appraisal**

Work performance appraisal is an essential part of maintaining vitality of the organization (Cleveland et al., 1989) which is always based on the level and content of the employees’ and managers’ motivation. This leads to the fact that most of the organizations (profit or non-profit, governmental or private), have accepted the principles of performance management to succeed (Javadi et al., 2012). Based on mentioned ideas, the performance appraisal constitutes a very important activity of human potential development, aimed at
Motivation: Motivational spirals and decision making

determining how the employee does his or her work, fulfills tasks and requirements of his/her job position, what is his/her work behavior and relationships to colleagues, customer and other persons with who s/he comes into contact in relation to his/her work (Koubek, 2004). As a part of complex managerial and motivational effort of the managers, the work performance appraisal serves for identification of reserves in human potential and to objectivize need for changes in qualifications and requalification, to evaluate and changes in rewarding and motivation (Vodáček & Vodáčková, 2013: 110).

In wider organizational perspective, the performance appraisal provides a lot of further positive effects, e.g., improved (motivated) performance, creating an opportunity for superior-subordinate communication, data for personnel decisions, etc. (Coens & Jenkins, 2000). When relating performance appraisal to the viewpoint of personality and his or her reputation, the evaluation that others make of one’s social behavior become one’s reputation; these evaluations are formally identical to the appraisal that others make of one’s performance at work. Performance appraisal is a specific case of reputation construction (Hogan, 2012: 5).

The appropriately defined intra-organizational system of appraisal should include a communication, usually between the direct superior and the appraised employee, aimed at the evaluation of information obtained from the appraisal. It should include highlighting positive aspects of the work performance and social behavior of the employee and pointing out determined shortcomings. Work performance appraisal should provide the option to explain the attitude of the appraising and the appraised, with regard to the fact that each of them can have other perception and thus also the measure of importance within the appraisal of individual activities (Wagnerová, 2005). In this way it is possible to prevent any misunderstanding and lack of clarity in decisions of the superior and their correct understanding and fulfillment by subordinates. It is however very important not to just state positive and negative things in the appraisal of the employee and mutually explain matters. It is necessary to motivate the employee with regard to determined positive aspects to continue with such actions; and to support the employee in removal of shortcomings (Stýblo, 2003).

Motivation-developmental aspect of the performance appraisal should be always respected and kept because of this one shows how the manager is able to manage work behavior and motivate people and how is able to subsequently utilize knowledge obtained from the appraisal for achieving strategic objectives (Toth, 2010). In this regard, it is very important to appraise the performance in a complex manner, as the result of combination and mutual proportion of efforts, abilities, and perceived role. It is necessary that all three components are present and in mutual proportion for the successful performance (Koubek, 2006) and the performance criteria are as objective as possible (Gibson et al., 1997: 40).

This means, the performance appraisal system will not be effective and motivational unless it is perceived to be fair by all of those involved in the process (Kaleem et al., 2013: 30). It is because the appraisal is closely connected with building the trust between the appraiser and appraised individuals as well as trust of these ones towards the effectiveness and objectivity of appraisal system.
Motivational and other conceptions (understandings) of appraisal

Organizations which use fair performance appraisal procedures do not only get good valuable information but also succeed in promoting feelings of satisfaction, commitment and motivation of their employees (Kaleem et al., 2013: 31). Work performance appraisal is continual process of completing knowledge about achieved work performance, thorough and objective assess of performance, highlighting of positive signs, valuation of identified talent and also sensitive notifications about negative signs in performance of employees and managers. This way it is possible to systematically improve their motivations, commitment and inventiveness, to increase quality of complex of their skills and abilities, and organization can receive new impulses, inspirations and steady dynamic in the future.

Genuine and truthful contents of sophisticated appraisal of work performance are transformed into understanding of its basic functions (Cole, 1988; Werther & Davis, 1992; Koubek, 2007; Kachaňáková, 2007; Armstrong, 2009; and many others), or into characterizing understandings of appraisal process (Blašková, 2011). Thus the performance appraisal plays several important roles in organization. In doing so, it poses some special challenges for managers (Bartol & Martin, 1991: 420).

Based on convictions that all functions or understandings of appraisal carry strong motivational intent within, appraisal itself and all of its assets have to contribute to the higher, better and firmer motivation of evaluators and of those being evaluated. Respecting previous premise it is possible to think about following understandings of performance appraisal: cognitive, decision-making, comparative, regulative, communicative, developmental, causal, multi-object, multi-subject, and motivational.

Cognitive (fundamental) understanding of appraisal

Cognitive, or fundamental, understanding forms absolute fundament for every other understanding of appraisal and for every other processes of human potential developing and motivating. Evaluating authority (organization, senior staff, line managers, HR experts) perfectly explores key aspects and quality of work behavior of evaluated individuals and groups. According to Graham (1991), Shane (2004), Berger (2004), Vodáček & Vodáčková (2013), Jedinák (2011), and others, knowledge is being gathered about quantity and quality of results, productivity, effectivity, responsibility, inventiveness, potential and willingness to improve, art of leading co-workers, etc. Because of enormous amount of evaluative criteria, all considered criteria can be classified into the appropriate groups. For example, Mathis & Jackson (1997) recommend to classify criteria as trait-based (these ones identify a subjective character trait), behavior-based (these ones focus on specific behaviors that lead to job success), and result-based (these ones evaluate the results of work done or accomplished), (p. 341).

However there is one more outstanding asset of cognitive function of appraisal: cognition and understanding of trend and dynamics of development of evaluated employees’ performance indicates cognition of quality and trends of managerial performance of superior employees. It is the great feedback which reveals success of specific interpersonal
and managerial performance of managers, helps in following adaptation of suitable leadership style, strengthening of trust, improving of communication, etc.

**Decision-making understanding of appraisal**

From the viewpoint of this conception, the appraisal can be considered also as the decision-making process. All parties (the assessed, assessors, facilitators) adopt a number of decisions, such as decisions on the frequency of appraisal (how often it is implemented in a year), the assessing subjects (who should assess work performance), concerning appraisal methods (focused on the past, present or future performance, or combination thereof), the appraisal criteria (standardized, or individualized), the corrective action (fierce versus continuously applied), the level of resources for appraisal, the consequences of violating the discipline of assessors, etc. (Blašková, 2011: 246).

It is needed to decide on appropriate forms of sharing and utilizing acquired evaluative information and knowledge. This means, performance appraisal system in the organization has to consider and state the most desirable and efficient forms of providing real and prompt feedback of the organizational executive on managerial reaction on achieved performance level. For example, an appraisal interview, motivation interview, group or team meeting, organization newspaper, annual report, re-defined vision of the organization, etc. should reflect significant utilization of all obtained appraisal information.

On the other hand, although “each employee should be evaluated at least annually and be given feedback to communicate how he or she is performing, most managers find these feedback interviews distasteful in practice. Managers are likely to ignore the responsibility,” (Meyer, 1991). But, this state is impossible to tolerate. Authorities in organization should decide also about the functional mechanism and appropriate ways how the appraisal system could be responsibly implemented and developed.

**Regulative (influencing) understanding of appraisal**

Regulative, or influencing, understanding of evaluation is intensive searching for options to increase quality of work performance, and that by more sensitive or contrariwise more emphasized communication between evaluator (manager) and evaluated individuals, more authoritative or contrariwise more participative style of leadership, etc. This is possible to accomplish by hinging on and deepening mutual trust, increasing objectivity justness of procedural development of evaluation in time, applying more appropriate motivating tools, etc. Hence it is needed to ensure that the evaluating system will consist of summative as well as formative appraisal.

First of these forms – **summative (cumulative, periodical, formalized) appraisal** means the completing, comprehensive appraisal of work performance and behavior for the relevant period, while its form and frequency are set out in the organization policy and strategy of human potential development. According to Rożańska-Bińczyk (2016), periodic appraisal allows to assess the effectiveness of actions taken since the last appraisal in terms of the goals set, as well as the development of knowledge and skills, to identify areas for improvement, etc. (p. 211). In our view, a fact is important that the cumulative appraisal
must be performed in the entire organizational structure of the organization, i.e. in each division, department, and workplace. At the same time, based on the intention to regulate and improve the performances, the appraisal must relate not only to performance/quality of the employees but also performance/quality of the senior employees.

Armstrong (1991) opines that although the periodical ‘stocktaking’ assessment is strongly needed, appraisal should be a continuous process. Formal procedures are all very well, but they cannot replace the day-to-day guidance that is a key part of managerial responsibilities (p. 240). This means that the second form of appraisal – formative (continuous, permanent) appraisal – means continuous monitoring, appraisal and spontaneous supervision of qualitative and quantitative aspects of the performance. This appraisal reflects the mindset and approach to professional practice, the essence of which is the desire to become effective, monitor the current performance compared to some standard way of gathering relevant information, and thus decide on the effectiveness of existing practices as well as how to improve these practices (Smith, 2001: 52–53). The formative, i.e. informal appraisal or day-to-day judgments, is of an ad hoc nature and is as much determined by intuitive feelings as by factual evidence of results (Cole, 1991: 426). It is communicated through a suitable form of conversation (conversation on the job or over coffee, etc.) and is appropriate when time is an issue. But, the longer feedback is delayed, the less likely it is to motivate (i.e. influence or call-up) a behavior change (Mathis & Jackson, 1997).

Comparative (confrontation-trendy) understanding of appraisal

Application of competencies to appraisal, training and other personnel processes will help to increase the performance of employees (Miller et al., 2001). Comparative, or confrontation-trendy, understanding of performance evaluation helps obtain three qualitative-by-time perspectives of evaluated performance:

- It compares past performance with current performance and by that prepares basis for appropriate prediction and influencing of future performance;
- It compares actual performance with performance that was planned, expected and needed for fulfilling of organization’s vision and goals, and by that it provides an opportunity for better identification of individual performances in connection with performance of the organization;
- It compares performances of the evaluated employees with each other within evaluated work group or team, and by that it allows to understand deeper specifics of overall personality capacities and motivation of individuals, and overall growth potential of the whole team.

All of previously listed comparisons mirror the quality of mutual relation and cooperation between manager and his or hers employees. They are becoming valuable tool of managerial systematism in utilizing of discovered trends for the future performance progress.

In a broader and longer-term perspective, the comparative perception of appraisal can be a valuable immediate but also trendy feedback on individual decisions and measures that
the manager applies to the continuous improvement of his or her employees’ performance. Acceptance of more rigorous corrective measures should always be reflected in the changed (improved) work behavior of employees, and also in the overall performance of the work team and the manager him/herself.

This implies in addition to assess and compare the effectiveness and impact of all measures and corrective changes. Measures that did not produce the desired effect either need to be handled by the manager in a more precise form or should no longer be exploited. Conversely, positive action measures should be applied several times, always in the perspective of changing organizational and team conditions, and conditions of situational changes in the performance of staff and manager.

**Communicative (informative-transactional) understanding of appraisal**

Informative-transactional understanding characterizes robust communicative content of appraisal. On the one side, it is needed to beforehand communicate all of evaluating criteria, course of process (Koubek, 2007), way of connecting summative (formalized) and formative (permanent) evaluation, consequences of meeting, exceeding and failing to achieve predetermined criteria and results. On the other hand, evaluator cannot be afraid to ask for completing of his or her evaluating materials and explanation exactly when unexpected forms and consequences of behavior are occurring (for example when applying the key event appraisal method, Milkovich & Boudreau, 1988). Evaluator should also demand decent but open communication from evaluated individuals so it is possible to express and explain identified problems (Stýblo, 2015) and so it is possible to avoid alongside with evaluator all possible deep conflicts and violation of trust between them.

Another important aspect of communication function of appraisal is a need to responsibly prepare and carry out appraisal interviews. In an interview, manager discusses progress with the member of staff. The result of the appraisal interview is some form of agreed action. The action generally materializes in the shape of improvement plan, promotion, etc. (Cole, 1991: 425). In the appraisal interviews, “managers should by mutual communication make employees aware of how appraisal can affect their further work, performance, career progress, remuneration, education as well as relocation to another position or job, or remain in the company, etc. In other words, to make the appraisal system for all parties involved will be comprehensible and not to conceal any information,” (Nekoranec & Petrufová, 2009: 196).

Discussions on performance should always refer to actual events or behavior and to results compared with agreed performance measures (Armstrong, 2009: 628). When the employee senses the manager’s support and approval, the appraisal interview can be highly constructive. But when the climate is one of mistrust and skepticism, the employee is likely to be defensive (Kinard, 1988: 388). This emphasizes the importance of positive feedback.

A bulk of positive feedback (intervention) should be directed to promotion behaviors such as creativity, initiative, creating new products and markets, etc., whereas the negative feedback should be directed at prevention behaviors such as adhering to safety rules, orderliness, and punctuality (Bouskila-Yam & Kluger, 2011).
Same as every other approaches, methods and techniques of other processes of developing and motivating human potential, appraisal is too, and appraisal interviews specifically are, being constantly improved into always more advanced and effective forms. Traditional appraisal interviews are this way being transformed e.g. into a *feedforward interview*. According to Kluger & Nir (2009), the feedforward interview (FFI) is a multi-purpose interview protocol designed to enhance employee performance and improve collaboration between supervisors and subordinates.

If organizations decide to apply this type of appraisal interviews or other sophisticated form of evaluating communication (managed positive feedback, motivational interview, etc.), they will be able to mutually gain, hear, share and reconcile the opinions of persons being evaluated with persons evaluating. This can lead to common searching for and implementation of a higher objectivity, more flexible leadership styles, building a more positive atmosphere, more honest communication about the work and also about relations within the organization and in overall connection towards the stronger motivation.

**Developmental (cultivating) understanding of appraisal**

Performance appraisal has become a general heading for a variety activities through which organizations seek to assess employees and develop their competence (Fletcher, 2001). According to Nurse (2005), workers who believed that performers were not treated fairly as a result of performance appraisal agree that their expectations regarding development and advancement were not being met. This confirms significant relationships between perceptions about treatment of performers and their expectations about career advancement. This means, the close relation among the appraisal, motivation, and career becomes a standard fact in utilizing the received feedback information and intrapersonal results of the self-reflection. According to Kasemsap (2017), the intelligent career highlights the need of or work-related career knowledge in three areas: knowing why, knowing how, and knowing whom.

In wider context it is possible to think not only about consecutive development of professional competences and performance of the evaluated employees but also about development of interpersonal competences and managerial performance of the managers. That means if we will think about connecting developmental and motivational understanding of appraisal, we should appraise also the motivational-developmental forwardness of managers.

Appraising this kind of forwardness of managers by subordinates and other managers can be a strong impulse towards the *development of overall managerial intelligence* of specific manager, and in wider perspective development of intelligence of all managers inside organization as well.

**Causal (definitional) understanding of appraisal**

Causal-definitional understanding of appraisal reveals past causes of current performance and defines lawful consequences that have to be transformed into the future performance. Appraisal by the means of causal function designedly performs feedback to every of key
interpersonal processes: i.e. leadership, communication, building of trust, objective appraisal, and motivating.

Deciphering original causes of performance successes and failures often results into a finding that deficient employees’ performance was caused by their unwillingness and sloppiness. However it can also lead to finding that it is high or contrariwise deficient quality and sloppiness of managers and HR experts in matter of interpersonal (HR) processes that primarily (causally) contributed to this willingness, or contrariwise unwillingness of the appraised individuals.

For this reason, it is necessary for appraisers (especially psychologists) to analyze the expressions and causes of concrete work behavior. On this basis, it is possible to assess not only the performance already performed but also to determine its future possible form and parameters. Causal assessment can predict the future performance and developmental potential of employees and managers and help to better compose the content of their work program. According to Kuvaa (2006), relationship between performance appraisal satisfaction and work performance, is both mediated and moderated by employees’ intrinsic work motivation.

**Multi-object (target-addressing) understanding of appraisal**

Previous text states that the performance appraisal is an irreplaceable and absolutely necessary process of human potential developing and motivating. Any other process cannot be effectively carried out without outputs of the appraisal process, i.e. an objective assessment of the complex working behavior of individuals and groups in an organization. Appraisal in this sense provides an initiative knowledge base and a motivational challenge that together articulate and guide each work behavior, progress, and motivation. Therefore, it is essential for the organization’s management to have relevant and timely knowledge on the performance of all individuals, i.e. all employees and managers of all professional departments and all levels of the organization hierarchy. In other words, as well as in the case of motivating, all the members of the organization should be the object of the performance appraisal.

Multi-object or the target-addressed concept of appraisal therefore reflects the idea that if managers have to manage and precise the performance of their employees, they should be aware of past and current performance parameters and future developmental potency of the overall performance. This means that not only managers at all levels of the organizational structure need to appraise the performance of the executive staff, but higher level managers must also appraise necessarily the performance of lower level managers. Performance of the top managers should be appraised from the side of owner of the organization or organization supervisory board.

Despite the fact that managers often reject the requirement that their own performance should also be judged, the performance of managers must be appraised and thus improved and developed too. There should be no exception here. In this regard Koontz & O’Donnell (1972) present that the managerial appraisal has sometimes been referred to ‘Achilles heel’ of management development. But it is probably a major key to managing itself because if
the manager’s strengths and weaknesses are not known, it would only be accidental that development efforts would be aimed in the right direction (p. 453).

In addition, it is important to appraise the performance of specialists to develop and motivate the human potential of the organization (HR specialists). It is they who are supposed to be a model of dynamism, responsibility, and sustainable progress for all employees and managers.

**Multi-subject (initiation-realization) understanding of appraisal**

Multi-subject, or initiation-realization, understanding of appraisal contains engagement of the highest possible number of relevantly informed evaluators into a process of gathering truthful picture about overall work behavior. According to Byars & Rue (1997) and many others authors, one currently popular method of performance appraisal is called multi-rater assessment or 360-degree feedback (p. 288).

The very contemporary experience suggests that the group of evaluating subjects (appraisers) may consist of a superior (manager), co-worker (colleague, peers), assesse/appraise oneself, subordinate, colleague from other department, manager of a higher level or another department, HR expert, suppliers, customers/clients, employees of state administration and members of professional public (banks, health and social insurance companies, state and self-governing institutions, etc.,) mainly during performance appraisal of employees that those external workers or managers come into professional contact with.

But, one small dangerous arises in this situation. The more subjects are involved in the performance appraisal, the more complications and conflicts can occur. Everybody at the position of appraiser should try to judge the considered performance or working behavior as more objective as possible.

The effort for maximal objectiveness and correctness of reviews can cause that the appraisers are overwhelmed by a lot of administrative tasks which are connected with the making appraisals. This can lead to decrease of evaluative motivation, and this one can call-up the effort to minimize time and simplify the procedures needed in making precise review. In such a situation, appraisals are not fairly-minded and can become and be understood even as the tool of unwillingness, fear, hatred, and aversion. Because of this, “in order to 360-degree appraisals and feedback to be effective, there has to be trust throughout the organization,” (Jones, George, Hill, 1998: 320).

Peculiarity closely tied to motivation is a fact that subjects and objects of appraising and motivating are identical. In other words every person who can motivate individuals and groups can appraise them in the same time, and contrariwise, every person who is able to objectively and fairly appraise the work performance can also motivate individuals and groups towards their improvement.

**Motivational (concluding) understanding of appraisal**

Employee appraisal system is important part of every organization’s motivational system (Veber et al., 2009: 172). The appraisal must always be considered in terms of motivational (motivating) process. It implies encouraging employees and managers to achieve the desired
Motivation: Motivational spirals and decision making

It is natural that employees and managers are motivated to a higher level by their awareness that their work results are good or even above average. They strive to continue to work hard, responsibly, for the organization, work team and themselves. Otherwise, if performance is inadequate, individuals naturally analyze it deeply. They are thinking about causes that prevent them from achieving results as others, strive to increase their efforts and bring their performance to the level of performance of more successful colleagues. Probably just the motivational concept is the most important of all the concepts (understanding) of appraisal: the whole appraisal is performed mainly because of the possibility to motivate the performers more efficiently (Blašková, 2011: 247).

It is necessary to not only appraise the individuals’ performance and thus motivate them, but within mature, sophisticated appraisal systems it is possible and there should be appraised also the motivational competences of managers – because the motivation sets tone for lasting increase in work performance of individuals as well as teams and therefore performance of the whole organization. According to Spence & Baratta (2015), to address the influence of appraiser motivations, appraiser training could incorporate interventions designed to increase motivation to rate accurately and reduce the competing motivations.

From the practical viewpoint the key condition is to enrich and enhance a quality and motivational accent of the existing appraisal system in organization so that the innovated system:

- Motivates the employees and senior employees in desirable way in developing their potential;
- Valuably, really and truly helps further development and achieves higher satisfaction of employees and senior employees at work and in life;
- Is interconnected to the system of remuneration and career development, and provides clear and fair pricing of successful efforts and achievement of excellent results, and provides space for the dynamic progress of each individual and team work;
- Is perceived as a powerful system set of incentives for continuous improvement of the work of each member of the department, division, and organization;
- Prevents the spread of perceived uncertainty and doubt of the potential fears of consequences of small performance or personal imperfections of the employee and senior employee of the organization;
- Is seen as a tool that strongly prevents unauthorized and unethical questioning, defamation or persecution of employees and their work;
- Fully uses the time, efforts and energy embedded in the administration and the subsequent transfer of the acquired knowledge for inspiring action and correct decisions taken by management of the organization, divisions, sections, and departments.

This suggests that motivational appraisal is a very dynamic process in which it meets individual with group, past with present, expected with real, desirable with unwanted, motivated with demotivated, and so on. All perspectives are carried out in order to achieve better future parameters. That is, knowing and reaping the efforts made so far leads to
a better, more motivating influence on future efforts. And, it is necessary to state that if appraisal cannot effectively fulfill each of its functions, it could contribute to not only amotivation but to demotivation of employees and managers as well. It is too risky and therefore the appraisal system has to constantly be improved and cleaned from all undesirable elements.

**Motivation and awareness and communication**

As presented in previous chapters, there is a big difference between work expectations and needs that employees actually feel and how the managers foresee and interpret these needs of employees. Such a difference in perception may be due to just inoperable, impaired communication or incorrect interpretation of gained responses and requests from the employees and managers. If an organization management is based on the misinterpretation of importance of their employees’ motivational or other job preferences, i.e. if this one incorrectly draws conclusions from ongoing communication and sharing information, managerial mechanisms and activating documents can become adjusted in a false way. Incorrect knowledge bases on motivation and possible ways of motivating could potentially be dangerous, even fatal for the organization. From mentioned reason, it is important to properly understand the motivation, its complexity, overall structure and, above all, its consequences for the organization. Communication and awareness (as its result) in these experiential processes play an important role, both in motivating and demotivating way.

**Communication**

Communication is a symbolic process in which individuals exchange perceptions and ultimately build a knowledge bank for themselves and for others, for the purpose of shaping future actions (Byers, 1997). It serves as an important channel of transferring and sharing information (Vanatham, Jambulingama & Matiah, 2016) and aims to understand and reduce uncertainty on both sides of the communication (Holá, 2006). Communication may serve a motivational function: communication encourages commitment to organizational objectives, thus enhancing motivation (Aldag & Kuzuhara, 2015: 145). This one motivates to social interactions and sharing new ideas. In this sense, communication serves as a form of dissemination of one’s knowledge and discoveries (Li & Fischer, 2004: 400).

Communication participates in the creation and regulation of a subject’s behavior in the way it directs the allocation of information because people communicate in order to receive data, or to exchange and modify it and, using such data, they perceive and can persuade thus potentially forming social ties (Urban, 2014). When concentrating attention to the core competences of talented (highly motivated) individuals, the communication competence consists in communicating well, both verbally and in writing, effectively conveying and sharing information and ideas with others, listening carefully and understanding various viewpoints, presenting ideas clearly and concisely and understanding relevant detail in presented information (Berger & Berger, 2004: 7).

The relationship between the communication and the awareness must be mutual. Employees and managers should communicate with each other in order to be mutually
informed on future tasks, objectives, expected risks, results achieved, and able to utilize them even better. Vice-versa, members of the organization should be informed on how formal communication links are operating. It is needed to instill them the principle that the informal communication links must always support the organization’s vision and mission.

It is important because of, unfortunately, “informal spontaneous communication comes at a cost: interruption. Modern communication technologies have made communication more convenient but have also increased sources of interruption. Empirical research demonstrates the costs associated with interruptions in the workplace,” (Dabbish & Kraut, 2004). This leads to knowledge we have to put emphasis on the necessity to remove unwished barriers, and strengthen the feedback in communication relations (Owen, 2006). It means we have to respect the communication is a two-way process – it is about saying something, listening to the response, responding accordingly (King & Lawley, 2013), waiting for and listening the opinions and new suggestions from the side of communication partner, expressing strong interest in partner and his or her attitudes, etc.

It is necessary to very carefully pay attention to the nature of feedback. Feedback should be motivating, conducive. According to Barrett, people feel happiness when they get positive feedback – when they are praised or acknowledged by someone they respect (Barret, 2014). Feedback must not be hurtful because it could induce undesirable response in terms of decrease of performance, effort, belief, motivation, and willingness to engage in further processes. The unexpected benefit may be the feedback based on the de-encryption of nonverbal communication (Tegze, 2003) or decoding meta-communicational (hidden) messages (Tubbs & Moss, 1991; Buda, 1994; Mikulástík 2003), which can detect malfunctioning communication, point to the specific errors in the communication systems of individuals and groups, and thus show that awareness in the organization is incomplete and fails to fulfill the role of necessary platform for the motivation and security.

We asked respondents in our survey from 2016 whether they consider the communication by their superiors to be open. This question was identical for both employees and managers (Table 29).

Table 29. Openness of communication from the side of superior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Managers</th>
<th></th>
<th>Employes</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>42.58</td>
<td>675</td>
<td>32.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rather yes</td>
<td>232</td>
<td>41.50</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>38.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>12.70</td>
<td>432</td>
<td>20.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rather no</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1.97</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>5.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>1.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>559</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>2,067</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Answers show that managers consider the communication at the workplace to be more open than employees.

We focused in the deeper calculation on the motivating versus communication. The comparison of calculated value (266.209) at the degree of freedom 8 with the table value
confirmed the dependence between selected processes (Table 30). We can establish on the
grounds of this calculation that our assumption that motivating and communication mutually
affect each other and are inseparably connected and interlinked was justified. That means
that it is not possible to motivate without communication, and vice versa, for the
communication to be open, friendly and effective, it must be carried out with the
motivational accent.

Table 30. Chi square test for motivating and communication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>266.209*</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>300.724</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>213.285</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td>2,067</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We can even claim that the process of motivate cannot function without the open and
friendly communication – as in such case it does not have sufficient impulses and transferred
conviction and enthusiasm.

Table 31. Frequency of characters between motivating and communication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Communication</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>Rather yes</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Rather no</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Motivating</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>327</td>
<td>316</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>753</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, with participation</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>329</td>
<td>404</td>
<td>310</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>1105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>675</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>432</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>2,067</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Similarly as in the case of complex work performance appraisal, we can see also here
that when participating in decision making on how to motivate employees more than half of
such employees confirmed that the communication at their workplace is really open and
friendly.

Motivational content of communication

Communication openness is positively and significantly related to motivation (Kay
& Christophel, 1995). In order to harmonize interconnection and potential benefits of
communication and high motivation, it is necessary to consider not only the abundance of
quality information for employees but it is necessary to focus attention on the content and
the difficulty of communicating on motivation. More specifically, the complexity of
motivating lies in the fact the employees and managers are often unable to accurately define
and express what constitutes their work motivation and what exactly they expect from the
work – what will bring them the desired satisfaction. Content of primary and secondary
motivational categories of each individual is unique and it is always a very special and personal and many individuals consider it to be sensible and do not like to present it to the others. In addition, it is not easy to navigate absolutely perfectly in one’s own motivation. Bedrnová, Nový et al. (2004) made similar comments: “Investigation of motivation is difficult. It is because man him/herself does not realize his or her motivation in all its complexity and complex structure and, therefore, often is unable to speak about it.”

The importance and seriousness of communication and awareness in relation to the motivation must be considered also from the managerial viewpoint. “Communication serves to motivate; clarify duties, authority, and responsibilities; and permit the expression of feelings,” (Aldag & Kuzuhara, 2015). Mayfield, Mayfield & Sharbrough (2015), based on motivating language theory, point out that top leaders can construct and transmit a strategic vision of communications for improving organizational performance. Motivating language has to include a multilevel and external communication, and should be supported by a cybernetic feedback process. Through communication we are comforted and feel empathy from others; but on the other hand, through communication we are hurt, abused and trivialized by others (Bratton, 2015). It means, the communication has both positive and negative impacts on the motivation, and thus, it must be carefully performed and desirably mixed (from the perspective of combine both verbal and nonverbal communication).

From the positive viewpoint, the thorough awareness as well the open and motivating communication realized by the organization management structure might be understood as the effective motivational tools. According to Figurska (2012), reciprocal information is an essential factor of motivation. Employees must have truthful information regarding their duties and the content of their role in achieving the objectives and their impact on organizational success. They must therefore obtain information on the organization as well emerging chances, and threats. It is also important to ensure not only enough information but also the sufficient diversity and objective credibility of it.

The creative employees should have information derived from primary and secondary sources: books, journals, reports, specifications and norms, rules of procedures, laws and decrees, professional literature, internal reports, etc. (Sokół, 2015) and when are able to freely express their concerns, an atmosphere is created that leads to more cohesive and effective functioning, regardless of geographical and cultural differences (Walumbwa, Christensen & Haile, 2011).

However, in order the communication-informational motivators are capable to discharge their potency in depth, it is necessary to allow employees and managers being able to communicate openly, without fear or embarrassment when their ideas considered will not be perfect, or without fear of sanctions when the information concerns the warnings on inefficiencies in the organization. Frankel points out that comments and suggestions from anyone within and without the organization should be encouraged and given serious consideration no matter from which level or individual they originate and how critical they may be. … Employee suggestions and involvement must be recognized and rewarded (Frankel, 2008: 14).

Compared with the easier understandable verbal communication, the importance of nonverbal communication more and more increases at present. Non-verbal channels such as
nodding head, encouraging glance and other gesture serve as an illustration to enhance people’s speech or argument (Buda, 1994; Tegze, 2003; Ekman, 2004). Employees and managers use such illustrators to emphasize their message more effectively (Vanathas, Jambulingama & Matiah, 2016). However, *great vigilance* must prevail in the use of nonverbal communication channels. Positive non-verbal communication (smile communication, closeness, encouraging touch, etc.) can significantly strengthen the motivation. It can enhance the veracity of the claims and overall cultivation of the performed communication. On the other hand, the negative nonverbal communication (aggressive voice, frown or haughty view, posture full of negative power, etc.) is mostly judged as being very harmful to the motivation.

**Motivational content of awareness**

When considering communication from the viewpoint of an *organizational culture*, culture encourages the cooperation and effective mutual communication across the organization (Kachanáková, Stachová & Stacho, 2014) which strengthens the motivation. If the employee is to be motivated to behave in compliance with values of the organization and subsequently to support and develop its vision, objectives and intentions, such employee needs to know them from the first moment s/he enters the organization, or from the moment s/he starts to be interested in work in the organization. Values, objectives and strategy of the organization should be clearly declared (Ahonen et al., 2008; Ohara & Cherniss, 2010; Gillier, et al., 2012) in information materials of the organization, as well as in the organization’s premises with significant emphasis on those rooms which job applicants enter. Job applicants can then on the grounds of knowing values, vision and objectives of the organization assess whether they will be able to identify with them, i.e. whether they are suitable applicants for the organization. Their *motivation to get the job* in the organization should increase or decrease on the grounds of learning the mentioned information.

New, acquired employees should be subsequently helped within the adaptation to the organizational culture to be steered through the set vision, objectives and intentions and also the existing social standards, standards of behavior and actions, acknowledged values as well as status symbols and other means of the organizational culture with the aim to identify them with these elements or adapt to them to the highest possible degree. In the process of orientation, the perspective of the employee must be changed within the shortest possible time from ‘you’ and ‘yours’ to ‘we’ and ‘ours’.

In case the organization gets during its existence into a situation when it changes or modifies its objectives and intentions, its employees as well as other stakeholders must be informed about such changes as complexly as possible. It is also necessary to take into account the concept of management used in the organization, where the knowledge on objectives can have even more important position, especially when the organization decides to apply the concept of management according to objectives. Many organizations use this managerial approach as an organic part of its management system even today (Sedláčk, 2012).

It is necessary to regularly verify whether the level of knowledge on objectives, intentions and problems or successes of organization is sufficient and subsequently to
appraise the behavior of employees, whether they act in compliance and support the defined objectives and intents or not. In case of positive findings employees should be commended or remunerated, which will further increase their motivation to continue in the way of their act. Such employees are then even more significantly engaged in solving any problems that might occur in the organization. This leads to a statement of Katopol that the level of employees’ knowledge (awareness) of objectives of the organization, its current trading results as well as its achieved successes and problems it must face, is directly reflected in the loyalty of employees (2007), which is based on the understanding why the management of the organization does behave as it does and why it is necessary to implement changes and various measures in the organization.

When connecting awareness with the self-motivation, an idea has to be also mentioned: The self-improvement motive leads people to “improve their traits, abilities, skills, health status, or well-being,” (Sedikides & Strube, 1997). This motivates seeking genuine improvement and personal growth. The motive is inferred from behaviors such as actively approaching and coping with problems, seeking information that enables improvement, practicing existing skills, and choosing to work on remedial tasks that reduce deficiencies (Silvia & Duval, 2004).

Table 32. Chi square test for communication and awareness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>675.809*</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>576.112</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>483.685</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td>2,626</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We have therefore also considered in our survey the interconnection between the degree of awareness of objectives, aims and problems and the open communication. Table 32 shows the calculation of dependence between these two factors with the significance level 0.05% and at the degree of freedom 16. We compared the calculated value with the table value, which is 26.296. As the calculated value of the chi-square is significantly higher (675.809), this indicates a very strong dependence and interconnection between these two factors.

Table 33. Frequency of characters between communication and awareness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Awareness</th>
<th>Communication</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>Rather yes</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Rather no</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>493</td>
<td>289</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>873</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rather yes</td>
<td>311</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1,036</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>543</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rather no</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>913</td>
<td>1,032</td>
<td>503</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>2,626</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It can be seen in the following cross-table (Table 33) that only when employees and managers are sufficiently informed on all the goals and intentions of their organization, they consider the communication to be open and friendly.

Stated simply: motivational communication promotes a motivating atmosphere and an instigative environment in the organization.

**Power of communication in motivating**

Communication has undeniable and extremely strong ties to the motivation. Just its accuracy, frequency, clarity and willingness can have a major impact on the quality, orientation, and sustainability of the organization members’ motivation. The problem of sophistication of the communication arises forcefully: communication must be decent, carried out perfectly and directed positively. It should be focused on inducing positive impressions, voluntary admission of high responsibility and enthusiasm for the joint metes and challenges. An active togetherness of verbal and nonverbal communication appears to have possible contribution. Verbal communication puts an emphasis, accent, and necessity. Smile communication, identical physical and habit emblems, squeezing a mutual distance, empathy, etc., give depth, a sense of reciprocity, support, dignity, and mutual esteem. Just such a communication convinces the motivation.

In addition, the content and possibilities of the organization’s motivational program should be intentionally communicated to all employees and managers. Based on understanding the organizational motivation program, the managers can create appropriate sectional (group) and individualized programs for their employees. Employees must know what their growth opportunities and prospects in organization are, what profits could be earned in return for extra work. They must know they are highly valued for their manager.

Based on our surveys results, it is appropriate to activate interdependence between quality of communication and quality of motivation. This means communication must also be about the need for constantly update and dynamize all the types of motivation programs within the organization. The necessity of proactive changes and culture of high performance should be implanted into the behavior of the organization members. This necessity has to be built on a high level of understanding, fellowship, and sharing views on processes and efficiency within the organization. In this situation, it is needed to obtain as much as possible inspirations and suggestions from the employees and managers on how the new motivation program should be aimed, what elements should become the parts of this program, in what way should be transformed the organizational program into the group/sectional and individualized programs, in what way should be these programs evaluated, etc. This implies a huge amount of communicated facts related to the quantitative and qualitative content, events, or elements. It is necessary to motivate employees and managers to be willing to communicate in this area and thus provide expected inspirations – communicate not only about the work but also about the opportunities that can improve its course and increase the feeling of joy from work done.

A key aim of such a broad conception of the link between communication and motivation is to achieve the state in which the quality of communication and awareness will
reasonably be resulted in *permanent harmonizing all the motivations in the organization*. Based on the cultivated communication, the following motives *must be harmonized* inside the organization:

- Motives of the employees with motives of the managers;
- Motives of the individuals with motives of the group;
- Motives of the groups with motives of the organization;
- Contemporary motives with future motives;
- Egoistic motives with social, altruistic motives;
- Accelerative motives with dampening motives;
- Performance motives with relationship motives;
- Short-term motives with long-term motives, and so on.

In other words, communication should become a means of connection of many motivations of many individuals and groups. Communication should be motivating; communication and its improvement should become the motivation. And, motivation and its contents must be communicated to the others so that the individual motivations may become the common motivations.

Of course, with regard to our attempt to verify the hypothesis about the existence of *symbiotic relationship* between the motivation and key processes of human potential development, we also examined the *positivity of atmosphere at the workplace*. We asked managers whether they create the atmosphere of trust, helpfulness and belongingness for their employees. On the other hand, we have applied also a counter-hierarchical perspective, and asked employees how they see it: whether they have the feeling that such positive atmosphere is actually created for them (Table 34).

| Table 34. Building the atmosphere of trust, willingness and belongingness |
|---------------------------------|--------|--------|--------|
|                                | Managers |        | Employees |        |
|                                | Frequency | %     | Frequency | %     |
| Yes                            | 286      | 51.16 | 681      | 32.95 |
| Rather yes                     | 237      | 42.40 | 727      | 35.17 |
| Average                        | 30       | 5.37  | 462      | 22.35 |
| Rather no                      | 4        | 0.72  | 142      | 6.87  |
| No                             | 2        | 0.36  | 55       | 2.66  |
| Total                          | 559      | 100.00| 2,067    | 100.00|

It can be seen in Table that the opinion of employees and managers slightly differs. Much more managers have the feeling that they regularly create the friendly atmosphere for their employees, but employees do not perceive it so much. This difference in opinions can cause a needless disturbance of the motivation and motivational actions of managers toward employees, but also vice versa, can disturb feedback actions of employees toward their superiors.
We tested this interconnection also by the chi square test calculation (Table 35), where we compared the calculated value (301.303) at the degree of freedom 8 with the table value (15.507). We can establish on the grounds of this calculation that the verification of our hypothesis on the motivational effect on employees is facilitated by the helpful and friendly atmosphere results in a significant association at the 95% confidence level.

**Table 35. Chi square test for motivating and atmosphere of trust and belongingness**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>301.303</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>324.622</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>242.837</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td>2,067</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following Table 36 (cross-table) shows not only the confirmation of mutual influence of motivating and positive atmosphere, but also the fact that such atmosphere can be maintained especially by participation and involvement of employees in decision making about the motivation. It was in this case where more than half of employees confirmed that their working environment is characterized by the atmosphere of trust, helpfulness, and belongingness.

**Table 36. Frequency of characters between motivation and atmosphere of trust and belongingness**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ATMOSPHERE OF TRUST AND BELONGINGNESS</th>
<th>YES</th>
<th>RATHER YES</th>
<th>AVERAGE</th>
<th>RATHER NO</th>
<th>NO</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOTIVATING</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>352</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>753</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, with participation</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>389</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>1105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>681</td>
<td>727</td>
<td>462</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>2,067</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Motivation and atmosphere of trust and belongingness**

Trust is a fundamental pillar of motivation. Motivation cannot exist without the trust and reciprocally trust cannot exists and grow without the motivation. Trust is presumably the most important and with the highest priority amongst all processes and elements of management and development of human potential examined in relation with the motivation and motivating. It represents imaginary quality or concept that is being stored only inside minds and hearts of people, however by that much more sensitively reacting to any fluctuations within relationships, moods, promises, loyalty, performance, efficiency, and also future resolutions, and desires.
On the other hand when concreting attention to the *belongingness*, this means effort to belong somewhere, to have support in social environment, to be accepted by someone and absolutely received, pulled in partnership, and that with all of positive and negative personality traits. This effort – effort to reach sense of belonging, a companionship – can be a strong motive for desired behavior. Companionship alongside with trust has unmeasurable fire and intensity; together they move motivation forward towards qualitatively peak level and strengthen desire for mankind.

**Trust and belongingness**

There is a lack of consensus among theorists and researchers regarding a definition of trust, but they all have emphasized on importance of trust (Javadi et al., 2012). This means, that similarly as in case of motivation determination, the definition of trust has to consider the perspectives of many modern sciences too. According to Kiliç-Bebek, these various approaches are grouped into three categories: a) dispositional (i.e. trust is personal tendency that applies across various circumstances); b) situational (i.e. trust is behavior determined by certain conditions); c) developmental or interpersonal (i.e. trust is a process that goes through stages and evolves over time), (2009: 13).

Within organizations, the trust is crucial in all types and directions of relationships (Judeh, 2012). Trust is a psychological state comprising the intent to accept vulnerably based on positive expectations of the behavior or another (Rousseau et al., 1998), regardless of his/her ability to control the others (McKnight et al., 2002). Trust (as the dependent variable) is seen as a rational or, at least, reasonable choice based on the trustor’s perception of the trustee’s trustworthiness (as the independent variable), (Möllering, 2006).

Trust is the general belief of the individual on integrity and cooperative intentions of the others (Yamagishi, 1988) – the reciprocal trust emerges only in a social context (Fukuyama, 1995). According to Soanes & Stevenson, trust is firm belief in the reliability, truth, or ability of someone or something (2003: 1893). So, in our opinion, the trust is a dynamic phenomenon, stemming in the cognition, experience and soul of the individual, and affecting the understanding of all social and value elements and acts of other individuals or groups. It is affected by many types of factors and elements, e.g. material, time, spatial, and especially, relational, intelligent, emotional, commemorative, experiential, cognitive, etc. And, maybe, the level of felt happiness or sadness or disappointment arisen from relations with a concrete individual is a key basis deciding on willingness to trust this individual.

The importance of trust is indirectly accented also in the opinion of Walumbwa, Christensen & Haile (2011): “In a heterogeneous world, where managing individuals and companies across hemispheres has become a challenging adventure, special leaders are required – leaders who not only possess the skills to manage teams and comprehend the ongoing challenges posed by traditional managerial hindrances – such as motivating, rewarding, and accountability – but leaders who also have to be able to convey their messages in an efficient and trustworthy manner.”

From the perspective of real and ‘living’ trust within the organizations, the managers and human potential experts have to be always willing and ready for all employees’ answers
Chapter 8: Symbiotic motivational spirals

or demands that are relevant. But this managers’ reliability is based on belief that the employees are able and willing to work zealously and develop seriously all their potential. And, this is the trust which is the basic and irreplaceable element that phenomenally keeps everything and everyone together, i.e. deeply and actively interconnected, and in mutual relations moved to the higher levels.

When increasing the manager’s trust viewed by eyes of his or her employees and colleagues, a feedback might be consider as useful, and even inevitable managerial instrument. “The efficiency of feedback will enable manager to identify weak points in his or her work and achieve ideas from the others and then take appropriate measures which will lead to higher levels of achievement,” (Lendel & Varmus, 2013).

Employees have to be always willing and able to fulfill all demands, tasks, and goals set through their managers and/or managerial system of the organization. But such employees’ credibility and confidence-ability have to be built on belief and conviction that the managers and organization staff are able and willing to do their work seriously and zealously and help employees in their potential development. And (similarly as in case of the managers), feedback would also be an inspirational tool for employees in achieving their results, ambitions, and metes.

We can point out that the belongingness, as second accented term in this subchapter, represents the absolute top-fulfillment of human social needs. To achieve and experience the full matter-of-fact of the belongingness is possible only in the atmosphere of trust and partnership. Equally as the trust, also the belongingness is a sensational, socially imagined and experienced, and on the feelings grounded phenomenon.

According to Baumeister & Leary (1995), the need of belong has two main features. Fist, people need frequent personal contacts or interactions with the other person, and ideally, these interactions would be affectively positive or pleasant. Second, people need to perceive that there is an interpersonal bond or relationship marked by stability, affective concern, and continuation into the foreseeable future (p. 500).

**Motivational content of trust and belongingness**

It is logical that employees, in the selection of organization which they want to work for, certainly make decisions based on several reasons. However, the key are both the emotional elements (trust, image of the organization), and rational elements (financial, career). As will be clear from the our survey results presented in next subchapter, the trust and positive relational atmosphere (reliability in relationship from the side of organization managers and staff) play an important role for employees, and can help in building progressive, well-functioned organization – excellent employees and managers create the foundation of excellent (perfect) organization.

**Motivational content of trust**

Trust represents the individual’s estimate on how likely other individual is to fulfill his or her cooperative commitments; the risk or whether to cooperate, and with whom, may be determined by, among other things, the degree of trust (Griffiths & Luck, 2003). While
motivation and trust are essentially independent, each may well moderate the other. Higher levels of trust permit and sustain the opportunity for intrinsic motivation (Käser & Miles, 2002: 167).

All individuals must assess both how much they trust their partner and how much their partner trusts them. The conclusions of such deliberations, in turn, impact that individual’s further actions (Culmer, 2012: 70). This leads to the idea that it is needed to consider trust in relation with the object and subject of motivating, i.e. to respect potential nuances and contradictions within motivational process. On the one side there has to exist strong and unshakeable trust in motivator (superior) that he or she is able to choose such a motivational approach, to develop such a group (common) program, to concretize such an individualized motivational programs and to apply such a motivational conditions, tools, events and measures which can sensitively and non-aggressively support motivation of individuals and groups.

On the other side, if motivating subject is supposed to generate such an effort and effectively and ethically motivate his or hers employees (individually or together in teams), he or she has to trust them. It is necessary for subject to trust that all of motivating decisions and measures will be accepted correctly by motivated individuals as well as by the whole group, as an active managerial help and facilitation of progress and employees’ personality cultivation.

Trust as a concept is complex and in order it to work, it requires both trusting intentions i.e. a willingness to make oneself vulnerable to another in the presence of risk (Kim, Dirks & Cooper, 2009: 406) and trusting beliefs, i.e. the perceived trust-relevant qualities of the trustee, such as competence, integrity, or benevolence (McKnight, Cummings & Chervany, 1988).

It is possible to unfold mentioned above ideas in the spirit of concept that trust has strong reciprocal, emotional, causal and consequential base:

- **Reciprocal base** represents the real nature of trust in relation with the motivation, i.e. trust, that is being built and motivated by previous reliability, increases motivation to trust in future as well, and maybe to trust not only specific trustworthy individual but to consider extending portfolio of trusted objects (individuals) which he or she will trust in future as well.

- **Emotional base** underlines the emotive origin and matter of trust. Although objective elements within the social interaction influence trust very strongly (e.g. number of assignments that were delivered late, length of delay to the work meeting, etc.), emotional (subjectively perceived) shading of reciprocity hits trust even harder and for longer. Reason of this is fact that experiencing relationship disappointment, violation of partnership and companionship inside work relationships is much more hurtful than random, involuntary or underestimated mistake.

- **Causal base** represents primary impulse, cause or reasons, which instigated formation of the trust of one individual towards another individual. Positive references from other people can initiate a trust, and contrariwise negative references can pose a significant deceleration or maybe even absolute ‘stop’ in building trust
towards untrustworthy individuals. As another impulse for creation of trust it is possible to mention anticipation, fluid, felt sympathy (primary affection built by influence of gained indirect references from other people, or affection caused by nonverbal communication channels – smell, pheromones), etc.

- **Consequential base** explains impact of previous trust relationships on current and future quality, depth and strength of trust and motivation. It represents dynamics of trust. Previous trust can result into distrust and vice-versa previous mistrust can later result into a trust. Despite of initial rejection of trust towards specific individuals, continual and ever repeating new proofs of individual’s honesty of intents and ethics of their actions can help overcome primary resentment and the individual can begin to purposely and thoughtfully open up oneself to this relationship. This purposeful ‘launch’ of trust is presumably accompanied by clear definition of reasons and future consequences in case of one individual starting to (probably sporadically at first) manifest the trust. System of second chances can improve quality of work, motivation, communication, decency, etc. On the other hand, because trust and motivation are the most fragile phenomena of human spirit – building them is hard and it requires a long time – they can disappear in a blink of an eye. It is possible to destroy even longtime trust that was lasting for years. Therefore it is obvious that it is consequential base of trust which within itself transforms its other forms, reciprocal, emotional and causal.

In addition to aforementioned trust triggers it is possible to consider many others. For example, Kim, Dirks & Cooper (2009) explain that trust can arise for a variety of reasons, including an individual’s disposition to trust; feelings of dependence; a belief that impersonal structures such as regulations and laws support one’s likelihood of success in a given situation; and rapid, cognitive cues arising from group membership, reputations, and stereotypes (p. 407).

**Motivational content of belongingness**

Belongingness is generally understood as one of the basic human motives and needs (e.g. Maslow, 1970). The awareness of people that they are accepted, involved, and rewarded by the others who like, communicate willingly, share ideas with and agree with them, etc., makes them feel good (Fiske, 2010). As a fundamental motivation, the need to belong and be accepted should instigate goal-directed activity designed to satisfy it. People should show tendencies to seek out interpersonal contacts and cultivate possible relationships, at least until they have reached a minimum level of social contact and relatedness (Baumeister & Leary, 1995: 500)

This means, because of motivation reflects the mosaic of intricately structured motives, and one of the most important motives is just the belongingness, the very matter-of-fact of belongingness is absolutely motivational. Vice-versa, the absence or impossibility to achieve the feeling of fulfillment of ‘our-ness’ could cause either amotivation or even de-motivation.

It is almost impossible to live a healthy life without some form of social connection with other people (Baumeister, 2005). More concretely, based on the comparison of many
authors’ opinions, Leary & Cox (2008) suggest that although belongingness motivation reflect on the one hand a single broad motive that can be directed toward establishing relationships with an array of targets (e.g. friends, family members, mates, group members), on the other hand it actually consists of several discrete motives that direct efforts to establish relationships with various categories of individuals (p. 29).

In other words, belongingness motivation may have a heterogeneous complicated internal structure (i.e. diverse spectrum of relational motifs). This leads to the social/belongingness motivation sub-paradox: belongingness is an element (with a vital importance) of human motivation and represents a subsystem of human motivation understood as a superior motivational system of human beings. Simultaneously, belongingness is internally structured and differenced to such a level and depth that it represents a single, ‘quasi-independent’ system with its own structure, dynamics, positives, and controversies. This means, belongingness motivation is a system which represents a subsystem of motivation system.

**Building the trust and belongingness**

We can understand the process of building the trust and belongingness as this process is (equally as the process of motivating people) ‘permanently self-driven’. This could be true both in a positive and negative sense. It means the trust that was built and formed in previous intentional efforts, can become a matured and simultaneously an introductive/initial basis for strengthen, re-build, and deepen the next trust.

As support of this our suggestion we can use for example the opinions of Käser & Miles (2002): “…achievement of one level of trust serves as a starting point for the creation of the next higher level of trust,” (p. 161), and Jagd & Fulglsang (2016): “trust is created and reproduced through interactive processes,” (p. 3).

The review made by Okelo & Gilson in 2015 revealed that workplace trust relationships influence the intrinsic motivation: workplace trust had both positive and negative influences over motivation and were reflected in other motivational determinants like recognition, appreciation and rewards; supervision; teamwork; management and welfare support; communication, feedback and openness; and staff shortages, heavy workload and resource unavailability. The review also revealed that interpersonal and organizational factors influence the development of workplace trust relationships. “Although not the focus of this review, consequences of workplace trust over, for example, retention, performance and quality of care were also identified,” (Okelo & Gilson, 2015).

Trust that employees have towards the organization they work for, could be increased by the participation (Benz, 2010: 206). Similarly, a procedural justice increases both the amount of trust employees place in their line manager and commitment to the organization (Weibel & Rota, 2010: 181). In addition, a perceived listening increased supportiveness, trust, and intrinsic motivation (Stine, Thompson & Cusella, 1995). And, while deep and all-encompassing trust may not be called for in a work situation when it does emerge, it can make work easier. It does this by forming the basis for greater openness in the relationship on all fronts (Cohen et al., 1992: 291).
But, on the other hand, from the negative reciprocal perspective, there exist a lot of various factors that cause or call up the lack of trust, i.e. distrust in the organization. For example, Mubyazi et al. (2012) state that trust was undermined and workers demotivated where managers practiced favoritism, bias and discrimination during promotion and allocation of seminar and training opportunities. Another (de-motivational) reason commonly linked to motivational burnout is stress (Ractham & Thompson, 2015). We believe that the trust and belongingness may be understood as very helpful in such situations and can add the desirable support and energy for getting one into a standard psychical and performance mood.

Methods and hypotheses for symbiotic motivation-process spirals

Based on our endeavor to confirm the hypothesized dependencies of motivation and crucial human potential development processes, we decided firstly to search the quality of touched processes in 2016 survey: i.e. leadership styles, appraisal, communication, and atmosphere.

We set the null hypothesis $H_0$: The probability that the motivation (to quality work, skills development, new ideas and so on) under the circumstances (e.g. in the autocratic, neutral or participative leadership styles, or in the objective appraisal, or at the open communication, or in the atmosphere of trust) is high, is equal to $\pi$.

An alternative hypothesis $H_1$ was set as follows: The probability that the motivation for analyzed motivating targeting is high, is lower than the value of $\pi$.

Hypotheses verification and results

To maintain the logic of this chapter, the results, or the answers of respondents concerning just the explored crucial processes of human potential management and development, will initially be presented. Because of this, the attention and content of the following subchapters will consist in presenting partial results achieved in these processes, and after then, in next subchapters, the attention will be devoted to search stated hypotheses $H_0$ and $H_1$.

Applied style of leadership

In one of the initial questions of our surveys performed in 2006, 2009, 2013, and 2016, we were interested in the quality of leadership style. We asked employees how they are led by their manager (what style of leadership is applied towards them from the side of their superior). Managers were questioned how they lead their employees (what style of leadership they apply towards their employees). Responses options were as follows: participative, neutral, and autocratic. Comparisons of the employees’ expressions and versus managers’ expressions are presented in Table 37.

It flows from the Table that more than three quarters of managers (78.18%) claim that they lead employees by the participation, and only 8.6% of them state that they use the autocracy. However, only half (50.22%) of employees confirm the participatory and up to 17.22% give the autocracy.
**Table 37. Applied style of leadership: expressions of employees versus managers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Style of leadership</th>
<th>Employees (2,067 = 78.71% of all)</th>
<th>Managers (559 = 21.29% of all)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participative</td>
<td>1,038</td>
<td>50.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>673</td>
<td>32.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autocratic</td>
<td>356</td>
<td>17.22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Objectiveness of performance appraisal**

To evaluate issue on fairness and objectiveness of work performance appraisal, Likert 5-point scale was chosen again where respondents could choose from the following answers: 5 – yes; 4 – rather yes; 3 – average; 2 – rather not; 1 – not. To meet the needs of a significant evaluation, we structured these answers into the following three categories: yes (answer/level 4 + 5); sometimes (answer/level 3); no (answer/level 1 + 2). Table 38 shows the percentage of relative evaluation of individual response categories, as well as average value (mean) of achieved response level (on a scale 1 – 5).

Concretely, the Table contains separately included answers of the employees versus the manager, upper quartile, median, and lower quartile of these responses. In addition, the grouped results of both employees and managers are shown in the bottom of Table.

Table shows that only 71.41%, i.e. less than three quarters of employees considered appraisal as wholly or mostly objective (answer/level 1 + 2). This result is insufficient and points out that either appraisers are too much critical or appraised are too much benevolent in regards to the work performance self-reflection. This indicates problems in interpersonal motivation (i.e. wrongly perceived managerial work) and intrapersonal motivation (incorrectly understood work demands and criteria).

Additionally, 7.25% of questioned employees stated that they perceive the appraisal of their work performance as mostly or absolutely unfair (when connecting searched answer/level 4 + 5).

In a group of manager, situation is a little better: 85.86% of them consider the appraisal of their performance as wholly or mostly fair and objective. Only 2.33% of managers consider their appraisal as unfair.

**Openness of communication**

Continuing in our survey presentation, we investigated whether the respondents consider the communication performed towards them as an open and effective. To evaluate these issues, Likert 5-point scale was chosen again.
Table 38. Objectiveness of work performance appraisal

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Employees</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Managers</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>All</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>All</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total %</td>
<td>Total %</td>
<td>Total %</td>
<td>Total %</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>33.58</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>558</td>
<td>27.00</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>27.53</td>
<td>338</td>
<td>26.66</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>33.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mostly yes</td>
<td>918</td>
<td>44.41</td>
<td>349</td>
<td>43.68</td>
<td>569</td>
<td>44.87</td>
<td>295</td>
<td>52.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Averagely</td>
<td>441</td>
<td>21.34</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>21.40</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>21.29</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>11.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mostly no</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>5.27</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>5.01</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>5.44</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>1.74</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Mostly) yes (4+5)</td>
<td>1,476</td>
<td>71.41</td>
<td>569</td>
<td>71.21</td>
<td>907</td>
<td>71.53</td>
<td>480</td>
<td>85.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Averagely (3)</td>
<td>441</td>
<td>21.34</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>21.40</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>21.29</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>11.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Mostly) no (1+2)</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>7.26</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>7.38</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>7.18</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1.84</td>
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<tr>
<td>Upper q.</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower q.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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</table>

Employees + managers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer</th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total %</td>
<td>Total %</td>
<td>Total %</td>
<td>Total %</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>33.58</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>743</td>
<td>28.29</td>
<td>313</td>
<td>28.87</td>
<td>430</td>
<td>27.89</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mostly yes</td>
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<td>46.19</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>46.13</td>
<td>713</td>
<td>46.24</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>507</td>
<td>19.31</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>18.91</td>
<td>302</td>
<td>19.58</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mostly no</td>
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<td>4.57</td>
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<td>75</td>
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<td>43</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>22</td>
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<tr>
<td>Average (3)</td>
<td>507</td>
<td>19.31</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>18.91</td>
<td>302</td>
<td>19.58</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Mostly) no (1+2)</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>6.21</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>6.09</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>6.29</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 39 shows the percentage of relative evaluation of individual response categories, as well as average value (mean) of achieved response level (on a scale 1 – 5). Almost a third of respondents (27%) consider quality of communication only as average or even insufficient. When examining communication openness, answers of female were on average lower than the value of male.
Table 39. Openness of communication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Employees</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Managers</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>All</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>All</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>675</td>
<td>32.66</td>
<td>267</td>
<td>33.42</td>
<td>408</td>
<td>32.18</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>42.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mostly yes</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>38.70</td>
<td>316</td>
<td>39.55</td>
<td>484</td>
<td>38.17</td>
<td>232</td>
<td>41.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Averagely</td>
<td>432</td>
<td>20.90</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>19.90</td>
<td>273</td>
<td>21.53</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>12.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mostly no</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>5.76</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>5.26</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>6.07</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1.88</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Mostly)</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3)</td>
<td>432</td>
<td>20.90</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>19.90</td>
<td>273</td>
<td>21.53</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>12.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Mostly)</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>7.74</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>7.13</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>8.12</td>
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<td>3.22</td>
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<tr>
<td>no (1+2)</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>2.06</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>2.03</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper q.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower q.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Employees + managers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>All</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>All</th>
<th>Male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>913</td>
<td>34.77</td>
<td>393</td>
<td>36.25</td>
<td>520</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mostly yes</td>
<td>1,032</td>
<td>39.30</td>
<td>429</td>
<td>39.58</td>
<td>603</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>503</td>
<td>19.15</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>18.27</td>
<td>305</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mostly no</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>4.95</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Mostly)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yes (4+5)</td>
<td>1,945</td>
<td>74.07</td>
<td>822</td>
<td>75.83</td>
<td>1123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3)</td>
<td>503</td>
<td>19.15</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>18.27</td>
<td>305</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Mostly)</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>6.78</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>5.90</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As follows from respondents’ expressions evaluation, a significant difference is shown in openness and effectiveness of communication viewed through the employees in comparison with views of the managers.
Atmosphere of trust and belongingness

Trust represents positive expectations of the individual that result in a willingness to be vulnerable to the other (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman, 1995). A deeper understanding of trust can assist individuals and organizations in navigating the difficulties that will certainly challenge them and can assist researchers in better understanding the many intricacies of organizational dynamics and interpersonal relations that influence the organizational bottom line (Culmer, 2012: 70).

Table 40. Atmosphere of trust, willingness and belongingness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Employees</th>
<th></th>
<th>Managers</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total %</td>
<td>All</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>681</td>
<td>253</td>
<td>428</td>
<td>286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mostly yes</td>
<td>727</td>
<td>301</td>
<td>426</td>
<td>237</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Averagely</td>
<td>462</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>293</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mostly no</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Mostly yes (4+5)</td>
<td>1,408</td>
<td>554</td>
<td>854</td>
<td>523</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Averagely (3)</td>
<td>462</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>293</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Mostly no (1+2)</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>1.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper q.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower q.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Employees + managers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>All</th>
<th></th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total %</td>
<td>All</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>967</td>
<td>399</td>
<td>568</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mostly yes</td>
<td>964</td>
<td>419</td>
<td>545</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>492</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>306</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mostly no</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Mostly yes (4+5)</td>
<td>1931</td>
<td>818</td>
<td>1113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average (3)</td>
<td>492</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>306</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Mostly no (1+2)</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Because we believe that this opinion is true, our concentration on trust desirably completes the list of human potential development processes that have the most significant impact on the human motivation. However, as stated before, the trust is considered in our survey as the most important factor that affects the motivation.

Table 40 shows that differences in this cross-position question are more visible. Question for employees was stated in this way: Does your superior create an atmosphere of trust, willingness and belongingness? Question for managers was: Do you create an atmosphere of trust, willingness and belongingness for your employees? Naturally, a discrepancy between employees’ and managers’ expressions points out again on existence different perspective of managers versus employees and male versus female.

**Intensity of perceived motivation**

The key feature of motivation is its amount, or its intensity level. As an unitary construct, motivation can be non-exist, low, moderate, high, or very high in terms of how much one has (Reeve, 2009: 16). Therefore, in a next question, we examined the level (i.e. strength or intensity) of motivation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivation targeting</th>
<th>To quality of work done</th>
<th>To improving skills</th>
<th>To new suggestions</th>
<th>To cooperate + motivate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All Male Female All Male Female All Male Female All Male Female All Male Female</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>42.50 40.04 44.23</td>
<td>31.53 30.17 32.49</td>
<td>18.09 20.20 16.60</td>
<td>23.34 22.51 23.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rather high</td>
<td>39.22 40.77 38.13</td>
<td>42.16 42.53 41.89</td>
<td>40.44 39.58 41.05</td>
<td>40.21 41.70 39.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>14.20 14.85 13.75</td>
<td>20.41 20.39 20.43</td>
<td>30.85 29.70 31.65</td>
<td>27.61 26.57 28.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rather low</td>
<td>2.93 3.23 2.72</td>
<td>4.27 4.89 3.83</td>
<td>7.46 7.20 7.65</td>
<td>6.05 6.64 5.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>1.14 1.11 1.17</td>
<td>1.64 2.03 1.36</td>
<td>3.16 3.32 3.05</td>
<td>2.78 2.58 2.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High (4+5)</td>
<td>81.72 80.81 82.36</td>
<td>73.69 72.69 74.38</td>
<td>58.53 59.78 57.65</td>
<td>63.56 64.21 63.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average (3)</td>
<td>14.20 14.85 13.75</td>
<td>20.41 20.39 20.43</td>
<td>30.85 29.70 31.65</td>
<td>27.61 26.57 28.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low (1+2)</td>
<td>4.07 4.34 3.89</td>
<td>5.90 6.92 5.19</td>
<td>10.62 10.52 10.70</td>
<td>8.83 9.23 8.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>4.19 4.15 4.22</td>
<td>3.98 3.94 4</td>
<td>3.63 3.66 3.61</td>
<td>3.75 3.75 3.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper q.</td>
<td>6 5 5 5 5 5 4 4 4 4 4 4</td>
<td>4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4</td>
<td>4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>4 4 4 4 4 3 3 3 3 3 3</td>
<td>4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4</td>
<td>4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower q.</td>
<td>4 4 4 4 3 3 3 3 3 3 3</td>
<td>4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4</td>
<td>4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents were asked to tag the strength of their motivation to four following motivation targets: a) to quality of work; b) to increase their knowledge and skills; c) to
submission of new ideas; d) to cooperate with superiors (motivation target for respondents in group of employees), or to motivate their employees (motivation target for respondents in group of managers). We also used a Likert five-level scale, with following specific content of the replies: 5 – high motivation; 4 – rather higher; 3 – average; 2 – rather lower; 1 – low. Similarly as in previous processes, we subsequently merged responses into three categories: high (answer/level 4 + 5); average (3); low (1 + 2).

The results in Table 41 show the respondents feel the highest motivation to the quality of their work. In contrast, the respondents feel the lowest motivation to submitting new suggestions and increase the effectiveness of performed processes.

**Relations between motivation and crucial processes of human potential development**

For testing the stated hypotheses H0 and H1, we used the Test with parameter \( \pi \) of alternative distribution where an unknown probability \( \pi \) is estimated using the relative size of the phenomenon \( p \) (high motivation) – i.e. their number is divided by the number of choices. The test criterion has the format \( \sqrt{\frac{(p-\pi)}{\pi(1-\pi)}} \), where \( \pi \) is the estimated probability, \( p \) is the relative frequency of responders whose motivation to the given targeting is high (4–5, i.e. rather higher and high). The value of \( \pi \) in Table 42 is the lowest such that the level of significance \( \alpha \), at which the hypothesis H0 is not rejected, can be \( \alpha < 0.05 \); with the higher value it is already rejected, or we have to raise the level of \( \alpha \) so that the probability \( \pi \) can be higher. Other values in the Table represent the relative frequency of responders who expressed that their motivation is high. If the symbol \( \pi \) is replaced by the symbol ** in the Table, then the test presumption \( n > 9 / p / (1 - p) \) is not achieved.

Results indicate that e.g. in a case of participatory leadership, the value of all motivational targets is well above the average (minimum of 10%). For example, when searching the motivation to quality of work, the probability of factor \( \pi = 87\% \) (\( \pi = 0.87 \) is expressed absolutely in Table) is relative to value for all types of leadership (together \( \pi = 77\% \)), and at least of 20% higher against the neutral leadership. Although it should be noted that the probability of effect even in the autocratic style is relatively high (\( \pi = 57\% \)), other factors probabilities are visibly reduced.

It flows comprehensively from the Table that the significant impact of positive factors on the intensity of motivation was confirmed in leadership, appraisal, communication, and atmosphere. This means that the efficiency is the highest just in the positive forms of human potential development processes: the participatory leadership, the objective and fair appraisal (level 4–5), the open communication (4–5), and the atmosphere of trust (4–5). And as can be seen in Table, the values are significantly higher than the average state.

We attach an extraordinary weight also to the respondents’ willingness to increase their level of work effort if improved motivational approach from their superiors. If the approach of their superior will be improved, up to 2,138 (81.42%) of respondents (both employees and managers; 79.52% male and 82.75% female) express their willingness to increase their performance.

The average improvement in their opinion would be of 44.64% (41.39% in male and 46.83% in female), while 25.96% of them (21.91% of male and 28.69% of female) expressed
their improvement of even more than 50%. 12.30% of respondents (10.37% of male and 13.60% of female) are willing to improve their results of even more than 75%. If we count even those employees (488, i.e. 18.58%) who expressed that they will not improve their performance (i.e. an improvement of 0%), then there would be an overall performance improvement of 36.34% (32.91% for male and 38.75% for female).

Table 42. Relations of crucial HPD processes to motivation intensity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Style of leadership vs. intensity of motivation</th>
<th>To quality of work</th>
<th>To improving skills</th>
<th>To new suggestions</th>
<th>To cooper.+motivate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All (2,067)</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participative</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autocratic</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td>.57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 43. Summary of the responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Openness of communication vs. intensity of motivation</th>
<th>To quality of work</th>
<th>To improving skills</th>
<th>To new suggestions</th>
<th>To cooper.+motivate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All (2,626)</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almost yes (4+5)</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average (3)</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>.56</td>
<td>.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almost no (1+2)</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>.42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 44. Summary of the responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Atmosphere of trust vs. intensity of motivation</th>
<th>To quality of work</th>
<th>To improving skills</th>
<th>To new suggestions</th>
<th>To cooper.+motivate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All (2,626)</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almost yes (4+5)</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average (3)</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td>.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almost no (1+2)</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>.39</td>
<td>.50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This demonstrates that our survey confirms defined hypotheses: the dependence of the intensity of perceived motivation on the quality of key human potential development processes. In addition, in connection with another question, where respondents were asked to identify the most necessary organizational measures that could help to increase their motivation, we can even confirm the opportunity to define a hypothetically constructed symbiotic spiral of the motivation and human potential development processes – respondents (76.10% of employees and 63.15% of managers) answered as follows:

- The first position of ranked list represents the increase of financial remuneration (i.e. direct link to the objectivity of appraisal);
- The second position includes the employee benefits (52.69% and 47.05%; i.e. correlation with the objectivity of appraisal and creation of a trust atmosphere);
The third position belongs the manifestation of greater concern for employees and their opinions (46.64% and 44.19%; close relation to all four of human potential development processes: leadership, evaluation, communication, and creating trust/togetherness);

- The fourth position in the group of employees takes a fairness of superior (43.64%; relationship to the appraisal objectivity, leadership style, atmosphere of trust), while fourth position in the group of managers (40.25%) takes the mutual and open cooperation (relation to the openness of communication and the atmosphere of trust).

- The fifth in both groups of the respondents is the expression of recognition for quality work (42.62% and 37.75%; a strong dependency of the motivation and all of studied human potential development processes: leadership, appraisal, communication, and atmosphere).

Symbiotic motivation-process spirals

As stated in previous text, the motivation is highly complex problem involving the interdependence of many factors. A change in any part of the systems affects every other part in some fashion (Albers, 1969: 64).

When relating motivation to the processes of leadership and performance appraisal, the intrinsic motivation partially mediates the impact of transformational leadership on the employees’ creativity (Shin & Zhou, 2003) while trust, built through a leader, enhances performance between individuals, within and among groups, and in organizations (Hurley, 2011). When relating motivation to the communication and building the positive atmosphere, participation and communication are important elements of management by motivation (Benz, 2010: 209) and a satisfactory organization outcome requires coordination among the participants, and coordination requires information transmission (through effective and open communication) and motivation (Campbell, 2006). Vice-versa, the intrinsic motivation, confidence/trust in the competence of management (trust-nature of leadership) and the lack of work-related tension rank among the significant predictors of job satisfaction (Leat & El-Kot, 2009).

On the other hand, the content and perspectives of manager's motivational influence are dominant. From this viewpoint, basic predeterminations, intentions, and harmonization result of the egoism versus pro-social managerial behavior have to be considered. We should take into account a fact that there exists a strong dependence (as the results of all our surveys) between the level of perceived motivation and the quality of crucial processes of human potential development.

In addition, the achieved motivation of managers, HR professionals and employees determines the content, quality, methods used, outputs, and impacts of all crucial processes of human potential development. Employees and managers need to be motivated to as best as possible course of these processes.

On the other hand, these processes can be seen as procedural motivational tools that build and strengthen the motivation in organization. The quality of these processes affects fundamentally the level of motivation and its contents. If the strengthening of work or social
motivations is considered, the human potential development processes are irreplaceable. If a slight dampening of a too strong motivation – ‘over-motivation’ – is considered, the processes can serve as a regulatory force in the direction in which it is desired for a well-being of individuals, groups, and organizations. Furthermore, if the direction change of the expressed motivation – ‘re-motivation’ – is considered, the processes can take an inspirational, guidance, but also to some extent, power or restrictive influence.

![Figure 1. Model of symbiotic motivation-process spirals](image)

Always, however, the relationship between the motivation and the crucial human potential development processes is essential, both-side, and gradational. This means the process of motivating creates a unique symbiotic (causal) relationship (Figure 1) with every of human potential development processes; processes depend on the motivation, and vice-versa, motivation depends on these processes.

In other words, this myriad of symbioses permanently reinforces their progress and thus also the expected results, i.e. both the intensity of subsequent (further and further) motivations and the quality of all (further and further) crucial human potential development processes. Depending on the embedded managerial efforts as well achievements of the motivating and other processes of the human potential development, a qualitative spiral movement is created in this way. This one can be directed both upwards and downwards: symbiotic motivation-process spirals can accelerate but also negate all the organization action.
Symbiotic human potential development process-process spirals

Besides exploring the symbiotic motivation-process spirals, and based on the opinions of many authors, we could also consider the symbiotic links between and among the crucial processes of development of human potential mutually.

For example, when considering the creative leadership in relation to other human potential development processes, the leadership motivates, empowers, inspires, collaborates with, and encourages others, develops a culture where employees feel ownership in what they do and continually improve the business, builds consensus when appropriate, and focuses team members on common goals (Berger, 2004: 24). This one plays as strategic tool to motivate the staff to enhance their potential growth and development (Fry, 2003). Inspirational leadership builds the followers trust and leaders become a catalyst to carry organizational activities (Indrawati, 2014). The outstanding leadership depends on the articulation and effective communication of a viable vision (Strange & Mumford, 2002: 344). Mentioned ideas indicates strongly the mutual relations between the leadership and the other processes.

When relating for example the performance appraisal to human potential development processes, the performance appraisal serves like a procedural feedback, i.e. the evidence of effectiveness or ineffectiveness of human potential development processes and ground for their systematic increase. In these intentions, “different leadership styles may have positive or negative impact on the organizational performance,” (Wang, Shich & Tang, 2010) and the appraisal system improvement needs to pay attention to the communication openness and participation style (Ibrahim et al., 2016: 529). But, for obtain all positive inter-processes impacts, “performance appraisal cannot degenerate into ‘a dishonest annual ritual’,” (Armstrong & Murlis, 1998).

When considering the communication in relation to other human potential development processes, the communication is just the core of transferring all thought, felt and expected ideas, inspirations, and necessities. Without the communication, the leadership cannot be performed, the performance cannot be appraised and improved, and the trust and belongingness cannot be built and kept in the organization. Orpen (1997) points out that the job involvement moderates the relationship between the quality of communication and employee job satisfaction and work motivation, i.e. involvement-communication interaction significantly affect both satisfaction and motivation. Highly talented individual, who are the most important for the organization success and who are defined mostly as so called ‘superkeepers’, need a real truth-telling. According to Wasylyshyn (2004), the gifted superkeepers need an accurate read on how they’re perceived in the organization (p. 334). This is an impulse that moves them forward.

When relating the building atmosphere and culture to the processes of human potential management and development, the organization culture is really strongly influenced by an applied style of leadership and way of manager’s behavior (Čandík & Jedinák, 2016) and simultaneously, these managerial and motivational elements are strongly determined by the organization culture. Trust is a key element in building and maintaining a sound interpersonal communication (Hoy, Smith & Sweetland, 2002). According to Larson
Motivation: Motivational spirals and decision making

& Richburg (2004), a synergistic and focused relationship leads to growth and change. The relationship between the coach and the leader is a powerful tool – there is accountability, candid conversation, and trust (embedded in the confidential nature of the relationship) that facilitate personal growth (p. 310). Additionally, the respect and trust – one of the fundamental building blocks for present (i.e. knowledge) workers – helps the authentic leaders more likely to create the ownership, especially by soliciting views from those they lead (Walumbwa, Christensen & Haile, 2011).

Figure 2. Model of symbiotic human potential development process-process spirals

Apart from mentioned intra-organization procedural dependences, the importance of mutual relations among the processes of human potential development might be viewed also
from the *external and long-term perspective*. For example, when considering employer’s reputation based on an employer of choice concept (Armstrong, 2009), people want to work in the organization which their individual needs are met in – for a good job with prospects linked to training, appraisal and working with a good boss who listens and gives some autonomy but helps with coaching and guidance (Purcel et al., 2003). On the other hand, achieved reputation is an important strategic resource that allows to develop the value chain – to obtain a competitive advantage (Bober & Majchrzak-Lepczyk, 2016: 42). This means all the processes of human potential development are closely and mutually connected and related.

Stated opinions confirm that the creative leadership affects the resulting feeling that stems from the recognition of a work; communication supports a sense of appraisal objectivity; building trust predetermines the preferred and applied leadership style, and so on. Any crucial human potential development process builds *its own symbiotic relationship* with any other human potential development process. In this way, *symbiotic procedural spirals* arise (Figure 2). The binder of these spirals are just the motivation and all the motivational processes performed within the organization – the motivation accents and generates professionalism and willingness to lead creatively, appraise fairly, communicate effectively, and deepen the trust.

**Symbiotic motivation-business-processes spirals**

Theoretical and empirical analysis done in previous subchapters indicates the existence of strong reciprocal and symbiotic spirals, pointed out even in the two areas surveyed. The first area was focused on acceleration interdependences between the motivating and each of the crucial processes of human potential development. The motivation acts herein as a central motivating force and as a core process to unite together and enhance each of other processes. The second area dealt with the existence of symbiotic spirals between and among the human potential development processes. The motivation herein stands like in the background (behind the scene) but this is only apparent – is present in the escalation of course and the quality of each process. Higher and higher level and outputs of all of these spirals are a sign of a sustainable progress and total cultivation of the organization.

On that basis, we can also outline the *another hypothetical construct*: in addition to all stated improvements, an accelerated level of motivation and crucial human potential development processes may have an instigative and trigger impact on the *other business (organizational) processes*, i.e. production, marketing, finance, development, logistics, quality and so on (Figure 3). This presumption can be considered legitimate because every organizational process is projected and carried out only by the human beings. People are thinking, working with joy, full of enthusiasm, or vice versa, working with unwillingness, or even disgust. They embody their life and work motivation into the work and realize (or not realize) all their intellect and inflammation. Our survey results confirm the employees want to be engaged in the management and decision-making in a higher degree; they are interested to learn and grow professionally and expect more of the open and mutual cooperation. This means the higher is the motivation of the individuals and groups for their
professional work (marketing, production, finance, etc.), the more they try to improve the quality, parameters, deadlines, and continual improvement of these processes. In this way, the individuals and groups, through the precisely done processes of human potential development and motivating, *dynamize or disrupt the continuity and level of any other professional segment.*

![Resultative motivation](image)

*Figure 3. Model of symbiotic motivation-business-processes spirals*

From the deeper perspective, changes in particular organizational processes call for a number of adjustments, and on the basis of them, they cause many and far-reaching changes in the motivational process. Motivated employees are encouraged to perform better, which will boost the efficiency of the *production process*. The *financial processes* ensure redistribution of resources to organization’s processes, including the motivational process, which needs to be adapted to the available financial resources.

By studying the process of motivating employees and managers in its commitment to the *developmental process* of the organization, new trends and innovations are not just about machines, production processes and techniques, but also about the system and processes of human potential development. Even in this system, new trends of motivating, remunerating, rewarding, and appraising are emerging. Therefore, these trends need to be captured, making sure that they are suitable for the organization and its employees, and then they need to be applied. In a situation that the motivational process is implemented by obsolete methods or procedures, which are in many cases ineffective, it could lead to a decrease in competitiveness especially on the labor market.
The *marketing process* and the process of motivate are very close to each other, as the marketing process is targeted on the customer’s motivation to buy and loyalty to the brand/product/organization. Therefore, it is advisable to link and tie the motivation programs, as only motivated employees will be able to motivate the customer. In terms of *quality improvement*, just the motivated employees provide the organization’s continuous and constant improvement.

A comprehensive view on all business processes in the relation to motivation can serve as an argument that for organizational success it is necessary that all processes in the organization are carried out with the motivational accent, so the motivation process takes place concurrently with all and in all organizational processes, and these processes are constantly influenced and overlapped. In addition, each well-executed organizational process becomes the *motivational tool* in the motivation process. If employees perceive that the organization makes sure that every process goes well and honestly, they themselves will cause of this.

*Figure 4. Model of symbiotic spirals between and among the motivation, the HPD processes and the business processes*
If the employee feels s/he is fairly appraised, even when compared to employees of competing organizations, if s/he sees his or her work as interesting and meaningful, supported by good managerial methods, if s/he has good relations with a direct superior, feels support from the senior management and is provided with an ample scope for development and growth, then s/he does not like the interesting offer of another organization where s/he cannot be sure of such good working conditions (Branham, 2004; Majerčáková & Ford, 2015), but we can say that s/he is sufficiently motivated to be loyal to the organization and to bring it added value through a constantly high performance.

Correlatively, the achieved quality or dis-quality of the organizational (business) processes, being influenced by the initial and subsequently by the continuously improved motivation, have affected a past motivation in previous and will also act on the future motivation of the employees. An embedded expertise and experienced success or failure during the professional career (i.e. in business processes and activities), which are reflected in the success or failure of the results of each business process, impact positively or negatively the motivation and satisfaction of the individuals and groups.

Stated differently, the hypothetical symbiotic motivation-process spirals might be achieved also in the case of motivation and/or other business (organizational) processes. This can be strongly supported especially when based on exist symbiotic spirals among key processes of human potential development performed with the motivational accent and emphasis (Figure 4).
Motivation and decision making

Process of motivating individuals centralizes many motivations of motivating subjects and motivated objects. It represents a constant intersecting and attempts for harmonizing motivations of all individuals and groups within the organization, including motivation of the organization itself as a social and economic subject. A large number of decision making processes take place in each such influencing of motivation and harmonization of motivations. In this field, an idea of several authors is important that each decision making and each decision are conditioned by many information (Cole, 1991; Baker et al., 2001; Robbins & Coulter, 2004; etc.) and instigations. They are influenced by the expected response of the motivated object on any decision taken by the motivating subject. And, according to Albers (1969), managerial decisions have been categorized as planning and motivational decisions (p. 553).

In terms of the managerial and behavioral sciences development, it should be appropriate to seek parallels between the motivating as activating managerial process and other processes in the organization. Therefore, in order to examine the parallels between motivating, planning, and decision making, it can be noted that the defining reasons, causes, or objectives for effective work behavior and the harmonizing all the motivations and goals in the organization means to decide what is really correct in a particular managerial situation. It is necessary to decide what parameters should be included into such a decision-making process, what is the goal of motivated behavior, how this can be most effectively achieved, what participants should be involved in the decision-making process, etc.

The decision making is an important function, process, or tool of the management. It can be met in small, middle and great organizations of all branches. It is a supportive function or a process of increase the quality of all managerial and organizational efforts, actions, results, and effects. The correct execution of the managerial decision-making influences directly and indirectly a successfulness and efficiency of every organization.

It means that in working out the basic strategic phenomena of all organizations, i.e. vision, mission, culture, philosophy, objectives, strategies, and all systems operating within the organization, the decision making plays a strong role. Decision making is closely connected with and is an immanent part of a communication, coordination, and especially, motivation. These functions of management provide the inevitable information support, instigation and harmonization of all efforts to the decision taking and all other processes of human potential management and development. Communication provides a permanent exchange of needed information, signals, opinions, propositions, motives, rules, wishes, expectations, etc. which have to be dealt in a course of motivational decision making. Generally, only on the foundation of shared information and knowledge on all motivations in organization, the decisions can be taken and realized. Coordination is connected with a concrete result which flows from decisional and motivational process. Because of the real conditions of present environments, all decisions have to be mutually called up and
harmonized within the organization. They must respect possible consequences connected with their potential realization so that a synergy can be achieved.

The decision-making is permanently and strongly included and participated in all the functions/processes of the human potential management and development, i.e. strategic management and development of human potential, human potential planning, recruitment, selection, profiling, orientation and placement, leading, appraisal of work performance, training and development, etc. Influencing the motivation of all organization members, i.e. the motivational process (the motivating) takes a crucial, dominant and acceleration role. This means, in every taken decision should be included a strong motivational accent. This one contents and signalizes a firm, persuasive support from the side of organization executive, as well a clear challenge for the high performance, innovativeness, and expected two-side loyalty.

It is important to view the decision making in combination with the motivation and the motivating, or to perceive the motivation and motivating of employees through the prism of decision making processes taking place within the motivating. Influencing motivation is an extraordinarily complicated area of organizations’ activities (Nakonečný, 1992; Clegg, 2001; Clark, 2003; Gagné & Deci, 2005; Wellington, 2011; Rosak-Szyrocka, 2014).

**Decision making**

The decision making viewed as a managerial process means a series of thinking (intellectual) steps or phases the content of which consists in a detailed assessing all available information (quantitative and qualitative), creation of potentially right decisional variants (in a case of several – minimally three – solutions of decisional problem) or alternatives (in a case of only two solutions of this problem), choice of the best variant/alternative, and its realization in the real conditions. Identically as other processes, also the decision making needs a feedback of its correctness and effectivity. This one moves the quality of decision taking processes to a permanently increased level.

In the effort to determinate more precisely the decision making, we can use some definitions and opinions of the authors recognized in this field. For example, Churchman presents following idea: “Making decisions is, on the one hand, one of the most fascinating manifestations of biological activity and, on the other hand, a matter of terrifying implications for the whole of the human race,” (1989: 438). Wang, Liu & Ruhe define decision making as one of the basic cognitive processes of human behaviors by which a preferred option or a course of actions is chosen from among a set of alternatives based on certain criteria (2004: 124). Decision making is a choice among more variants of behavior that lead to a certain goal achievement (Blažek, 2014) or a choice of one course of action from all the available alternatives (Kinard, 1988).

Majtán et al. (2003) point out this process represents a sequence of exactly determined steps or activities starting from formulating the decision making problem that is to be decided by the taken decision, up to the selection of the most suitable variant of problem solution, and making the decision. “This sequence indicates a rational approach that can be applied to the business of reaching decisions in organizations. It commences by seeking to
ask the right questions, continues by encouraging creative answers, and concludes by ensuring that the chosen solution is monitored and evaluated,” (Cole, 1991: 108).

More concretely, Robbins & Coulter (2004) present that the decision taking is a complex process which consists of some steps; Brooks (2003) similarly to previous authors explains the content (steps) of the decision making process as follows: 1. Identifying a problem that requires a decision; 2. Retrieving information and materials that will help solve that problem; 3. Generating potential solutions to the problem; 4. Making a rational choice, selecting the best solution, and then implementing it (p. 36). It flows that these authors emphasize a necessity of wider amount of the decision variants (not only two basic alternatives) whereby the task of deciders (managers, experts, employees, consultants, etc.) contains an effort to estimate the profit, the contribution, the risks, the costs, etc. of each single one of these variants.

However, we should also consider the fact that some managers avoid direct decision making; they have a certain aversion to or even fear from making decisions. This concerns especially situation when decision making is very complicated. When the dimension of the problem grows, the number of people involved in the problem grows too, as well as risks related to rational and political aspects of the matter. Managers suddenly have a big reluctance to risk. They try to hide behind formal processes, exhausting analyses and extensive consultations for the purpose of optimizing and – what is most important – for the purpose of distribution of the responsibility. The thing is that should the decision prove incorrect, it will be difficult to attribute the guilt to a concrete individual (Owen, 2006).

On the other hand, not taking any steps also represents one of decision-making options (decision to not make any decision represents same risks and benefits like every other decision-making), (Tepper, 1996: 31–32). But, such buck-passing can be harmful – it reduces the necessary competitiveness, courage and challenges of the organization; it reduces the ability of the organization to be innovative and to utilize all its advantages and competences. This means, that according to Davenport (2009), it is time to take decision making out of the realm of the purely individual and idiosyncratic; organizations must help their managers employ better decision-making processes. Better processes won’t guarantee better decisions, of course, but they can make them more likely.

**Multi-variability, multi-criteria and multi-objectives**

The decision making describes a commitment to action (will) as a decision to act. The logic in a decision to act involves selecting means and an end for a task. The task is conceived as a concrete action for a purpose of a decision maker (Betz, 2011: 187). Therefore, the decisional process on how to motivate individuals and/or groups is characteristic by a lot of elements, motives, e.g. needs, insufficiencies, priorities, metes, expectations, goals, desires, etc. This process has to respect many different reasons, expected as well unexpected consequences, attributes, variants, opportunities, risks, limits, boundaries, attractiveness, feedback, mutual relations among all parts, phases, and participants of the decision making process. This is really too much factors, moods and aspects that must be implanted into such a decision making. Knowledge on human beings and their behavior are necessary highly
valued here, and, according to Figurska (2011), we must bear in mind that on the one hand no new technology, result or decision would have been created without relevant knowledge but on the other hand it is knowledge that gives basis for decision-making on what specific technology shall be used in an organization. Variability and flexibility, in the extent to which the individuals permit emotional influences to guide their decisions, are crucial (Davies & Turnbull, 2011).

This means, the goal of any decision maker is to make the optimal decisions possible with a minimal amount of cognitive strain or effort (Young et al., 2012). It is needed to make a decision based upon the best alternative; it will never be a ‘perfect’ decision, however, it will be the alternative with the best possible outcome, given the situation (Humphrey et al., 1988). Also Bono draws attention to multi-variant and creative decision taking: “Too often the decision making process is shown as a list of fixed alternatives between which a decision has to be made. We are not easily satisfied with the obvious. We multiply alternatives before choosing between them,” (2008). On the foundation of mentioned above multiplying, further characteristics of the decision making is important: using multiple criteria in the course of decision process.

Because the management of the current organizations is performed in a complicated competitive environment therefore the managers need a lot of information and a suitable set of supporting tools and techniques for making decisions. They need such means to be able to evaluate different aspects resulting from the organization activities and its economic environment and to be able to monitor the progress of organization at achieving stated goals (Vodák, 2011).

In general, when taking decisions, all the attributes should always be measurable. In a case the attributes (elements, factors) are impossible to be measured exactly – in a purely quantitative manner/result, a managerial experience and/or heuristics should be utilized. Drucker’s (2001) idea is interesting in this place that the effective executives know when a decision has to be based on principle and when it should be made pragmatically, on the merits of the case. They know that decision making has its own systematic process and its own clearly defined elements (p. 2). Baker et al. present that the decision making should start with the identification of the decision maker(s) and stakeholder(s) in the decision, reducing the possible disagreement about problem definition, requirements, goals and criteria (2001). Although much work has been done to find the optimal solution sets in the different application fields, little is known about how to maintain a decision maker’s ability to decide between the alternatives (variants) in a solution set (Teppan, Friedrich & Felfernig, 2010: 112).

Based on this, the decision makers might be aimed to satisfy multiple objectives, whereas several alternative solutions are possible, characterized by several attributes. An attribute is a common characteristic of each variant such as its economic, social, cultural or ecological significance, whereas and objective consists in the optimization or an attribute (Brauers & Zavadskas, 2012). Surely, it is on the degree of elaboration of the evaluation criteria that the quality of managerial decisions, the cumulative effect from all directions depends (Osinovskaja & Lenkova, 2015).
**Matter-of-fact of decision making**

In our opinion, the decision making might be defined as a *mental process* of postulate decision-making premises, conditions and restrictions, criteria determination, non-compromising consideration of positives, negatives, possibilities and impossibilities, chances and obstacles of every potential decision-making outcome – accepted solution, and determine the ‘best’ methods of achieving the ‘best’ (quasi best) solution. In this mental process the decision maker:

- Systematically collects all information and knowledge necessary for taking the particular decisions.
- Systematically processes such information into the form of initial *multivariate solutions*.
- Carefully considers multivariate solutions (decision making variants) with regard to their potential consequences on the organization, working groups, individual employees, and capacities of the organization, possible risks and probability of achieving the desired resulting parameters.
- Responsibly takes the decision (chooses the solution variant) which can be described in the given time as the best and most suitable for existing conditions.

A nature of condition, in which the decision is taken, is very important. We can consider the decision-taking realized in the terms/conditions of a *certainty, an uncertainty, and a risk*. The decisions made in conditions of the *certainty* are simpler because the decision maker knows all important parameters and attributes connected with the decided area or problem. But decision participants often must make decisional choice in the case when factors, elements, and stages could be judged as *uncertain* – it is not known in what direction and with what probability a concrete situation could be occurred. And, the managers are usually met with the decision-taking in situation when each variant/possibility is connected with a *potential risk*. This type of the decision processes is very complicated and very demanding from a psychical viewpoint. Just this one means a stressing element which has a marked effect on motivation and successfulness of the managers and employees. Just this type of decision making is applied in all processes of human potential management and development, especially in the process of motivating employees and managers.

**Rationality, emotions and consequences in decision making**

When relating decision making to motivate employees, it is interesting to emphasize that unlike traditional decision-making, we should consider the *intuitive decision-making*. This one is a subconscious decision-making based on accumulated experience and judgments (Robins & Coulter, 2004). From this viewpoint, an essential part of decision making should be communicating the taken decision to all participants concerned by the implementation of the taken decision (Blašková, 2011). Important aspects of possible disagreement or refusal of the considered solution (feedback from the part of decision addressees) should be incorporated into the final solution. Of course, the biggest possible number of employees
and experts should be involved in the decision making process in case of serious decisions in order for the final decision to be really optimal.

It is important to consider in this regard also the process content of decision making. Decision making can be accompanied with pure rationality, stripped of any emotions or intuition. However, it can also be accompanied with a certain rate of emotionality. In such case the decision making subject uses not only rational arguments and procedures, but relies also on intrapersonal, feeling elements. “Decisions have character and personality. … Effective decision making requires, in addition to information, technology skills, also experience, and creativity, as no two situations both of which require a decision are ever alike,” (Frankel, 2008: 40–41). Good decision making takes into account tangible and intangible aspects of the decision situation … (and) pertinent facts, feelings, opinions, beliefs, and advice (Hammond, Keeney & Raiffa, 1999). Intrapersonal elements can include a wide range of both conscious and subconscious emotions, feelings, impressions, memories, worries, anticipations, and various other imaginations.

From the viewpoint of potential consequences, emotions have a strong influence on economic behavior and decision making (Weber & Johnson, 2009). Behavior in response to gains and losses may also rely on exactly which emotions are evoked by the task, so that specific emotions and their action tendencies, rather than just valence, are important factors (Summers & Duxbury, 2012). The contemporary view is increasingly emphasizing the importance of emotion for optimal social judgement and decision making (e.g. Damasio & Descartes, 1994). Emotions thus become part of many decision making processes. Probably incorrect processing of emotional elements of decision making can be the cause of decision making failures, especially in two following senses. On the one hand, overmuch relying on outputs of intuition and sense, without regard to logics of the decision making problem and process, can lead to taking an incorrect decision. On the other hand, complete suppression of feelings and ‘imaginary images’ of decision consequences can lead to taking logically correct decision; but such decision can be over-dimensioned (or under-dimensioned) with regard to implementation and impacts. We can therefore agree with Slaměník’s definition of emotions: „Emotions are conscious feelings of various scales, which express relation of a man to relevant events of the external environment as well as to him/herself and which are connected with various rates of physiological activation, the function of which is to enable the state of readiness for action,“ (2011).

We can state that the correct connection of rationality and emotionality with regard to the decision making subject being qualified can lead to knowledge, awareness, intellect-psyhical maturity, etc. These form basic elements of any important decision making, especially in the area of decision making about progressive procedures and development of the motivation strategies and measures to be taken in the organization.

However, on the other hand, we have to devote attention also to the behavioral/motivational consequences of particular decisions that are expected to be applied. Humphrey et al. (1988: 143) note that after outlining the variants there are two tasks: first, to decide what consequences are possible for each variant (it is based on understanding of the individual involved and predicting what might happen in the future), and second, to decide which consequences are most likely (it involves pushing a bit further). This means
when creating strategies and programs for motivate members of the organization, there must be taken a lot of weighty decisions. These decisions could have a serious impact upon the thinking and behavior of motivated individuals and groups. If some of the motivational decision is not correct and does not respect the inner psychological mechanism of the individuals, this one can cause a deep decrease in felt motivation. And, which is very danger from the viewpoint of reinforcing a destroyed motivation, caused motivational decrease can last very long time. It is not only the question of several days. Often the motivation decrease or even caused de-motivation can take many weeks, or, sometimes, even the months. This evoke that a need for influencing employees’ and managers’ motivation has to be really sophisticated and made responsibly.

**Bounded rationality in decision making**

“A good decision results in the selection of appropriate goals and courses of action that increase organizational performance; bad decisions result in lower performance” (Jones, George & Hill, 1998: 167). However the ‘ideal best decision’ is always only a hypothetical construct, a desired consequence of all efforts, labor and abilities given into the process of decision making. The solution consists in considering so-called phenomenon of a bounded (limited) rationality of H. A. Simon. According to Simon, rational responses to the environment characterize decision making generally. But at points – often important points – rationality fails, and as a consequence there is a mismatch between the decision-making environment and the choices of the decision maker. We refer to this mismatch as ‘bounded rationality showing through’ (Simon, 1996). In structured situations, at least, we may conceive of any decision as having two components: environmental demands (seen by the individual as incentives; positive or negative) and bounds on adaptability in the given decision-making situation. Ideally, an analysis based on rational choice should be able to specify what the environmental incentives are and to predict decisions based on those incentives. What cannot be explained is either random error (even the most rational of us may make an occasional mistake, but these are not systematic) or bounded rationality showing through (Jones, 1999: 297).

Thinking with the limited rationality of deciding factors is extraordinarily important especially in the field of systematic motivating. In other words, the fact that the subject of decision-making often decides on the grounds of momentary and ambiguous knowledge influenced by many subjective elements, assumptions, feelings, etc. complicates motivating and makes it a system/sequence of the hardest decision-making processes in management ever. On the other hand, from the viewpoint of motivation, „participative forms of decision-making, whether informal or institutionalized, give employees a certain degree of self-determination and responsibility. They show that the company values and takes seriously the commitment and interest of employees,” (Benz, 2010: 199). Additionally, employees find organizational procedures fair and motivating when they are included in decision-making, any decisions made are explained, and the rules of the process are clearly defined (Kim & Mauborgne, 2010: 183).
Decisional dilemma in motivating: dilemma of needs

The motivation is highly individualized and complicated, and there exists a difference between something what motivates people to do above the average performance and something what leads to the under average performance (Thomson, 2007: 93). Just in the individualization and variableness of motivation, the idea is reflected that motivation is heterogeneous and provides a great space for decision taking of the motivated individual.

Heterogeneousness can be intended in the area of motivation intensity when we can consider with an insufficient, weak, or under average, average, or above the average, strong motivation. Heterogeneousness can be searched from the viewpoint of motivational orientation. In this meaning, we can differ between the work motivation (motivation to the high-quality work, to the sustainable improvement, to the helping colleagues, to the team work, to the sharing experiences and knowledge, etc.) and the private motivation (motivation to be a good husband/wife, to be a reliable friend, to be a good parent, etc.). It is evident that the individual feels both these orientations simultaneously. The individual can oneself decide to what of these motivations s/he will devote his/her attention more intensively and what less intensively. It means in the personality of individual meet both these groups of the motives (working and private) whereby there can arise:

1. Harmonized co-action and mutual support when the mixture of working and private motives is so much conveniently created so that it achieves balance and prepares desirable and fully acceptable behavior of the individual.

2. Resultant intensification of only one of these motives groups but even only some of perceived motives, whereupon other motives lose their urgency. The motivated individual occurs in a state of some motivational indecisiveness which leads to the desirable action at least (the individual choose convenient possibility on the basis of his/her consideration about the correctitude and rightness of his/her activities and possibilities of the environment).

3. Dramatic collision and intra-psychical conflict which affect the individual so much strongly so that s/he stays astounded in an activation (the individual is not able to be immediately orientated in the running process, does not know to harmonize his/her working and career ambitions and expectations with the private expectations and desires, and rather does not act, waits for simpler and better arranged parameters of the situation, relations, conditions, etc.).

However the motivation heterogeneousness can also deal with a various content of the working motivation, i.e. various motivational preferences, priorities, metes, goals, aspirations, desires, needs, and resolutions which the individual defines for oneself in the work environment. The individual – employee or manager – has to permanently decide what of these motivational elements will stay to make stronger, what will postpone till a later realization, eventually, what will absolutely eliminate from his/her motivational structure.

An effort for development of own self-understanding and recognition from the side of oneself and from the side of the other is an important feature of many individuals. A following idea is interesting in these intentions: “All human beings need warm, respect, and acceptation from other people, especially the nearest people. This need for positive
relation stays active for all one’s life. But the individual, in course of one’s life, becomes partially independent from specific contacts with the other people what leads to the secondary, learned need for a positive relation toward oneself. Just the satisfaction of need for self-respect is a key from the viewpoint of the actualization running,” (Výrost & Ruisel, 2000: 168). It flows the strong decisional accent is reflected in the area of self-acceptation and suitable improvement: the individual chose carefully and purposefully the responsibilities and activities which s/he will deal in the future with, in what direction will orientate his/her advancement, etc.

It means that the motivation and the motivating can be viewed as the decisional processes. In such viewpoint, we can define the process of preparing, taking and implementing many various decisions in the process of motivate human, or rather, the process of motivate human potential sophisticatedly with including mastered decisions in all the procedural phases and moments, as the motivational decision making process. In the area of influencing the work motivation, which is very sensitive to many various influences and factors, the individuals – decision makers – have to respect a great amount of elements and results caused potentially by each chosen variant or decision. Because of motivating human potential behavior, it means in the endeavor to influence behavior of the living and thinking beings, i.e. personalities, these results and outputs can be remarkable both in a positive and/or negative way.

Participants of motivational decision making

The decision making, understood as a key moment and also as a part of a projecting motivational strategies and motivational programs, has to be correctly prepared and argued. It means this one has to be based on precise processing and considering a lot of quantitative and qualitative starting points, assumptions, and necessities. Thus, the choice of the motivational efforts contents would be determined by a thorough evaluation and judgement of a suitableness of intended approaches and tools, especially from the point of view of the purposefulness, economization, and efficiency, by a testing the actual relevancy and motivational influence, urgency, or resistance, etc. In general, the motivating can be understood as a permanent gradualness of the continuous decision-takings that are prepared and realized in variant way.

Mentioned above opinions and ideas emphasize that the determination of decision making from the viewpoint of motivating is not simply at least. A complexity of motivational decision making determination is connected with a fact that this decision taking is very complicated internally. Because of this complexity, several deciders should participate in the process oriented to motivate employees and managers effectively. For example: the individual, the group (team), and the organization. The role and status of these participants might be changed (i.e. moved, or altered, or duplicated) in taking motivational decisions, in accordance to various situational influences, expressed power, managerial habits, required motivational experience, obtained feedback, etc. Despite the need to coordinate properly the entire decision-making team, the multi-subject decisional process can create further opportunities and positives. According to Super et al. (2016), group decision-making offers
a potential advantage as a mechanism for bringing together and combining disparate knowledge, ideas and opinions into novel insights, new knowledge or superior solutions.

The individual (i.e. motivated employee or manager) can be an active participant of the motivational decision taking. In this case, he or she decides about a concrete variety of his or her motives that will be preferred and realized. From the other point of view, but at the same time, in other circumstances, the individual can cooperate with several other individuals in the motivational decision-making process. This behavior is needed namely in a case of helping individual with solving his/her motivational confliction or indecisiveness.

The group (team) can be involved actively into the decision-taking process too. This participation is necessary especially in situation when the group motivational programs, conditions, elements, tools, and atmosphere are built. Considered motivational programs could be created for a concrete working group or team, or for a wider department (i.e. departmental motivational decisions), or for an organizational section (i.e. decisions on sectional motivations and forms of influencing them), or for an organizational hierarchy (i.e. deciding on hierarchical motivators).

The organization as a whole represents a multi-participant on decision-taking. This form of the widest participation is needed in the case of creating the organizational motivation program that is devoted to the strengthening motivation of all organization’s employees and managers. From mentioned viewpoint, motivation program represents a comprehensive methodological, methodic-pragmatic planning documentation which at one point of time becomes an active management system, and at the same time a powerful instrument of purposeful influence on the motivation in organization and its groups.

**Inter or multi-disciplinary character and methods**

The motivational decision making process must be viewed as a process based and supported by knowledge and information flowing from many other scientific disciplines. Some of these cooperating sciences exist for a very long overdue, e.g. economy, philosophy, dialectic, psychology, sociology, mathematics, etc. Some others had experienced their upswing a little later, e.g. management, human resource management, anthropology, organizational behavior, probability theory, mathematical analysis, informatics, biology, etc. But, there can be successfully utilized also knowledge flowed from the newer sciences, e.g. social psychology, neurolinguistics, science on social networks, etc. The fact is important that the knowledge of the widest as possible spectrum of disciplines has to be included in decide on how to motivate the individuals and groups. In addition to the mentioned sciences, also various relevant theories, approaches or principles might be used effectively. For example, theory of systems, theory of chaos, theory of synergy, neural networks, and so on.

From the more pragmatic viewpoint, three basic groups of the methods can be used in the area of decision taking about as efficient as possible motivate employees and managers: quantitative, qualitative and heuristic. The quantitative methods are based on the using mathematics-statistical apparatus in a processing and evaluating all retrieved motivational preferences on the side of motivated individuals and possibilities/limits on the side of organization that are retrieved and collected by a questionnaire, structured interview,
observation, and thinking (mental) experiment, meta-analysis, etc. We can include into this group for example t-test, $\chi^2$ test, test of fit goodness, etc.

Second group of methods – the *qualitative* methods – are based on experts estimations combined with the intuition and experience. For example a brainstorming, work meetings, workshops, Delphi method, cascade method, etc. can be included among these ones. Apart from mentioned ‘intra-organization’ methods and techniques, methods of external environment analysis have to be successfully used. Especially, it is necessary to obtain knowledge on motivators, benefits, conditions and other measurements that the most important competitors or market-partners apply towards their employees and managers. Based on this necessity, the decision makers (or their coworkers) should perform thorough analysis of all the important external factors and powers. In general, situation at the labor market has to be analyzed (e.g. wages, rewards, bonuses, requirements, employers’ motivational habits, etc.). From the more complex prospective, the current and prognosticated level of an economy development should be known, standard of living in region or all country, dynamics of politic situation, environmental factors, etc. All obtained information should be correctly processed, categorized and deeply analyzed by using one (or rather combination) of the adequate systematic methods/techniques. In last two decades, namely Porter’s analysis, QUEST, STEEP analysis, SWOT analysis, etc. are often preferred because of their relatively simple application and good relevancy.

Third group of recommended methods includes the *heuristic* methods. These ones connect the strengths of the both quantitative and qualitative methods. The heuristic methods involve for example a decision analysis, decision threes, decision tables, etc. It is needed to mention that the use of heuristics in the completing knowledge basis for decision making in how to motivate requires some level of technical skills in this area.

**Recursion in making motivational decisions**

In addition to all aspects mentioned in previous sub-chapter, the modern and sophisticated decision making should be based on the application of *recursion*. Well-founded fact for applying recursion in decision taking in the creation of motivation strategies and programs is knowledge that the recursion can enrich the existing theory by a new view which connects two usually separately understood problems of the management: the decision-taking and the motivating human potential. This connection is able to succeed and rise the managerial invention especially through the prism of recursion.

The term ‘recursion’ is under other circumstances applied more in the area of mathematics and informatics. However the transfer of recursion into the area of management and behavioral sciences can be beneficial, and also inspirational for decision makers who deal with the motivation influence. In other words, the recursion is important characteristics of the motivational decision making.

The recursion is characterized by a knowledge permanence, dynamics, systematism, systematization, situational accent, and in the effort to influence effectively and form a future, it connects the past experiential knowledge with the present knowledge. According to Paulička (2002), the recursion means the utilization of a part of own internal structure. It
represents a specific case of embedding where the object being embedded is identical with the object in which it is embedded (Šaling et al., 2003). This means that the utilization of recursion in the motivational decision making can be very contributive – the process of motivating can (after careful consideration) apply proved motivators and suitably combine them with current urgent needs and necessities of the motivating subject as well as motivated object. In other words: “There must be consideration of the effect of actions on others and their responsibilities and work and assurance that actions to not compromise those required by others unless absolutely necessary and done in close coordination and cooperation with those in reality or potentially affected,” (Frankel, 2008: 82).

The recursion should be dealt with a cyclic positive or negative collision of the multiple decision-taking processes which is influenced contrastively not only by the key participants’ decisions of these relations (motivating and motivated employee). It is influenced also by the decisions of other subjects who affect the motivation relations (co-workers, customers, suppliers, partners, family dependent, friends, etc.).

**Character of worked out models/outputs**

In general, model as a fundamental category which we will be working with in following two chapters, poses a true representation of examined object. Main ambition of creating and improving the models (i.e. modelling) is to reach state in which model can portray (capture), present, explain, reason and illustrate (show) as likely and as real as possible, learned, ritualized and established behavior of examined participants of a modelled reality or event.

More specifically model is a copy, a substitute, or an imitation of real object or reality which is as trustworthy as possible. If it is an effort to portray, capture or improve quality of story procedural reality, it is possible to think in intentions of mental or event constructs.

Model is then a summary, an imaginary system of imaginary events, procedures, sequences, repeats or replacing activities of real object or subjects (individuals or groups). Concretization that gradually replaces abstraction more and more (initial inevitable abstraction from less important or too complicated conditions and characteristics of motivational decision making), makes it possible to reach final model that will be desirably applicable in conditions of reality and will bring real new knowledge, recommendations and warnings in objective areas to final addressees (academic and scientific employees, university students, professional public, HR specialists, managers, employees).

This kind of final model solution can pose either one complex consistent model or it can be composed out of system of partial sub-models which together describe, explain and inspire to the correct handling of social (motivating and decision-making) systems’ reality.

In addition, every behavioral model must consider risk contained in motivational decision making. Apart from all valid classifications of managerial risks, the motivational decision making ought to target its focus to the following risks classification:

1. **Verbalized or verbalize-able risk**, i.e. risk that is possible to characterize with words, to describe and communicate with participants of motivational decision-making process.
   - **Quantifiable risk**, that is possible to be defined in quantitative, time, cost, probability and asset aspect.
Motivation: Motivational spirals and decision making

- **Qualitative risk**, that is able to be defined only in matter of qualitative aspect – it is related to quality of imaginary and modelled event.

2. **Non-verbalized, or not verifiable risk**, i.e. risk that cannot be exactly described. It may be some kind of prevision, unclear or undefinable feeling that maybe some event will occur or that some event will never happen even despite of thorough preparation. This type of feeling can be a result of deep experience and intuition which however cannot be transferred to someone else. This means that non-verbalized risk can be:

- **Conscious (realized) risk**, means that person who realized the risk will decide not to share it with other participants of motivational decision making (e.g. motivator feels that despite of effort s/he cannot induce a personally maladjusted individual to a better performance, however in spite of this feeling, his or her inner sense of responsibility will not let him or her to not try applying this motivational effort); or risk by which the individual will execute strengthened purposeful behavior in order to reach desired state (attempt of a motivator to pass own feeling onto the others by form of example and using own charisma or natural authority).

- **Unconscious (unrealized) risk**, poses a risk that the motivational decision-maker is not aware of. S/he simply acts in a way that is natural and close, somehow intuitive, without apparent analyzing and cognition of reasons, avoiding risky motivational decisions, or contrariwise, s/he focuses on specific (instinctively less risky) motivational activities regardless of which specific reasons are behind the decision.

When precisely performing motivational decision making in the practice, the decision-takers usually work out some **specific types of the decisional outputs**:

1. **Measurements** could be created which are intended as a direct influencing of the motivational conditions of oneself or other individual (employee, coworker, managers, partner, competitor, etc.).

2. **System decisions** could be taken which are orientated to a quality and structure improvement of all motivations occurred within the organization. These ones should be communicated, accepted, implemented and helped in all touched parts, hierarchies, sections and departments in the organization.

3. **Motivation programs** could be worked out which are the most often expected output of this process. These ones represent the set of motivational approaches, understandings, principles, goals, measurements, efforts, and events, and through these ones, it will be possible to motivate effectively.

4. **Mental or descriptive models** could be developed with an intention to change thinking and influence the managers’ and employees’ motivation within the organization. Admittedly, these models are worked out mostly in very dynamic organizations, in which the managerial staff is really strategically matured and motivationally skilled.

The idea is important that there might be occurred the repeated connections of the motivated objects’ motivation with the motivating subjects’ motivation where the decisional viewpoints of both sides can be potentially different. But the effort for strengthen, harmonize, decrease eventually re-orientate motivations can become a **connective factor** of their (egoistic versus pro-social) purposes.
Chapter 10: First decisional model: Decision making and motivating
First decisional model:  
**Decision making and motivating**

Decision making in motivate individuals acquires a lot of new elements (decider has to decide in purely qualitative area – in motivation of the real human beings). It is full of unexpected turns and responses. It is extraordinarily demanding for psychical characteristics of the participants whereby the result, or effect of the motivating (and also the effect of decision taking within this one) can be *hypothetically different*, in scale from the small changes in thinking and behavior to the expressive and long-term changes that could cause not only the changes in individual’s performance but also in group or work teams and organization’s performance and successfulness.

It is apparent that it is managers who most frequently become the decision makers. They decide about many things, such as methods to achieve set objectives, determination of partial stages and steps suitable for effective achievement of objectives, selection of methods used for such steps, assignment of personal responsibility (to employees responsible for fulfillment of particular stage), etc. Many of their decisions have strategic nature; their impact on the life of organization and led working group is very serious. Other decisions have operative framework and shall be therefore taken with regard to strategic decisions – they support their implementation, specify or amend their original formulation. However, this relation applies in a complex manner, as: „Decision making is without regard to the level of management and rate of responsibility of the manager based on clearly formulated strategy and vision of the organization,“ (Kozubíková, 2007).

As stated in previous chapter, there are many methods that can be successfully utilized in decision making. But chosen method depends on one hand on the character of the solved problem in management process and the other hand on people responsible for these decisions, while “good knowledge of the methods and knowledge of their practical application widen choice options of a method or combination of methods,” (Pančíková, 2007). According to Lejarraga & Gonzalez (2011), the decisions made from both descriptive and experiential information do not differ significantly from decisions based solely on experience.

**Methods and hypotheses for the model construction**

From the viewpoint that we wish to present a *higher variety* of our surveys presentation, we taken a possibility to present and utilize the results of one of previous survey – survey which we have performed in 2013. The basic projection of this survey was the idea verification the motivation is a dynamical phenomenon, connected with many decisional processes. Knowledge is important that many qualitative characteristics decide about the intensity of work motivation. This idea is reflected in the publications of many authors (e.g. Skinner,
1958; Vroom, 1967; Porter & Lawler, 1968; Nakonečný, 1992; Kanfer, Chen & Pritchard, 2008; Wellington, 2011; Tomšík & Duda, 2013; etc.). It is suitable to present those results from the survey we performed in cooperation of colleagues from the University of Žilina and the Technical University in Zvolen that reflect factors with the strongest impact on the intensity/quality of motivation and identify decisive factors causing changes of motivation in Slovak Republic.

As stated in Chapter 2, from the methodological viewpoint, due to factual and time dispositions, we decided to perform the survey by quantitative method of sociological questioning, namely in the questionnaire form. We created our own questionnaire which we had used for the first time in surveying in 2006 and then in 2009. In 2013, we incorporated into the original questionnaire all our previous experience in the area of work motivation and also ideas obtained by feedback to responding attractiveness of the questionnaire. The questionnaires consisted of 20 questions for the employees and 22 questions for the managers. In addition to areas that will be presented further, questions concerned for instance an effectiveness of applied motivating tools, frequency of creation of individual motivation programs, structure of self-motivation factors, stimuli or proposition for improvement of motivation parameters of the organization’s environment and so on.

N = 1,946 respondents participated in the survey, out of which 1,639 were employees (669 men, forming 40.82% of this group of respondents and 970 women = 59.18%) and 307 managers (170 men = 55.37% from the group of managers and 137 women = 44.63%). The average age of those interviewed was 38.66 years, in the group of employees 38.09 years (36.75 years men and 39.01 years women) and in the group of managers 41.73 years (41.51 years men and 41.99 years women). The most numerous group were respondents in the age group 30–40 years (29.19% of the group) and in the age group 40–50 years of age (28.57%). With regard to the achieved education, the secondary education (42.96%) and the higher education (38.80%) were dominant.

**Hypotheses verification and results**

With regard to priority hypothesis of this survey, we decided to relate the intensity of motivation to the most important factor of the management system: decision making. This means that hypotheses H1 assumes that the motivation depends on the level (frequency) of employee’s possibility for the independent decision making and the new propositions submission. Moreover, we test within the hypothesis H2 the dynamics of motivation and/versus motivational decision making. In that sense we try to obtain opinions on the frequency of factors that most decide about the change of current vs. former motivation. Because of many connected questions or searched problems, particular points of view (areas) will be divided into several following subchapters.

**Dependence of decision making and work motivation intensity**

We were interested whether the level of employees’ motivation depends on the conditions created by the manager for the employees’ decision making and the new proposition submission (Blašková, 2011). Table 43 presents that the approach of the superior (Col 1)
was as follows: 1 – participative, 2 – neutral/passive, 3 – autocratic. The level of motivation (Col 2) was monitored as follows: 1 – high, 2 – rather high, 3 – average, 4 – rather low, 5 – low. Cell contents observed frequency and percentage of considered group. Table shows how often the 3 values of Col 1 occur together with each of the 4 values of Col 2. The first number in each cell of the Table is the count or frequency. The second number shows the percentage of the entire Table represented by that cell. For example, there were 150 times when Col 1 equals 1 and Col 2 equals 1. This represents 34.32% of of 437 observations.

Table 43. Frequency table for manager’s approach by motivation intensity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Approach/style of leadership</th>
<th>Level of motivation*</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Row/Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 – participative</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>34.32%</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>43.48%</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>4.35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 – neutral</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2.97%</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>75.55%</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.06%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 – authoritative</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.06%</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>18.33%</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Column Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>172</strong></td>
<td><strong>39.36%</strong></td>
<td><strong>231</strong></td>
<td><strong>52.86%</strong></td>
<td><strong>33</strong></td>
<td><strong>7.55%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* No respondent sign ‘low’ level of motivation.

In using chi-square test, the statistic value is 20.662, Df = 6, and P-value is 0.0021. Since the P-value is less than 0.05, we can reject the hypothesis that rows and columns are independent at the 95.0% confidence level. Therefore, the observed value of Col 1 for a particular case is related to its value for Col 2.

The statistics in Table 44 measure the degree of association between rows and columns. Of particular interest are the contingency coefficient and lambda, which measure the degree of association on a scale from 0 to 1. Lambda measures how useful the row (or column) factor is in predicting the other factor. For example, the value of lambda with columns dependent equals 0.0049. For those statistics with P values, P values less than 0.05 – identically as results obtained in our subsequent survey performed in 2016 – indicate a significant association between rows and columns at the 95% confidence level.

**Dependence of setting work tasks and work motivation intensity**

According to assumption the setting work task is related to the motivation level (Nakonečný, 1992; Blašková, 2009), we also tried to monitor whether the intensity of motivation to quality work (Col 2) is influenced by (dependent on) the manner in which the superior assigns work tasks to his/her employees (Col 1). One or more out of four listed options could be marked (shown in Table 45): 1. Setting the demanding but achievable tasks which utilize the overall potential of employee; 2. Setting the intelligible tasks which can become a motivation and challenge for the employee; 3. Setting the simple and unpretentious tasks which are not very demanding and do not instigate dissatisfaction; 4. Setting the tasks without regard to employee’s skills and motivation while the superior’s priorities are important. In using chi-square test, Df = 9, the statistic value is 31.96, and P-value is 0.0002.
Since the P-value is less than 0.05, we can reject hypothesis that rows and columns are independent at 95.0% confidence level.

Table 44. Summary statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>Symmetric</th>
<th>With Rows</th>
<th>With Columns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Dependent</td>
<td>Dependent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lambda</td>
<td>0.0035</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>0.0049</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertainty coefficient</td>
<td>0.0278</td>
<td>0.0361</td>
<td>0.0226</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somer’s D</td>
<td>0.1296</td>
<td>0.0999</td>
<td>0.1846</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eta</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.1980</td>
<td>0.1527</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: This means that there is a 0.4854% reduction in error when Col 1 is used to predict Col 2.

Table 45. Frequency table for way of tasks assigning by motivation intensity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Character of tasks assigning</th>
<th>1 – high</th>
<th>2 – rather high</th>
<th>3 – average</th>
<th>4 – rather lower</th>
<th>Row Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 – demanding but achievable tasks which utilize the employee’s potential</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20.14%</td>
<td>18.06%</td>
<td>1.39%</td>
<td>0.23%</td>
<td>39.81%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 – clear and intelligible tasks which can become a motivation and challenge</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16.20%</td>
<td>28.94%</td>
<td>3.70%</td>
<td></td>
<td>48.84%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 – simple and unpretentious task which are not very demanding and instigating dissatisfaction</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.23%</td>
<td>2.08%</td>
<td>0.69%</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.01%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 – tasks without regard to employee’s skills and motivation, superior’s priorities are important</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.78%</td>
<td>3.94%</td>
<td>1.62%</td>
<td></td>
<td>8.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column Total</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>229</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>432</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>39.35%</td>
<td>53.01%</td>
<td>7.41%</td>
<td>0.23%</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* No respondent sign ‘low’ level of motivation

Table 46. Summary statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>Symmetric</th>
<th>With Rows</th>
<th>With Columns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Dependent</td>
<td>Dependent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lambda</td>
<td>0.0637</td>
<td>0.0814</td>
<td>0.0443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertainty coefficient</td>
<td>0.0367</td>
<td>0.0346</td>
<td>0.0391</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somer’s D</td>
<td>0.1988</td>
<td>0.2053</td>
<td>0.1927</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eta</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.2332</td>
<td>0.2273</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 46 presents the statistics with P values; P values less than 0.05 indicate a **significant association** between rows and columns at the 95% confidence level. The value
of lambda with columns dependent equals 0.04434. This means that there is a 4.434% reduction in error when Col 1 is used to predict Col 2.

Dependence of performance appraisal objectivity and motivation intensity

We consider an important relation to be the relation of objectivity of employees’ work performance appraisal (Col 1) and versus level of motivation (Col 2). Many methods of appraisal are currently used. In addition to classic methods, such as appraisal on the grounds of quota or set aims fulfillment etc., the mystery shopping has been also started to be used. This is a method, which is demanding with regard to the preparation and implementation, but which provides more objective results than other methods (e.g. Jankal & Jankalová, 2011). Using this method, in addition to information on quality and quantity of work performance, the results of concrete level and content of motivation can be deeper.

The question whether respondents think the appraisal from the part of their superior to be objective was answered as follows: 1 – yes, 2 – rather yes, 3 – sometimes, 4 – rather no, 5 – no (Table 47). In using chi-square test, Df = 12, the statistic value is 48.209, and P-value is 0.0000. Since the P-value is less than 0.05, we can reject the hypothesis that rows and columns are independent at the 95.0% confidence level. Also, the value of lambda with columns dependent equals 0.0049 which indicates a significant association between rows and columns at the 95% confidence level.

Table 47. Frequency table for appraisal objectivity by motivation intensity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Appraisal objectivity</th>
<th>Level of motivation*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 – very high</td>
<td>2 – rather high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 – yes</td>
<td>58 13.39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 – rather yes</td>
<td>89 20.55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 – sometimes</td>
<td>21 4.85%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 – rather no</td>
<td>2 0.46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 – no</td>
<td>1 0.23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column Total</td>
<td>171 39.49%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* No respondent sign ‘low’ level of motivation

Dependence of communication openness and various types of motivation

Many authors present in their publications that interpersonal relations in the workplace have a significant impact on the performance, success rate, willingness, creativity etc. of employees and managers (e.g. Figurska, 2003; Gagné & Deci, 2005; Dutton & Ragins, 2007; Blašková, 2011; Tršková, 2015; etc.).

We assumed that the dependence of effectiveness and openness of communication on the one hand and the strength of motivation on quality work, motivation for improvement of knowledge and skills, motivation for submitting new proposals and efficiency of processes and motivation for cooperation with the superior (and the management of organization) on the other hand will also be confirmed. As confirmed in survey performed in 2016 (presented
in Chapter 8), also in a survey performed in 2013 the dependence was confirmed in all examined aspects. For illustration, in Table 48 we present results in the area of motivation for submitting new proposals. Testing the independence by chi-square test, the statistic value is 358.012, $\text{Df} = 16$, and $P$-value is 0.0000. Since the $P$-value is less than 0.05, we can reject the hypothesis of independency at the 95.0% confidence level.

**Table 48. Frequency table for communication openness by motivation to suggestions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Openness of communication</th>
<th>1 – very high</th>
<th>2 – rather high</th>
<th>3 – average</th>
<th>4 – rather lower</th>
<th>5 – low</th>
<th>Row Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 – yes</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>458</td>
<td>275</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 – rather yes</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>629</td>
<td>621</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1,452</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 – sometimes</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>336</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>711</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 – rather no</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 – no</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Column Total</strong></td>
<td>287</td>
<td>1,369</td>
<td>1,342</td>
<td>403</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>3,324</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Decisive factors of change of the former versus the current motivation**

The motivation is individualistic – each individual’s behavior is motivated by the various, individually different motives (Thomas, 2000; Armstrong, 2009; Lisiak, Bender et al., 2012; Raišienė & Vilkė, 2014; etc.).

**Table 49. Expressions of factors frequency determining the motivation change**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Defined factor of motivation change</th>
<th>Number of expressions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The slow maturation and development of own personality</td>
<td>621</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significant success in the work area</td>
<td>714</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achieving a long-desired goal</td>
<td>475</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction in partner life</td>
<td>447</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awareness of one’s own qualities and contribution</td>
<td>411</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience of an extremely joyful, pursuing event</td>
<td>258</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Success and happiness of the child</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long-term fatigue, stress, perceived burnout</td>
<td>217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meeting and knowing weighted, respected man</td>
<td>228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative, demotivating influence of superior</td>
<td>216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feel of frustration, pessimism, and depression</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large failure/failure in the work area</td>
<td>137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Death of a loved one or friend</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disappointment in partner life</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expression of latent needs</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Failure, unfortunate of the child</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Because of the respondents could choose more factors, the number of answers is higher than the number of respondents.
In the attempt to create a model of decision making influences acting on the motivation, it is important to mention also the frequency of factors that have changed previous motivation of respondents (Table 49). This means we examined what influences decided about the change of the former motivation as compared to the current motivation. We determined the list of factors offered in this closed question tentatively on the grounds of assumptions of the research. Respondents could mark more than one factor.

The above mentioned implies that there is a considerable number and quality of influences that substantially act on motivation and impacts on it.

**Discussion and comparison**

It flows from presented results that we can confirm the hypothesis H1 of our survey that there is a dependence of perceived motivation and/versus type of approach from the part of the superior (style of leadership), assignment of work tasks, objectivity of appraisal and effectiveness (openness) of communication from the part of the superior. This could be also emphasized by the survey results of other authors (Alderfer, 1972; Harlander, 1989; Collins, 2001; etc.). We also succeeded in determining the frequency of factors that are most decisive concerning the change of current versus former motivation (Table 49). The high rate of answers of respondents in this question (rate of marking offered options) leads to the conclusion that the assumption defined in the hypothesis H2 was confirmed as well. It corresponds with the ideas of further well-known scientists (Maccoby, 1988; Amabile & Kramer, 2010; Jelačić, 2011; Wziatek-Stasko, 2012; etc.).

The motivational strength of various organizational and private factors can change in the work life of employees. For example, in comparison with our *previous research realized in 2006* (number of Slovak respondents N = 950; male N = 452, female N = 498; employees N = 782, managers N = 168), 26% of respondents have confirmed the absolute correctitude of the performance appraisal (in comparison with only 21.63% of respondents in 2013 survey). These expressions correspond with an assumption that the motivation quality is impaired/decreased by environment factors: in 2006, 29.67% of employees and 34.52% of managers have expressed their motivation for high quality of work done is very high, versus 20.17% of employees and 39.36% of managers in survey performed in 2013. Differences of these results evoke the different ways of experience and decision making impact on the individual’s and group motivation level.

**Model of decision making and motivating**

Decisions can be right or wrong, as well as good or bad. There is a difference between a right or good as well as wrong or bad decision. A right decision may not be a good decision because it may have adverse effects and may still be a necessary good decision (Frankel, 2008: 62). What is really important, is the improving decisions. According to Davenport (2009), focusing on decisions can mean examining the accessible components of decision making – what decisions need to be made, what information is supplied, key roles in the process, and so forth. Smart organizations make *multifaceted interventions* – addressing technology, information, organizational structure, methods, and personnel.
Based on all acquired knowledge and experience, setting the applied motivators and motivational arrangements, that is the core of decision-making process, should respect especially a lot of conditions, elements, impacts, and factors. These ones are depicted in the Figure 5. The decision making realized in the field of motivating employees and managers should be understood as a system and systematic process of the retrieval quantitative and namely qualitative information (information on motivation, behavior, expectations, intellect capabilities, will, conflicts, collisions, etc.), processing this information and creative connecting it into the various variants of problem/situation solving, evaluating the possible contributions, costs, and risks of these variants, and choice of the variant (motivation program) with the best perspectives to be an effective managerial tool which can strengthen the managers’ and employees’ motivation. And, such decision is effective which can be contributive not only in current conditions but also in strategic viewpoint of the organization.

First premise of the presented model is that the motivation is viewed as the result of intra-psychical processes (Tureckiová, 2004; Nakonečný, 2005; etc.) and simultaneously as the very content of these processes as well the inner state of the individual that are the result of many decisions of its bearer – the individual himself/herself. The process, through which the motivation is affected and modelled, i.e. the motivating someone is an inter-psychical process acting on the condition and intensity of achieved and continuously influenced motivation (Soanes & Stevenson, 2003; Armstrong & Stephens, 2008; Blašková & Blaško, 2011). In other words, the motivating as the process consists in the model of 6 stages. The original motivation marked in Figure 5 as Original motivation (I) is gradually more and more changed and processed by these stages. The individual adapts his/her behavior to perceived stimuli and impacts. Intra-motivational processes cause that the original motivation is by their implementation gradually developed (let’s hope that in a positive direction) onto the Influenced motivation (II).

Model is intended to define key decision making elements and factors which affect the process of motivating individuals and groups. This process consists of these basic phases:

- Analysis of relevant internal and external factors, knowledge, and motives (needs);
- Analysis of (organization’s, team and individuals’) possibilities and capacities;
- Setting motivation objectives;
- Setting ways of objectives achievement (motivational conditions, strategies, program and measurements creation);
- Application of the motivating (motivation program implementation); and
- Feedback (need fulfillment, satisfaction).

Some of motivational influences and impacts can be perceived as intentional, induced systematically. Others are accidental and often occur spontaneously. Some influences occur in the environment of the organization – they are caused by employers, colleagues, managers, public, etc. Others are of purely private nature; but together with organizational ones impact the motivation (e.g. Porter and Lawler, 1968; Nakonečný, 1992). The important thing is that many decision making processes take place in each stage of the motivational process, whereas some are more complicated than others, but together they decide about the resulting quality of the motivational process and achieved quality of the motivation.
Motivation: Motivational spirals and decision making

Figure 5. Model of decision making and motivating
Chapter 11: Second decisional model: Model of multiplications in motivation decision making
Second decisional model:
Model of multiplications in motivation decision making

Through combining the motivation and efficient decision-making, the attention can be from the scientific point of view riveted especially to the possibility of achieving synergies and/or multiplications. The *synergy* is the change of behavior and properties of the system due to the influence of creating the interactive effect of its partial subsystems. “Such interactions result in the synergic effect, which also characterizes the difference from the situation where considered subsystems would function without such interactions,” (Vodáček & Vodáčková, 2009: 40). From the viewpoint of open systems, synergy is the ability of the whole to equal more than the sum of its parts. In a strategy-related sense, synergy occurs mainly when the distinctive competencies of some departments make significant differences in the ability of other departments to operate effectively (Bartol, Martin, 1991: 66, 200). Shortly: the term synergy refers to instances when the sum of individual contributions exceeds the simple summation of them (Gibson, Ivancevich & Donnelly, 1997: 13).

*Multiplications*, as understood by our model, represent certain completion of several combined, suitably balanced and conscientiously connected elements, processes and systems so as to bring, in mutual relations and manageable dynamics, new, previously only hypothetically possible, even unexpected values, qualities, or levels. According to Winkler, the concrete form and especially the resulting shape of the decision making is influenced by ‘multiple causes’ (2010: 19). However, in order to achieve desired synergies or multiplication effects (understood by us as a higher level/quality of synergy), motivation has to be understood and influenced correctly.

Methods and hypotheses for the model construction

As mentioned before, the basic presumption of questionnaire survey realized in 2013 was that the motivation is a dynamical phenomenon which is closely connected with many decisional processes. The basic hypothesis for the second decisional model construction was the premise that *multiplicative effects really exist and can be utilized in the decision making connected with the motivating employees and managers*.

In order to systemize our efforts, we have determined two partial hypotheses. The *hypothesis 1 (H1)*: Motivation decision making is influenced by a large number of objective as well as subjective factors – motivating is a decision-making process. The assumption that motivation is a mosaic of many various elements and influences can be supported by publications of many authors, e.g. Herzberg (1986), Maccoby (1988), Grazulis (2009), Plamínek (2010), Frey & Osterloh (2010), Benz (2010), Bender, Woike, Burke & Dow (2012), Bakanauskiene, Žalpyte & Vaikasiene (2014), Urubio (2017), etc. On the basis of mentioned authors’ publications and our experiences as well as results flowed from our previous surveys, we defined the *hypothesis 2 (H2)*: Employees as well as managers will
increase their work effort they perform based on improved decision making on motivating them. The alternative hypothesis was defined in this way: Employees as well as managers will not increase their work effort they perform based on improved decision making on motivating them.

**Hypotheses verification and results**

Verifying defined hypotheses, it is needed to devote attention to several important aspects that are characteristic for the decision making in the field of proper preparation and realization of motivational process. These ones are structured into following three subchapters: 1. Factors respected in motivating; 2. Intensity of motivation; 3. Motivation improvement.

**Factors respected in motivating**

The first significant area was obtaining opinions of respondents concerned with determining what factors managers when making decisions about how they will motivate their employees consider. This question was also designed on contra-position basis, i.e. we asked employees whether their managers consider quantitative, qualitative or combined (qualitative with quantitative) factors when making decisions about how to motivate them. We asked managers whether they use/respect quantitative, qualitative or combined factors in making decisions about, or rather in, motivating.

Results in Table 50 show that both groups express as the most preferred exactly the combination of quantitative and qualitative factors at the same time, whereas the frequency of this preference is substantially higher in the group of managers (62.21%) than in the group of employees (43.26%). The order of preference of quantitative vs. qualitative factors differs as well.

*Table 50. Nature of the factors deciding on how to motivate*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nature of preferred factors in the motivational decision making</th>
<th>Frequency of employees’ expressions (Number/%)</th>
<th>Frequency of managers’ expressions (Number/%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quantitative factors (required amount of work, deadlines tasks, costs, labor productivity, number of improvements and the amount of savings, expected rewards)</td>
<td>556 33.92%</td>
<td>44 14.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualitative factors (create new value, the expected satisfaction and self-fulfillment, quality of relationships, the degree of belonging, improve skills, higher self-esteem)</td>
<td>297 18.12%</td>
<td>70 22.80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quantitative as well as qualitative simultaneously</td>
<td>709 43.26%</td>
<td>191 62.21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Without respondents’ expression</td>
<td>77 4.85%</td>
<td>2 0.65%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Therefore, the verification of hypothesis H1 indicates a significant association, and motivational decision making can be perceived as multi-criteria decisional process.

**Intensity of motivation**

As the *response to rightness of decision making* performed when motivating employees, it is important to also search the intensity (strength, level) of motivation felt from the side of employees. Results in Table 51 imply not fully satisfactory situations in this field (especially in the case of employees). Table shows that the motivational decision making has some gaps and unused (untapped) possibilities that are systematically and consequently reflected in the lower motivation level (= rather high, average, rather low, low) in comparison with the potentially achievable (= high) level.

**Table 51. Intensity (level) of felt motivation (in 2013, N = 1,946)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of felt motivation</th>
<th>Frequency of employees’ expressions</th>
<th>Frequency of managers’ expressions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>327</td>
<td>19.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rather high</td>
<td>838</td>
<td>51.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>23.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rather low</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>3.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>1.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Without respondents’ expression</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Dev.</td>
<td>0.845</td>
<td>0.649</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach’s Alpha</td>
<td>0.824</td>
<td>0.764</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Statistical expression: High = 5; Rather high = 4; Average = 3; Rather lower = 2; Low = 1; Without expression = 0.

**Motivation improvement**

From the viewpoint of testing hypothesis H2 (e.g. multiplications in motivation based on increase of work effort through improved decision making on motivating employees and managers), the gradual fulfillment/non-fulfillment of motivational needs causes higher/lower intensity of motivation. In order to confirm the validity of the said statement it is suitable to present results of two questions applied to managers:

- Proposals for the increase of work motivation (or, proposals that could decide on the increase of managers’ motivation);
- Potential percentage increase of the work performance upon improvement of motivational approach (better motivation decisions).

According to the first of these questions, we asked respondents (in open question) to state their proposals concerned with their willingness to improve their motivation and complex work effort. These suggestions should be applied in achieving better and more precise managerial decisions in the field of motivating employees and managers of the
organizations. From the spectrum of all obtained expressions, Table 52 shows the most frequent 12 suggestions of respondents.

Table 52. Respondents’ proposals for improving motivational decision making

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Proposal</th>
<th>Frequency of proposal</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number of respondents</td>
<td>% of all respondents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher financial rewarding</td>
<td>241</td>
<td>12.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing training activities</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>2.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building good relationships</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>2.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expression higher interest of employees</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>1.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing employee share options</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>1.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career growth</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>1.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing need information</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>1.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition of achievements</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building mutual and open communication</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allowing participate in management and decisions</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing praise</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing space for autonomy and independence</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the second question, which is aimed on the possible multiplications in motivating, we can examine whether the respondents are willing to improve their work effort (will increase their motivation), if managers improve motivational decisions and measures applied towards them. The results in Table 53 show that up to 72% of all respondents are willing to increase the level of their efforts. In the next sequence, in the question “In what extent you are willing to increase your effort?” respondents have indicated they would be able to achieve performance gains (on average) up to 44.92%. The Table hereinafter shows the frequency of performance improvements in desirable increments (1–25, 26–50, 51–100, and 101–150% of potential effort increase in comparison to present effort).

Table 53. Willingness of respondents to improve their work effort (N = 1,946)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer of respondents</th>
<th>All</th>
<th>Employees</th>
<th>Managers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Effort increase (yes)</td>
<td>1,398, 71.84%</td>
<td>1197, 73.03%</td>
<td>201, 65.47%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Without effort increase (no)</td>
<td>460, 23.64%</td>
<td>362, 22.09%</td>
<td>98, 31.92%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Without expression</td>
<td>88, 4.52%</td>
<td>80, 4.88%</td>
<td>8, 2.61%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extent of effort increase (in a case of answer ‘yes’)*

| Increase of 1–25% | 311, 15.98% | 255, 15.56% | 56, 18.24% |
| Increase of 26–50% | 692, 35.56% | 585, 35.69% | 107, 34.85% |
| Increase of 51–100% | 395, 20.30% | 357, 21.78% | 38, 12.38% |
| Mean (𝑥) | 48.50% | 46.15% | 34.68% |

*Some of respondents with answer ‘yes’ did not state the extent of their potential improvement.
Summarizing and connecting results of both mentioned questions, we considered in the analysis the following: proposals for the increase of work motivation were divided into two groups, which were related either to the motivational decision-making process or motivation within other motivation processes. Proposals related to the motivational decision-making process were subsequently divided into subgroups according to previously determined gradation (multiplication) levels. Each group was formed by motivational proposals which best reflect various gradation levels of motivation (these levels will be presented in more detail in the part about practical implications), e.g. 1st level: creative motivation; proposals: for instance, accepting proposals of employees, space for self-action and self-fulfillment; 6th level: satisfaction motivation; proposals: for instance, personal aims, career growth, utilization for humanity, common building. Managers who expressed their proposals for the increase of work motivation were found at a certain level of motivation on the grounds of previously determined gradation levels and motivational proposals defined by them. After thorough categorization of managers to various levels on the grounds of their preferred motivational tools, we proceeded to the determination of percentage value, which specifies the increase of work motivation upon potential application of determined motivational tools (proposal) at individual gradation levels.

Based on all obtained and evaluated results we can state that the multiplication nature of motivation (H2) cannot be rejected (M = 0.296; 0.297; 0.291; 0.622; 0.276; 0.314), as each percentage average for individual levels expresses multiplication of motivation within the framework of motivational decision-making. The total multiplication effect is 2.09-times of motivation of the 6th level as compared to the 1st level.

On the grounds of results of the analysis it can be confirmed that motivation at a certain level always draws its strength from the previous type (level) of motivation and if any motivation level at lower positions is not fully satisfied, the manager will in such cases (if the fulfillment of motivation needs also from lower levels would be provided to such manager) manifest higher intensity of efforts and motivational behavior (as implied by results in Table 54 where SD at a lower level SD = 0.196 and at a higher level SD = 0.318), (Blašková, Bízik & Jankal, 2015).

Discussion and comparison

Knowledge flows from our survey that both managers and employees continue to be willing to increase their level of motivation in order to achieve better performances – the multiplication nature of motivating was confirmed.

It is obvious that decision making on influencing motivation or decision making about the correct motivating should be perceived as multi-criteria qualitative decision-making. “Multi-criteria decision-making emerged as a hallmark and new branch for decision making processes. It is the study of decision making for problems having multiple objectives,” (Liu & Stewart, 2003). It can be defined as a collection of methodologies for comparison, ranking and selecting multiple alternatives having multiple attributes (Levy, 2005).
### Table 54. Gradation levels of motivation and possible multiplications

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Motivational tools</th>
<th>Average increase of performance (%)</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creative motivation</td>
<td>Acceptation of suggestions of employees</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>0.296</td>
<td>0.196</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Space for autonomy and self-realization</td>
<td>29</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gathering experiences from other companies, recognizing of other companies</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship motivation</td>
<td>Trust and wider range of responsibility, authority, competences</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>0.297</td>
<td>0.239</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Providing the information and improve the communication</td>
<td>21</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Greater concern for employees and their opinions</td>
<td>32</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Establish clear rules and objectives</td>
<td>35</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Respect and esteem, respect of individuality</td>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Crating good relationships and improve the atmosphere, team building</td>
<td>26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Participation in management; decision making and goals</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mutual and open cooperation</td>
<td>37</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participative motivation</td>
<td>Establish clear rules and objectives</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>0.291</td>
<td>0.231</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Respect and esteem, respect of individuality</td>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Crating good relationships and improve the atmosphere, team building</td>
<td>26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Participation in management; decision making and goals</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mutual and open cooperation</td>
<td>37</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Flexible approach</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision-making motivation</td>
<td>Moral evaluation and uttering praises, job satisfaction</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>0.622</td>
<td>0.318</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Convinced about the meaning of work and actions, meaningfulness of work</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Develop individual/effective motivational programs</td>
<td>87</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5th level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Profit-result motivation</td>
<td>New management approaches, new managers in company, new system of management, simplifying the processes</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>0.276</td>
<td>0.273</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Develop individual/effective motivational programs</td>
<td>87</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Valuation of innovative approaches</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Appreciation for work and results</td>
<td>23</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Realistic and achievable objectives (plans)</td>
<td>42</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6th level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction motivation</td>
<td>Personal goal</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>0.314</td>
<td>0.274</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Career growth/perspective</td>
<td>33</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Using for man, common building, creating something valuable</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Appreciation for work and results, qualities</td>
<td>23</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Multi-criteria decision making is based on the progression of using methods and procedures of multiple conflicting criteria into management planning processes (Umme-e-Habiba & Asghar, 2009: 321). In a perfect decision-making, decision-maker’s influence on final decision lies on information, knowledge, decision-making capacity and other dynamic factors s/he holds (Wang, Chen & Da, 2005: 1556), and groups of primary economic and social factors (Jokšienė & Žvirblis, 2011: 336). One of the typical decisions managers face in motivating employees is these choices: How can we accommodate employees’ interests and concerns? (Milkovich & Boudreau, 1988: 800). It means a manager must have some understanding of the important differences that exist between individual employees. S/he must know how these differences can be identified, to what extent they can be measured, and how they can be related to job performance (Graham, 1991: 46) and motivation.

**Model of multiplications in motivational decision making**

Motivating always concerns an endless spectrum and chaining of many decision-making processes, where each single one of them concerns multi-criteria issues based on the high level of flexibility of decisive factors. Basic ones from the proposed decision-making are contained in the model (Figure 6).

The complex decision making process about/in motivating begins by making decision about the selection of object of motivational decision-making, i.e. by choosing individual or individuals of motivating. The more objects (employees) the manager chooses for motivating, i.e. the manager takes a particular decision about the determination of employees whom s/he will motivate, the more work and motivational processes the manager opens and the more work will wait for him/her. And even this work will be extraordinarily demanding. On the other hand, if the manager excludes from his/her motivational efforts the only one of employees, s/he will put the whole motivational effort at risk, whereas the creation of synergy effect and achievement of mutual multiplication effects will be prevented.

It means that it is an absolutely natural decision-making process, in which the deciding person wishes to reduce the resulting number of objects as much as possible (in order to have less work), but at the same time knows that s/he should not exclude any object. The decision-making conflict interfering with the logic of thinking of the deciding person (manager considering savings) can be seen here, but also/vs. the pro-social, inspirational and creative role of this deciding person (manager – leader – motivator). Taking into account the requirements (success criteria) of every one of those roles always increases the number of decision-making criteria.

However, this decision making is only one of the first steps in the sequence of many other multi-criteria decision-making processes.

The following decision making can be related to the choice whether the deciding person will be satisfied with previous knowledge on motives of motivated objects, i.e. his/her employees, or will insist upon behaviorally correct decision: to perform thorough re-analysis of motives of such objects (Nakonečný, 1995; Blašková, 2010).
Baseline level and structure of manager’s and employee’s motivation + quality of the previous decision making in the motivating

Criteria of motivation decision making:
- Purposefulness
- Efficiency
- Economization
- Impact on future behaviour
- Harmonization of motives
- Fulfillment of goals of organization

Motivations of manager
- Creative motivation
- Relationship motivation
- Participative motivation
- Decision-making motivation
- Profit-result motivation
- Satisfaction motivation

Motivations of employee
- Participative motivation
- Relationship motivation
- Cognitive motivation
- Fellowship motivation
- Profit-result motivation
- Satisfaction motivation

Making decision about selection of object of motivational decision making (employee or group → decision-making conflict of manager)

Making decision about sufficiency of knowing objects’ motives (risks of obsolete knowledge versus saving analytical effort)

Making decision about methods of knowledge analysis of object’s motives (one versus several methods → advantages versus risks)

Making decision about methods of analysis realization of object’s motives (interviews, questionnaires, meetings, observation, experiment)

Multi-decision making about harmonization of objects’ and subjects’ motives (object – employee; subject – manager, group, organization, family...) (current versus long/term motivation)

Sequence of decision making about:
- metes and objectives of decision making
- flexibility in motivating + share of individual and group influence
- engagement of the motivated object
- new reservoir of motivation tools + rate of intersection with previous content
- competency of motivators + development or training
- content of the initial version of the proposed motivational program
- criteria for the assessment of the future efficiency of the program
- specification of program + implementation + interim verification
- mechanism of permanent supplementation and improvement of program
- performance of motivational interviews and keeping enthusiasm
- feedback + taking corrective measures
- satisfaction and multiplication of achieved effects
- Preparation of future motivational program ---

The resulting structure and level of manager’s and employee’s motivation = + = achievement of the multiplier motivational benefits and consequences

Figure 6: Model of decision making content and multiplied motivations of managers and employee
This decision-making again consists of formulating assumptions, determination of parameters/criteria, risks, potential benefits, both short-term (performance) and long-term (efficiency, cognitive, loyalty) of both decisional alternatives, and the act of taking the final decision. If s/he decides for the second option (where such a decision is correct), further decision making processes open.

It will be important in this induced process to decide by what method or by *what methods the analysis of the current motivation and needs will be performed* (Robbins & Coulter, 2004; Hewstone & Stroebe, 2006). Here another process opens simultaneously (but earlier in time sequence): will *one method* suffice for the motivational analysis, or will several methods be chosen? If several methods are chosen, then it will be necessary to decide *how many* methods will be efficient. That represents another decision-making process, in which it has to be considered what particular methods will be the most suitable.

It is obvious that if the subject decides on one of the previous decision making processes for only one method, some decision-making processes will be eliminated (such as making decision about how many methods; what methods; in what time sequence; with what weight of findings in the overall image of the motivational status of the object and so on).

On the other hand, if the subject uses only one method, the risk that s/he will not obtain truthful reflection of motivational needs, preferences, ideals, interests and attitudes of motivated objects with this method grows. If s/he despite the said risk chooses only one method, the result can be the necessity of further (sometimes in the next flow of decision-making sequence) *decision-making about possible elimination of such risk* (Dewett, 2007; Kozubíková, 2007), as the accepted risk impacts motivation and vice versa (Walsh & Schneider, 2002). For instance: decision to pay more attention to verification whether the resulting motivational program really sufficiently motivates to desired objectives. This will in turn induce again new decision-making: 1. In what form should the efficiency and directness of the motivational program be monitored? 2. In what time? 3. How many motivational interviews should be made in order to obtain feedback for the motivational program? etc.

Decision about the method/methods of updating knowledge of objects’ motives leads to the *performance of survey*. The decision can be to perform a series of analytical-generating motivational interviews with motivated objects (to discuss face to face with an employee about positive motivation and to define possible methods to influence it). The deciding person can choose as a key method questioning through questionnaire (Robbins & Coulter, 2004; Kaleta, 2012); or outputs from evaluating interviews, previous motivational interviews (Armstrong, 2007; Kachaňáková, 2007), work meetings and various discussions, team meetings and so on can be used (Blašková & Blaško, 2011), or the method of observation in various situations can be used; usage of a group experiment (Hewstone & Stroebe, 2006; Ariely, 2011; Millet, Lamey & Van den Bergh, 2012;) or other methods can be decided about. Every chosen method is connected with further decision-making processes: 1. In what form should obtained facts be processed? 2. Should they be presented to employees, and should further intra-group means and tools of motivating be jointly generated? 3. Should the results be presented to superior manager, and together with him/her clarify motivational proposals and decisions?
Chapter 11: Second decisional model: Model of multiplications

The subject must in the following decision-making consider/confront the reality of motivational preferences and expectations with regard to possibilities of organization (Koontz & Weihrich, 1993; Robbins & Coulter, 2004), group (team), manager, environment of the organization, family background of both the subject and object and so on. At the same time, confrontation with every concerned ‘partner’ represents always separate decision-making processes. Hypothetically, if we wish to compare the reality of expectations with five mentioned above partners (whereas for instance the environment of the organization can include many more comparison partners – customers, competitors, public, banks, self-governments and so on), five decision making processes have to take place, which should consider to what degree the balance of motivations of all defined partners will be preserved and in each necessary case it will have to be decided whose motivation will be preferred. That means to decide what further aims (decisions) will have to be defined in order to harmonize such motivations.

Further decision-making will be aimed at harmonization of the long-term (life) motivation of the object with the current motivation of the object (Zanger, 1978; Lisiak, Molden & Lee, 2012). Conflict can arise here, too. How should such conflict be solved? Individually or with the employee? Will it be necessary to make decisions about further (individual) methods of harmonization of the long-term and vs. conflicting current motivation? And again, each such decision making has its parameters/criteria, procedure, dynamics, outcome, which can be satisfactory only to a certain level, and with a certain degree of perceived risk.

**Decision making processes contented in the model**

In relation to the continued sequence of motivational decision making, it will be necessary to open and perform at least the following decision-making processes:

- About determination of suitable objectives, goals of motivating (Majtán et al., 2003), such as motivation to quality work and/or creativity and/or loyalty and/or savings etc.
- About determination of degree of choice or flexibility that can be included in motivating (Milkovich & Boudreau, 1988: 800).
- About determination of the share of individual (from the part of the manager) and group (from the part of colleagues) influence and efforts in implementation of the motivational program.
- About the engagement of the motivated object into the process (Wellington, 2011) and implementation of the motivational program (rate, possibilities, barriers, timidity).
- About determination of the reservoir or databases of motivational tools, with which the motivator/motivators will act on the motivation of the object.
- About determination of the rate of intersection of the previous content (aims, approaches, tools) of the motivational program with the necessity to include new motivational elements (Blašková, 2010); for instance: What elements should be left? What new elements should be included? How to achieve their compliance/non-conflicting nature? How to solve possible disproportions and controversies?
• About consideration of the competence of motivators to be able to efficiently apply their chosen motivational tools.
• About determination of the development or training of motivational skills (Armstrong, 2007; Boxall & Purcell, 2008) in case of concerns about lack of motivational competence (both objective and subjective).
• About determination of the content of the initial version of the proposed motivational program; for instance: Discuss it? How? With whom? Harmonize it?
• About determination of criteria for the assessment of the future efficiency of the program, such as costs, benefits, side positive and negative effects, conflicts, multiplications.
• About specification of the motivational program and implementation of the same.
• About determination of moments of interim verification of efficiency (In what form? When? How to react? Whom to invite in case of trouble?).
• About determination of the mechanism of supplementation and improvement of the motivational program (By what methods? On the grounds of what signals? When the creation of a new program rather than specification of the existing one should be chosen? Should HR manager be engaged? Should colleagues be engaged?).
• About performance of motivational interviews (How often? On an individual basis? Should group motivational interview be tried, too?), (Blašková & Hitka, 2011).
• About keeping the enthusiasm in fulfilling the motivational program (Robbins & Coulter, 2004).
• About thorough feedback after achieving all motivation objectives.
• About seeing motivational mistakes and taking corrective measures (Action plan? Training? Discussion with the HR manager?).
• About the satisfaction (Koontz & Weihrich, 2003; Robbins & Coulter, 2004; Armstrong, 2007; Wellington, 2011) and multiplication of achieved effects (transfer of motivation from one motivated employee to another, or transfer of motivation from the motivator to the motivated).
• About the preparation of future motivational program. Etc.

Multiplication (gradation) of manager’s motivations

In each one of the mentioned decision making processes, a further (higher) motivation of participants to the motivational decision making process is gradually influenced and achieved. If the process is performed correctly, the motivation of the motivating manager (viewed here as the motivation subject) is increased (gradually multiplied):

1st level: Creative motivation – manager feels satisfaction from the fulfillment of his/her creative abilities used for making decisions about the choice of objects of motivating, methods of obtaining information about motivational preferences, methods of motivating and harmonizing new motivators with the previous ones, etc. These characteristics are similar to Maccoby’s (1988) understanding of dynamic values.
2\textsuperscript{nd} level: \textit{Relationship motivation} – manager in cooperation with motivated employees (when updating information about their preferences and needs) strengthens his/her relations, trust and sense of fellowship with employees. Content of this level fills the idea of Alderfer’s ERG theory (1972) or McClelland’s classification of needs (1969).

3\textsuperscript{rd} level: \textit{Participative motivation} – manager consolidates cooperation with other managers and human resource/human potential experts when discussing correct procedures and participation in the creation of their motivational decisions and engaging such managers to his/her own motivational decisions.

4\textsuperscript{th} level: \textit{Decision-making motivation} – with every correct motivational decision made in the motivational process the manager feels his/her maturity in the role of deciding person, whereby s/he acquires stronger certainty and enthusiasm for further motivational decisions. These ideas can be supported by Kim & Mauborgne’s characteristics of strategic decision making (1998).

5\textsuperscript{th} level: \textit{Profit-result motivation} – manager clearly perceives positive consequences of his/her motivational decision-making and efforts, such as the improvement of quality and quantity of performance of employees, growth of the savings rate, growth of the innovations rate etc., but also his/her managerial performance, which jointly induces his/her future motivation to be effective motivator.

6\textsuperscript{th} level: \textit{satisfaction motivation} – manager realizes and obtains through the feedback further signals about his/her motivational results while his/her self-confidence, sense of usefulness and fulfillment of his/her motivational-leading role grows, etc. and thus his/her motivation is stabilized on a long-term basis at a very high, multiplied level. We can relate this level content to the Maslow’s (1970) needs theory, concretely to the meta-needs.

\textbf{Multiplication (gradation) of employee’s motivation}

Moreover, the \textit{motivation of the employee} (viewed here as the motivation object) whom the manager strives to motivate is continuously influenced and increased. We can consider for instance the following motivations derived from manager’s levels:

1\textsuperscript{st} level: \textit{Participative motivation} – by engaging the employee into the decision making on methods of disclosing his/her preferences, determination of correct motivators for improvement of his/her motivation etc., the manager increases employee’s participation and sense of partnership in the motivational process.

2\textsuperscript{nd} level: \textit{Relationship motivation} – arises permanently during communicate his/her needs and ideas for the positive relationship between the employee and the manager to improve, as well as relationships between employees themselves (when providing information about common group needs).

3\textsuperscript{rd} level: \textit{Cognitive motivation} – the employee is aware of the manager’s motivational effort and its impact on his/her own work results, whereby s/he obtains feedback about his/her work behavior, is aware about his/her strengths and weaknesses and can thus continuously improve and motivate his/her work behavior.
4th level: Fellowship motivation – the employee is aware of the significance of moral support, sense of fellowship and acceptance (by colleagues as well as manager), which increases his/her motivation to engage with enthusiasm not only in individual tasks but also in joint (team) tasks.

5th level: Profit-result motivation – the employee perceives increased level of his/her results, is aware of his/her contribution to the group, section and organization (newly created value, growth of work productivity, growth of turnover and profit of the organization, reduction of customer complaints, etc.), which strengthens his/her further work and relationship motivation.

6th level: Satisfaction motivation – awareness of the significance and especially positive consequences of correctly and continuously facilitated motivation (correct motivational decision-making which the employee is engaged in) very strongly satisfies previous work and social needs of the employee and builds a strong basis for co-participation in every further motivational decision making and motivated behavior.

Multiplication effects and multi-criteriality in deciding on motivation affecting

Moreover, each one of the listed motivations always draws its strength from the previous type (level) of motivation (the relationship motivation from the participative one or the 2nd level from the 1st level; the cognitive from both the relationship and participative one, i.e. 3rd level from 2nd + 1st level, etc.). This means that connecting and mutual strengthening of the manager’s motivation and employee’s motivation result in multiplication effects of motivating perceived as a thorough decision making process. It is obvious from the results of our analyses that if the manager’s need is not fully satisfied at a certain level, the increase of his/her motivation to the next level is accompanied with a higher value (Table 54, SD).

The content of decision making processes in the model corresponds with the content of decision making processes presented in literature (Turban & Meredith, 1988; Cole, 1991; Organ & Bateman, 1991; Walsh & Schneider, 2002; Brooks, 2003; Robbins & Coulter, 2004; Wang, Liu & Ruhe, 2004; Levy, 2005; etc.).

Each proposed decision making forms part of the multi-content sequence of decision making processes in motivating. The existence of following decision making criteria and requirements can be considered in the presented model (in each decision making):

- **Purposefulness** (Werther & Davis, 1992; Robbins & Coulter, 2004; Gibb, 2008).
- **Efficiency** (Turban & Meredith, 1988; Gibb, 2008; Wziatek-Stasko, 2012).
- **Economy** (Cole, 1988; Koontz & Weihrich, 1993; Foot & Hook, 2002).
- **Impact on future behavior** (Cole, 1988; Organ & Bateman, 1991; Nakonečný, 2005; Gibb, 2008).
- **Harmonization of motives** (Nakonečný, 1995).
- **Time currency of motives and tools** (Hewstone & Strobe, 2006)
- **Fulfillment of the organization’s goals** (Wright, 2003; Boxall & Purcell, 2008).
Chapter 11: Second decisional model: Model of multiplications

- **Fulfillment of employees’ goals** (Clark, 2003; Luu & Hattrup, 2010; Mainemelis, 2010).
- **Extent of utilization of previous experience** (Blašková, 2011).
- **Multiplication effects** (Blašková, 2010).
- **Reaction of competing employers** (Koubek, 2007).
- **Compliance with ethics and legislation** (Foot & Hook, 2002; Boxall & Purcell, 2008).
- **Maturation of personality.**
- **Success at work.**
- **Satisfaction of the partner (family) life.**

These are indeed numerous criteria. Despite the appearance that our statistical investigation determined relatively low significance of some of the selected motivators (Figure 6), they cannot be excluded in the complex conception of motivation, because every object of motivating, every factor and criterion of motivation in the organization fulfills also the multiplication role. That means (as already mentioned above) that the whole system of motivating could be unsuccessful without their existence.

Some of the presented criteria are to a certain degree in logical conflict with other criteria. For instance, the criterion of purposefulness (to motivate by all available methods in order to achieve the increase/improvement of motivation without regard to financial, time, psychological or factual demands) can be in conflict with the criterion of economization (to choose only such methods of motivating that are not financially demanding). In this case there actually occurs a space for another new decision making process, the substance of which will be to decide on what criteria are more important and will be preferred for a certain period of time. However this shall only be a temporary preference of certain elements and full individualistic and multiplication conception of the motivation must be applied as soon as possible in the whole decision making complex. According to Kachaňáková, similar problems occur also in a situation of selection of new employees (2007: 88).

The mentioned ideas imply that the motivational decision making is always a multi-content and multi-criteria system of many repeated and sequenced decision making processes. The success of such processes is based on the flexibility of motivation subjects, objects, conditions inside the organization as well as within close environment of the organization. It can therefore be derived that multi-criteria nature is closely related to flexibility. Flexibility is a necessary precondition for multi-criteriality. At the same time, multi-criteriality of previous decision making processes is a source of constant strengthening of the future flexibility, creativity and engagement of all participants in the motivational decision making: subjects, i.e. managers, human resource (HR) or human potential experts (HP), and objects, i.e. employees. But in relation to the subchapter devoted to determining participants on motivational decision making, and from the wider current perspective, when respected the fact that it is necessary to motivate not only the employees but also the managers, and fact that the motivational influence might be performed not only from the
side of managers and HR/HP experts but also from the side of employees, **the extension of motivation subjects group arises**: managers, HR/HP experts, and employees (they motivate and could decide about both their superior’s and HR/HP experts’ motivation). And, simultaneously, **the extension of motivation objects group arises**: employees, managers, and HR/HP experts. This makes the motivation deciding even more complicated.

The maturity of motivators (motivation subjects) and quality of their motivational decision making is closely related to the sense of necessary **personal and social responsibility**. It can be metaphorically said that the personal responsibility of employees is to perform work pursuant to requirements of the employer. Their social responsibility is to contribute by their work behavior to create a favorable and helpful work environment (motivating atmosphere) also for other employees and managers, and jointly contribute to the progress of the organization. The personal responsibility of managers is to cultivate their own motivation and conscientiously perform all managerial functions and roles. Their social responsibility is to cultivate motivation of their employees and other managers and thereby systematically confirm the status of the organization as a successful profitable as well as exemplary social subject. This is all necessarily facilitated by previously built motivation of employees and managers, and especially is and will be emphasized by the quality of motivational decision making processes.

**Content and principle of multiplicativeness in decision making process**

Decision-maker creates new variants not only during the phase of variant creation (while he or she ‘finishes’ this phase, and in phase of evaluating these variants are being compared with each other based on multiple predetermined evaluating criteria), but also in phase of very evaluation itself repeatedly opens and engages own creativity and based on findings and new inspirations gained specifically by multiplicative comparison of variants, he or she can create yet another new, more valuable, more inspirational multi-variants.

This permanent **precise-making process** can be liken to a difference which exists between compromise and/versus consensus. Compromise means accepting a solution that to some extent prevents following escalation of the tension in decision making situation. Nevertheless this type of solution is not totally satisfying – decision-maker always gives something up, makes way for situational circumstances. On the other side, consensus means the highest possible level of reaching the result in a decision making situation – decision-maker reaches a solution which contains maximum amount of positives from all possible solutions by continual re-evaluating and improving the original suggestions. Moreover, premeditated combination of different variants also allows to eliminate maximum number of disadvantages or risks that were accompanying particular variants. This kind of ‘consensual’ decisions often contains elements of decision-makers’ originality and invention within and they are often being viewed as innovative or even groundbreaking.

This means that even in spite of preserving usual algorithm of every decision making and implementing all of recommended phases of decision making process and their understanding as individual phases or sub-processes, **all phases and processes are permanently opened**: as if all other phases were occurring always and under any
Chapter 11: Second decisional model: Model of multiplications

circumstances in the background of currently addressed phase. Phases in the background are only ‘fictively finished’. For example, collecting all materials necessary for creation of variants is not yet finished after closing this (first) phase but it is continuing during the whole following process, during all of the following phases and until the ending of this whole decision making process. And every time the decision-maker gathers new information, creates new or differently conceived findings or finding with a new content, he or she could (and should) embed these into every following phase of the decision making process.

This very ‘cognitive-permanent’ mechanism applies to the next (second) phase of decision making process as well: phase of variants preparation for decision making. This phase too cannot ever be finished and has to permanently continue and be integrated to all other phases. This means that the creation of new ways of reaching predetermined decision-making goals should be smoothly realized in the phase of variants assessment as well as in phase of variant selection and in phase of the selected variant implementation. Videlicet, within the application of flexibility principle during decision making and thinking, even selected variant can later turn out to be the one not entirely appropriate: presumably not even the most skilled decision-maker cannot foresee all the future and cannot count with every single potential condition of environment because environment, people, circumstances, relationships, etc. are constantly changing: neither environment or people are static. However the decision-maker has to be wise and open-minded enough to be able to change his or her previous decision, during the process of execution of accepted variant, and to replace it with newer, more effective solution which reflects better the current change of environment or willingness of employees and managers, whom the application of decision will affect.

Moreover, principle of continual course of all phases within decision making process does not have to be related only to ‘forward’, following phases of the process. It can be integrated into all of the previous phases that run ahead, phases that precede the current phase. This emphasizes that the motivational decision making is the permanently self-cyclic process. For example as early as during preparation phase of the decision making process, when decision-maker defines core of the decision-making problem and sets goals for decision making, s/he already has to consider what kind of information or knowledge s/he will be needing in, from what sources, in what form, how frequently s/he will be gather (from the viewpoint of relevance and reliability), etc. Decision-maker also has to think in advance about how many and what kind of variants will be needed to work up, how they have to differentiate, what should be their content, what kind of conditions have to accounted for, what kind of risk is acceptable, etc. Decision-maker then has to think about necessity of multi-variant approach. Also, during this preparation phase, the decision-maker is aware of what the criteria should be, so they will be able to properly predict assets as well as ‘costs’ of each variant, what type of risk can be potentially connected with particular variants, etc. Decision-maker always considers the fact that the set of evaluating criteria has to be large enough – it has to be multi-criteria variant assessment.

This ‘pattern’ of mental course of decision making process should be applied during every phase of particular decision making, however also during all of decision making processes that decision-maker deals with. This increases his or her decision-making skills
and the decision-maker is then becoming more effective and wiser; success rate and quality of accepted and implemented decisions are gradually improving. Additionally, in the area of decision making processes, those intent is to choose correct form, way and tools for motivating, there is even another specificity: the very character of motivational processes and events (scenarios) ongoing inside the organizations. Manager as a decision-maker about motivating his or her employees has to motivate not only one employee, but at the same time s/he has to be targeted, has to prepare, choose and apply the motivational decisions towards all of his or her employees simultaneously. This means that within one decision making process there are overlapping, constantly repeating and looping all of the previous phases at the same time.

In addition, a decision-maker has to handle several of these decision making processes (with internally overlapping and constantly repeating phases) at the same time – depending on the number of his or her subordinate employees. Even more complicating is fact that the decision-maker has to be constantly deciding about his or her own motivation and has to align them together with motivations and motivating of own employees. In this regard it is about mastering motivation multiplication of participants involved in the motivational decision making.

Another specificity is that besides the individualized decision making processes are aimed at deciding about motivation and motivating of employees individually, it is also necessary to decide on a way in which to apply group motivational processes. A lot of employees’ motives (needs, interests, desires, etc.) can only be achieved individually, i.e. through individualized motivational programs and processes. However because employees in the work environment are not only individuals but they are full-valued members of work groups and teams, they are taking on themselves also group motives aside from individual motives: motives of a team they are members of. Group motives are often so specific that it is possible to reach them only by group, united effort and process.

This means that the manager has to decide not only about individual motivation events (of employees and his or hers own) but also has to perform the decision making processes about the group (common) motivation, i.e. motivate all group of his or her employees simultaneously. In this point of view it is about multiplication of individual and versus group decision making processes in matters of motivation: the more needs surface in time (regardless of whether they are individual or group), the higher number of decision-making motivating events (scenarios) that has to be carried on.
Conclusion and implications of constructed models

Full generalization of our overall research, which consists of the analysis, meta-analysis, comparison, and synthesis of theory and the partial empirical surveys performed in 2006, 2009, 2013, and 2016, results in development of a following series motivational models, presented in this monograph:

- Symbiotic motivation-process spirals (Chapter 8);
- Symbiotic human potential development process-process spirals (Chapter 8);
- Symbiotic motivation-business-processes spirals (Chapter 8);
- Model of symbiotic spirals between and among the motivation, the HPD processes and the business processes (Chapter 8);
- First decisional model: Decision making and motivating (Chapter 10);
- Second decisional model: Model of multiplications in motivation decision making (Chapter 11).

All listed models might to a certain degree be influenced by geographical-cultural locality in which the surveys were executed, as well as by the time period of surveys performance. Obtained sociologic results are from the geographical-cultural point of view often specific and characteristic (valid) just for the region (continent, country) where the survey took place. Psychic processes, i.e. emotions, motivation, experience and so on can be specific with regard to the continent, cultural groups, etc. (Scherer & Wallbot, 1994; Kassin, 2012).

Similarly, especially the current social and relational crisis, can mean a certain specification of our results and models (in comparison with e.g.: Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2009; Jokšienė & Žvirblis, 2011; Lisiak, Modeln & Lee, 2012). Organizations have exactly in these periods of time an excellent opportunity for application of just those motivational tools and taking those decisions that are not too expensive.

For example, the expression of interest in employee, and/or application of praise, and/or use of positive elements of other forms of verbal and nonverbal communication, and/or keeping the promises and agreed managerial and motivational rules and habits, and/or engaging and empowering employees, etc. are absolutely non-costing from the viewpoint of spent organizational finance.

However, these motivational elements are conditioned by and need a great extent of understanding, willingness, obligingness, seeing through the eyes of other, well-disposition, meaningfulness, and cordial inputs from the side of managers. In an absolute pragmatic viewpoint it means that the essence of effective motivating is based on the primary decision of the manager: to be a good motivator and put all the energy into this role. Naturally, this is the most difficult and at the same time the most binding decision of a managerial profession.
Based on aforementioned, all opinions, facts, propositions, recommendations, warnings, and conclusions included in particular chapters and sub-chapters of this monograph indicate that the motivational decision making, i.e. decision making about carefully define ways of influencing the motivation, is really complicated and extremely challenging. However, as the object of scientific interest, the motivation decision making provides a great opportunity, and even an inevitability for precise and thorough research.
Annex 1

Questionnaire searching dynamics and decision making on motivation

Ladies and gentlemen,

We would like to ask you very much to fill out this questionnaire. Intention of the questionnaire is to find out how strong your motivation is, how you decide when motivating yourself, what motivational tools you consider to be the most effective, etc. Therefore, we sincerely ask you to answer the following questions by marking the answer that is closest to you. We will surely guarantee that your responses remain completely anonymous and in no case they will be misused. On the contrary, your responses will greatly help to improve employee motivation in our organizations. We thank you very much for your willingness, patience and time.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Age:</th>
<th>Sex:</th>
<th>Education:</th>
<th>Length of practice:</th>
<th>Size of your company:</th>
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<td>□ female</td>
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<td>□ PhD.</td>
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<td>□ large (&gt;250 employees)</td>
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<tr>
<th>County:</th>
<th>Sector of your company:</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>□ BB</td>
<td>□ PO Informatics and communications</td>
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<td>□ BA</td>
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<td>□ KE</td>
<td>□ TT Public administration and security</td>
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1. Are you sufficiently informed on goals and problems of your company?
   □ Yes □ Almost yes □ Average □ Almost not □ Not

2. What approach/style of leading does apply your superior towards you?
   □ Participative
   □ Neutral
   □ Authoritative

3. Do you consider the appraisal (evaluation) of your performance from the side of your superior as objective and fair?
   □ Yes □ Almost yes □ Average □ Almost not □ Not

4. Do you consider the communication from the side of your superior as open?
   □ Yes □ Almost yes □ Average □ Almost not □ Not

5. Does your superior create the atmosphere of trust, obligingness and belonging towards you?
   □ Yes □ Almost yes □ Average □ Almost not □ Not

6. On what level is your motivation to following aspects:
   - *To quality of work:*
     □ High □ Rather high □ Average □ Rather low □ Not
   - *To permanent improving your skills and knowledge:*
     □ High □ Rather high □ Average □ Rather low □ Not
   - *To submitting new proposals and increasing effectiveness of processes done:*
     □ High □ Rather high □ Average □ Rather low □ Not
   - *To cooperation with your superior and management of the company:*
     □ High □ Rather high □ Average □ Rather low □ Not
7. What factors take you into account when motivating yourselves to something (can mark more factors simultaneously):

1. □ Fast vs. long time of achieving goal 8. □ Fear of failure in too demanding goal
2. □ Simplicity vs. complexity of goal 9. □ The need to do something
4. □ Expected satisfaction of colleagues 11. □ Accelerate your career growth
5. □ Expected satisfaction of superior 12. □ Damping the qualms for conscience
6. □ Possibility to learn something new 13. □ Effort to prove you can do it
7. □ Obtain a sense of usefulness 14. □ Your feel of responsibility

Please indicate three of these factors in order from most important (their numbers): ...................................

8. What factors are preferred by your superior when deciding on how to motivate you? (can mark more factors simultaneously):

□ Demanded extent of outputs  □ Number of achieved tasks
□ Keep of defined deadlines  □ Savings achieved by you
□ Quality of your work  □ Your hard work and diligence
□ Your participation in developing your skills  □ Your responsibility, autonomy and reliability
□ Your career development and further opportunities  □ Your friendliness and creating good relations
□ Lodging of proposals from your side  □ Your work overtime

9. What of the following elements were most contributed to change of your motivation, i.e. triggered today your other needs, plans and aspirations than you felt before? (can mark more factors):

1. Significant success in the work area 10. Death of a loved one or friend
2. Large failure in work 11. Arising the hidden, latent need
3. Experience of joyful, pursuing event 12. Long-term fatigue, stress, burn-out
4. The success and happiness of your child 13. Awareness of own qualities
5. Slow maturation and own development 14. Demotivating influence of superior
6. Satisfaction in partner life 15. Failure, unfortunate of the child
7. Meeting recognized, respected man 16. Disappointment in partner life
8. Achieving a long-desired goal 17. Change of job or employment

10. For the numbers of factors that you have indicated in the previous list, mark symbols +1, or +2, or +3 if your motivation has increased under the influence of a given factor; and mark -1, or -2, or -3 if your motivation has been weakened under the influence of this factor (+3 means the biggest increase of your motivation; -3 means the biggest decrease of motivation).

1. …. Significant success in the work area 10. …. Death of a loved one or friend
2. …. Large failure in work 11. …. Arising the hidden, latent need
3. …. Experience of joyful, pursuing event 12. …. Long-term fatigue, stress, burn-out
4. …. The success and happiness of your child 13. …. Awareness of own qualities
5. …. Slow maturation and own development 14. …. Demotivating influence of superior
6. …. Satisfaction in partner life 15. …. Failure, unfortunate of the child
7. …. Meeting recognized, respected man 16. …. Disappointment in partner life
8. …. Achieving a long-desired goal 17. …. Change of job or employment
9. …. Starting a family 18. …. Health and state of health
11. Please put the effectiveness of any motivational tool to you on a scale from 1 to 10 (10 points – against you extremely effective motivator; 1 – ineffective motivator to you, for you do not count).

1. … Personal bonuses and rewards 7. … Providing the necessary information
2. … Praise 8. … Good relationships and atmosphere
3. … Interest on opinions and suggestions 9. … Providing platform for independence
4. … Career growth 10. … Fairness of superior
5. … Development and training activities 11. … Criterion of your performance appraisal
6. … Engaging employees in the decision making 12. … Application of threats and sanctions

Please indicate three of these factors in order from most important (their numbers): ........ ........ ........

12. What from following motivators are applied really towards you from the side of your superior? (can mark more factors):

1. Personal bonuses and rewards 7. Providing the necessary information
2. Praise 8. Good relationships and atmosphere
3. Interest on opinions and suggestions 9. Providing platform for independence
4. Career growth 10. Fairness of superior
5. Development and training activities 11. Criterion of your performance appraisal
6. Engaging employees in the decision making 12. Application of threats and sanctions

13. From the passing the time, how the superior does decide when motivate you?

☐ Superior permanently changes the motivators, depending on changes of your needs and expectations
☐ Superior changes the motivators only in a case of remarkable changes of your needs and expectations
☐ Superior does not change the motivators – permanently applied an identical spectrum of motivators

14. Do you think that due to the passage of time (from past to present), the efficiency of motivators that have applied and applies now your superior to you has changed – some motivational tools are now more efficient than before, and vice versa?

☐ Yes  ☐ Not

15. Does your superior create the motivational programs for you?

☐ Yes  ☐ Yes, even with my participation  ☐ Not

16. Please, specify whether and by how much percent on average would increase the overall level of your effort if the motivational approach from your supervisor towards you will be improved:

☐ Yes of . . . %  ☐ Not

17. Please, specify the measurements that could increase your motivation in company

☐ Greater interest in employees and their opinions  ☐ Providing the necessary information
☐ Training activities and skills development  ☐ Mutual and open cooperation
☐ Creating good relationship and a positive atmosphere  ☐ Space for autonomy and self-realization
☐ Higher financial remuneration and rewards  ☐ Better work conditions
☐ Career growth and job prospects  ☐ Expression of recognition for quality work
☐ Participation in management and decision-making  ☐ Employee bonuses and benefits
☐ Fairness, justice and humanity of superior  ☐ Improving mutual communication

Thank you very much
Annex 2

Questionnaire searching dynamics and decision making on motivation
(for managers)

Ladies and gentlemen,

We would like to ask you very much to fill out this questionnaire. Intention of the questionnaire is to find out how strong your motivation is, how you decide when motivating yourself, what motivational tools you consider to be the most effective, etc. Therefore, we sincerely ask you to answer the following questions by marking the answer that is closest to you. We will surely guarantee that your responses remain completely anonymous and in no case they will be misused. On the contrary, your responses will greatly help to improve employee motivation in our organizations. We thank you very much for your willingness, patience and time.

Age: □ male □ female □ vocational □ secondary □ higher □ Ph.D. □ top level □ middle level □ operative level □ top level □ micro (< 20 employees) □ small (20 – 50 employees) □ medium (50 – 250 employees) □ large (>250 employees)

County: □ BB □ PO □ Informatics and communications □ Finance and insurance □ Construction □ BA □ TN □ Accommodation and catering □ Transport and storage □ Education □ KE □ TT □ Public administration and security □ Agriculture □ Health □ NR □ ZA □ Wholesale and retail □ Industrial production □ Others □ Energy and water supply □ Art and entertainment

1. Are you sufficiently informed on goals and problems of your company?
□ Yes □ Almost yes □ Average □ Almost not □ Not

2. What approach/style of leading do you apply towards your employees?
□ Participative □ Neutral □ Authoritative

3. Do you consider the appraisal (evaluation) of your performance from the side of your superior as objective and fair?
□ Yes □ Almost yes □ Average □ Almost not □ Not

4. Do you consider the communication from the side of your superior as open?
□ Yes □ Almost yes □ Average □ Almost not □ Not

5. Do you create the atmosphere of trust, obligingness and belonging towards your employees?
□ Yes □ Almost yes □ Average □ Almost not □ Not

6. On what level is your motivation to following aspects:
   • To qua of work:
     □ High □ Rather high □ Average □ Rather low □ Not
   • To permanent improving your skills and knowledge:
     □ High □ Rather high □ Average □ Rather low □ Not
   • To submitting new proposals and increasing effectiveness of processes done:
     □ High □ Rather high □ Average □ Rather low □ Not
   • To creative leading and motivating your employees:
     □ High □ Rather high □ Average □ Rather low □ Not
7. What factors take you into account when motivating yourselves to something (can mark more factors simultaneously):

1. □ Fast vs. long time of achieving goal
2. □ Simplicity vs. complexity of goal
3. □ Expected self-satisfaction
4. □ Expected satisfaction of colleagues
5. □ Expected satisfaction of superior
6. □ Possibility to learn something new
7. □ Obtain a sense of usefulness
8. □ Fear of failure in too demanding goal
9. □ The need to do something
10. □ Obtain financial reward
11. □ Accelerate your career growth
12. □ Damping the qualms for conscience
13. □ Effort to prove you can do it
14. □ Your feel of responsibility

Please indicate three of these factors in order from most important (their numbers): ......................................

8. What factors do you prefer when deciding on way of how to motivate your employees? (can mark more factors simultaneously):

□ Demanded extent of outputs
□ Keep of defined deadlines
□ Quality of their work
□ Their participation in developing their skills
□ Their career development and further opportunities
□ Lodging of proposals from them
□ Number of achieved tasks
□ Savings achieved by them
□ Their hard work and diligence
□ Their responsibility, autonomy and reliability
□ Their friendliness and creating good relations
□ Their work overtime

9. What of the following elements were most contributed to change of your motivation, i.e. triggered today your other needs, plans and aspirations than you felt before? (can mark more factors):

1. Significant success in the work area
2. Large failure in work
3. Experience of joyful, pursuing event
4. The success and happiness of your child
5. Slow maturation and own development
6. Satisfaction in partner life
7. Meeting recognized, respected man
8. Achieving a long-desired goal
9. Starting a family
10. Death of a loved one or friend
11. Arising the hidden, latent need
12. Long-term fatigue, stress, burn-out
13. Awareness of own qualities
14. Demotivating influence of superior
15. Failure, unfortunate of the child
16. Disappointment in partner life
17. Change of job or employment
18. Health and state of health

10. For the numbers of factors that you have indicated in the previous list, mark symbols +1, or +2, or +3 if your motivation has increased under the influence of a given factor; and mark -1, or -2, or -3 if your motivation has been weakened under the influence of this factor (+3 means the biggest increase of your motivation; -3 means the biggest decrease of motivation).

1. .... Significant success in the work area
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3. .... Experience of joyful, pursuing event
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5. .... Slow maturation and own development
6. .... Satisfaction in partner life
7. .... Meeting recognized, respected man
8. .... Achieving a long-desired goal
9. .... Starting a family
10. .... Death of a loved one or friend
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12. .... Long-term fatigue, stress, burn-out
13. .... Awareness of own qualities
14. .... Demotivating influence of superior
15. .... Failure, unfortunate of the child
16. .... Disappointment in partner life
17. .... Change of job or employment
18. .... Health and state of health
11. Please put the effectiveness of any motivational tool to you on a scale from 1 to 10 (10 points – against you extremely effective motivator; 1 – ineffective motivator to you, for you do not count).

1. … Personal bonuses and rewards
2. … Praise
3. … Interest on opinions and suggestions
4. … Career growth
5. … Development and training activities
6. … Engaging employees in the decision making
7. … Providing the necessary information
8. … Good relationships and atmosphere
9. … Providing platform for independence
10. … Fairness of superior
11. … Criterion of your performance appraisal
12. … Application of threats and sanctions

Please indicate three of these factors in order from most important (their numbers): ........  ........  .........

12. What from following motivators are applied really towards you from the side of your superior? (can mark more factors):

1. Personal bonuses and rewards
2. Praise
3. Interest on opinions and suggestions
4. Career growth
5. Development and training activities
6. Engaging employees in the decision making
7. Providing the necessary information
8. Good relationships and atmosphere
9. Providing platform for independence
10. Fairness of superior
11. Criterion of your performance appraisal
12. Application of threats and sanctions

13. From the passing the time, how the superior does decide when motivate you?

☐ Superior permanently changes the motivators, depending on changes of your needs and expectations
☐ Superior changes the motivators only in a case of remarkable changes of your needs and expectations
☐ Superior does not change the motivators – permanently applied an identical spectrum of motivators

14. What from following motivators do you apply towards your employees? (can mark more factors):

☐ Personal bonuses and rewards
☐ Praise
☐ Interest on opinions and suggestions
☐ Career growth
☐ Development and training activities
☐ Engaging employees in the decision making
☐ Providing the necessary information
☐ Good relationships and atmosphere
☐ Providing platform for independence
☐ Fairness of superior
☐ Criterion of your performance appraisal
☐ Application of threats and sanctions

15. Do you think that due to the passage of time (from past to present), the efficiency of motivators that have applied and applies now your superior to you has changed – some motivational tools are now more efficient than before, and vice versa?

☐ Yes  ☐ Not

16. Do you create the motivational programs for your employees?

☐ Yes  ☐ Yes, even with their participation  ☐ Not

17. Please, specify whether and by how much percent on average would increase the overall level of your effort if the motivational approach from your supervisor towards you will be improved:

☐ Yes of . . . %  ☐ Not

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☐ Participation in management and decision-making
☐ Fairness, justice and humanity of superior
☐ Providing the necessary information
☐ Mutual and open cooperation
☐ Space for autonomy and self-realization
☐ Better work conditions
☐ Expression of recognition for quality work
☐ Employee bonuses and benefits
☐ Improving mutual communication

Thank you very much
References


Motivation: Motivational spirals and decision making


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References


Motivation: Motivational spirals and decision making


References


Motivation: Motivational spirals and decision making


References


Motivation: Motivational spirals and decision making


### Register

**A**bility 39, 73, 98, 101, 172  
Abstraction 14, 181  
Accelerate, acceleration 57, 113, 122, 162, 165, 171  
Accelerator 28, 37  
Acceptation 177, 178, 199  
Accumulated energy 13  
Activate 32, 52, 55, 145  
Activation, activating 34, 177  
Activity 39, 51, 80, 102  
Adaptation 105  
Addressability 20  
Advancement 86, 135, 178  
Advantage 92–94, 179, 201, 208  
Advertising 101  
Advice 125, 175  
Aim 18, 30, 35, 45, 65, 109, 143–146, 173, 198, 203  
Alarming 50, 79, 83  
Allocation 91, 112  
Alphabetical puzzle 38–39  
Alternative 63, 153, 159, 171–173, 192, 202  
Altruism 28, 31, 81  
Ambition 30, 37, 56, 72, 96, 149, 177, 192  
Ambushes 77  
Amotivation 14, 41, 49–52, 73, 139, 154  
Analysis 11, 14, 30, 70, 74–76, 94, 110, 165, 179, 180, 191, 198, 200–202  
Analytic 22, 23, 75, 202  
Anchor 76, 94, 95, 115  
Anger 85  
Antimotive 50–52  
Anxiety 62  
Applicant 98–105, 143  
− causal 131, 136  
− cognitive 131–132  
− communicational 131, 134–135  
− comparative 131, 133–134  
− decision-making 131, 132  
− developmental 131, 135–136  
− interview 87, 110–111, 132, 134–135  
− motivational 131, 138–139  
− multi-object 131, 136–137  
− multi-subject 131, 137  
− regulative 131, 132–133  
− understanding 131–139  
Appreciation 64, 86, 87, 91, 114, 152, 199  
Architecture 91  
Arrangement 38, 87, 91, 191  
Artefact 90, 91, 98, 106  
Association 42–44, 96, 140, 147, 186–188  
Asymptotic significance 66, 120, 127  
Atmosphere 78–83, 103, 118, 139, 144, 146–147, 149, 153, 157–161, 199, 213  
Attention 11, 14, 115, 177, 202  
Attitude 28, 34–36, 50, 93, 103, 107  
Attract 72, 80, 99, 172  
Autonomy 31, 40, 60, 78, 197, 199, 214  
Auto-regulatory 39  
Aversion 37, 52, 137, 172  
Avoid 29, 36, 37, 52, 134, 172, 182  
Awareness 24, 66, 101, 115, 138–140, 142–146, 175, 189, 206, 214  
Balance 63, 70, 177, 194, 203  
Behavior 113, 122  
− appropriate 20, 138  
− cultivated 124  
− desirable 106, 108, 111, 113  
− individualized 62  
− motivated 35, 40, 62, 64, 170, 206  
− multi-motivated 40  
− role-model 122, 124  
− symbolic 91  
Belief 51, 92, 112, 140, 148–151  
Believe 74, 86  
Belongingness 146–149, 151–153, 157–158, 162, 163  
Bench-motivating 61  
Benefactor 85  
Biology 38, 179  
Bonuses 71, 78, 80, 82, 83, 113, 126, 180, 215  
Bottleneck 99, 103–104  
Boundaries 87, 172  
Boycott 50  
Brain 28  
Brainstorming 75, 180  
Burden 125  
Burn out 50, 66, 214, 217  
− syndrome 125
Demotivate, demotivation 50–52, 66, 73, 77, 82, 107, 113, 139, 192, 214
Depression 189, 192
Deprivation 34, 35
Desire 30, 32, 34, 37, 65, 70, 80, 96, 148, 172, 177, 192, 214
Determination 31, 40, 97, 111, 174, 176, 184, 192, 202–204
Development 60, 65, 70, 73, 78, 81–84, 110, 115–116, 118–122, 147, 153, 159–168
Developmental 80, 130, 131, 135–136
Differentiation 35
Dignity 125, 145
Dimension 38, 70, 116, 175
– cultural 116
Direction 11, 32, 36, 38, 74, 162, 174, 178, 191
Disappointment 31, 50, 52, 66, 126, 148, 150, 189, 192, 214
Disclose 52, 86
Disposition 32, 41
Disproportion 60, 203
Distribution of respondents 22, 24, 26
Dream 31
Drive 29–31, 84, 152, 162, 164, 166, 168
Driving force 84

Economy 28, 179, 180, 206
Education 26, 41, 42, 46–47, 61, 114, 185
Effectiveness 23, 38, 41–42, 44–47, 66–67, 97, 134
Efficiency 56, 66, 82–86, 159, 201, 202, 204
Effort 33, 35, 39, 77, 99, 170, 194–198
Ego-involved 29, 56
Egoism 28, 34, 161
Emotion 51, 81, 174–175
Emotional 38, 55, 79–80, 148–151
Emotionality 175
End-state 34
Energize 59
Energy 13, 30, 32–34, 37, 79, 138, 153, 211
Engagement 84, 137, 201, 203, 207
Enhance 32, 113, 120, 138, 165
Enhancer 32
Enthusiasm 19, 36, 44, 122, 141, 145, 165, 201, 205, 206
Equal opportunity 63
Equation 24
Escalate, escalation 13, 125, 165, 208
Estimation 180
Ethics 38, 59, 107, 151, 201, 207
Events 23, 50, 55, 65, 76, 79–80, 87, 110, 150, 181, 210
Excellence, excellent 28, 59, 75, 122, 138, 149
Exchange 34, 85, 110, 139, 170
Exclude 35, 42, 200, 207
Existence 38, 40, 145, 206
Expectation 44, 56, 76, 83, 86, 119, 126, 135, 170, 177, 203, 215
Experience 22, 26, 36, 37, 40–45, 66, 100, 137, 149, 173–175, 182, 189–194, 214
Experiment 14, 33, 86, 180, 201
Extrinsic 29, 36, 41, 51, 55, 56, 59, 111–112, 124

Face 35, 144, 200, 202
Facilitate 33, 70, 75, 124, 147, 164, 206
Failure 50, 57, 66, 70, 77, 95, 126, 136, 167, 175, 189, 192, 214
Fairness 78, 82–83, 127, 154, 161, 215
Faith 88, 123
Family 36, 38, 63–66, 181, 201, 203, 207, 214
Fantasy 84, 122
Fatigue 66, 189, 192, 214
Fear 50, 52, 57, 137, 138, 142, 172, 214
Feature 38, 62, 65, 87–88, 122
Feedback 38, 74, 77, 87, 103, 110, 113, 132–137, 140, 149, 163, 171–174, 191, 192, 201–205
Feel 29–33, 36, 40, 46, 57–58, 76–79, 129, 159, 177, 189, 204, 205, 214
Feeling 57, 73, 84, 112, 146, 175, 182
Fight 31
Firmness 48
Flexibility 63–68, 83, 200, 201, 203, 207, 209
Flexible modes 63, 64
Focus 14, 36, 46, 74, 94–98, 106, 111–115, 164, 181–182
Followers 57, 119, 121–125, 163
Force
– driving 84
– psychological 31
– situational 85
Forward 14, 70, 129, 135, 163, 209
Freedom 124–127
Motivation: Motivational spirals and decision making

Frequency 40, 43, 45, 47, 51, 132, 159, 185–190, 195–197
Friend 19, 38, 54, 56, 60, 66, 85, 125, 141, 147, 152, 177, 181, 189, 192, 214
Frustration, frustrating 126, 128, 189, 192
Fulfilment 58
Function 13, 37, 82, 92, 96–98, 109, 112, 134, 170, 208

Game 33, 84–85
Gamification 84
Gap 42, 196
Gender 22, 23, 26, 46, 65, 72
Gift 71, 77
Goal 31, 32–36, 39, 57, 74, 76, 87, 96, 99, 133, 144, 170–173, 189, 192, 199, 209, 213
Gradation 11, 162, 198, 199, 204–205
Gradational 162
Guidance 125, 162
Guide 11, 32, 136

Habit 33, 35, 62, 64, 105–106, 145, 178
Habitual procedures 44
Happiness 66, 88, 129, 148, 189, 214
Happy 87, 103
Harmonization 20, 161, 170, 192, 201, 203
Hate 37
Health 19, 57, 65, 66, 98, 214
Heart 122, 148
Hero 98, 107, 116
Hesitation 126
Hierarchical model 41
Hierarchy 23, 41, 86, 103, 136, 179
Hope 123, 129
Human beings 13, 31, 65, 87, 152, 165, 172, 177, 184
Human potential development 24, 28, 73, 87, 95–116, 132, 146, 153, 158–168
Human resource management 28, 37, 70, 179
Humanity 11, 78, 122, 198, 215
Humankind 65
Hypothesis 146–147, 153, 159, 160, 184–190, 194–196
Hypothetical construct 165, 176

Ideal 18, 30, 38, 81, 176, 202

Ideas 37, 41, 42, 44–47, 71, 74, 96, 122, 142, 153, 179, 205
Identification 20, 26, 37, 70, 75, 82, 101, 115, 133
Image 63, 80, 91, 99, 106, 149, 175, 202
Imaginary 39, 148, 175, 181, 182
Imagination 11, 67, 175
Immediate 38, 74, 134
Impact 13, 28, 51, 52, 86, 95, 102, 109, 113, 122, 125, 142, 161, 176, 191, 201
Imperfection 14, 125, 126, 138
Implementation 14, 23, 39, 44, 72, 74, 76, 77, 108, 115, 135, 191, 201, 203, 204, 209
Improvement 14, 36, 37, 41–47, 78, 128, 144, 159, 165–167, 182, 195–197, 201, 205
Impulse 37, 38, 50, 76, 80, 131, 151
Inactivity 51
Incentive 30, 52, 61, 78–82, 138, 176
Indecisiveness 177, 179
Independence 59, 62, 82, 83, 197, 215
Individualistic 41, 87, 189, 207
Influence 14, 24, 40, 46, 56, 61, 66, 100, 103, 126, 147, 161–163, 178–182, 189, 191, 194
Inner state 28, 29, 191
Inspiration 37, 61, 64, 72, 81, 119, 121–123, 125, 163, 200, 208
Instigation 33, 55, 80, 170
Instigative force 28, 31
Instruction 62, 76
Insufficiencies 172
Integrate 95, 209
Intellect 80, 87, 125, 165, 175, 191
Intellective 39
Intensification 31, 54, 177
Intensifier 37
Intensity of motivation 32, 80, 158–160, 185–186, 195, 196
Interaction 39, 62, 63, 86, 119, 139, 150, 194
Interdisciplinary 38, 39
Interest in opinion 83
Internalization 36
Inter-psychical 39, 191
Intersection 93, 170, 201, 203
Interview 22, 75, 96, 104, 105, 201
– appraisal 87, 110, 111, 132, 134, 135
– feedforward 129, 135
– motivation 87, 132, 135, 201, 202, 204
– structured 179
Intra-psychical 39, 54, 56, 177, 191
Intuition 175, 180, 182
Intuitive 38, 133, 174, 182
Invariability 65
Inventiveness 37, 131

Jargon 91, 98
Job analysis 96–97
Joke 91, 98
Justice 77, 78, 85, 119, 152, 215
Justification 26, 94

Labor potential 99
Lack the courage 45
Laic 11
Language 98, 103, 142
Leader 116, 118, 121–126, 148, 164, 200
Leadership 24, 87, 107, 118–126, 153–154, 159–165, 186
– authentic
– charismatic 121, 125
– creative 42, 118–120, 125, 126, 63, 165
– inspirational 119, 163
– intelligent 121
– motivating 125, 126
– spiritual 123
– transcendent 122, 123, 125
– transformational 119, 121–125, 161
Learned knowledge 44
Legend 91, 98, 107
Life 39, 123, 138, 165, 178, 189, 192
– mission 36, 39
– private 19, 50, 63, 66
– partner 189, 192, 201, 207, 214
– professional 32, 41
Likelihood ratio 43, 44, 46, 67, 120, 127, 141, 144, 147
Likert’s scale 23, 154–155, 159
Limitation 63
Linear-by-linear association 43, 44, 46, 67, 120, 127, 141, 144, 147
Live-role 31
Longitudinal research 14, 22
Long-term 28, 38, 50, 63, 64, 66, 146, 165, 184, 189, 192, 202, 203, 205, 214
Love 28, 31, 66, 123, 189, 192, 214
Loyalty 46, 71, 98, 148, 167, 171, 203

Magnetic resonance 33
Maintain 39, 63, 67, 73, 101, 125, 147
Management 14, 22, 23, 26, 28, 37, 42, 70–76, 85, 92, 115, 128, 161, 176, 185, 197, 213
– Manifest 35, 90, 93, 104, 151
– Manipulation 28
– Manipulative 51, 244,
– Master 36, 40, 52, 87, 121, 125, 128, 210
– Matureness 118
– Mechanism 38, 50, 132, 139, 176, 179, 201, 204
– cognitive–permanent 209
– Meta-analysis 14, 180, 211
– Meta-analytic 35
– Meta-needs 14, 39, 205
– Metaphor 91, 98, 119, 122, 208
– Mete 30, 126, 145, 149, 172, 177, 192, 201
– Method 14, 35, 61, 75, 96, 104, 110, 153, 166, 144, 179–180, 184–185, 188, 192, 201–205
– cascade 180
– decision analysis 180
– decision tables 180
– decision threes 180
– Delphi 180
– Heuristic 180
– Porter 181
– qualitative 180
– quantitative 179
– QUEST 181
– SWOT 181
– Mind 32, 39, 115, 148, 209
– Misapprehension 50
– Misunderstand 106, 130, 192
– Model 14, 26, 41, 84, 107, 181–212, 162, 164, 166, 168
– decision making 184, 190–211
– descriptive 182
– hierarchical 41
– mental 182
– motivational 211
– role 121–122, 124
– symbiotic spirals 26
– Money 18, 77–78, 85, 86, 116
– Monotony 86
– Mood 40, 148, 153, 172
– Morality/morale 28, 38, 93, 199, 206
– Mosaic 37, 151, 194
– bench 14, 61
– object of 58, 204, 207
– oneself 56, 83
– other/s 14, 59–61, 63, 83
– subject of 150
– Motivation
– addressed 55, 80, 138
– a-motivation 32
– as problem 38
Motivation: Motivational spirals and decision making

- autonomous 31, 56, 111
- called up 50, 52
- change of 66
- cognitive 201, 205
- controlled 31, 59, 111
- creative 198, 199, 201, 204
- current 189–190, 202, 203
- decision–making 199, 200, 201, 205, 210
- demotivation 49–52, 44, 66, 73, 77, 82, 105, 139, 189, 192, 214
- destroyed 176
- destructed 32
- disturbed 50
- fellowship 201, 206
- former 185, 190
- harmonization 170, 201
- identified 31
- improved 63, 92, 159, 167
- influenced 191
- introjected 31
- level of 24, 41–47, 59, 79, 85, 93, 161, 165, 185–189, 198
- long-term 146
- multi-content phenomenon 37
- multilevel perspective 39, 41
- multiplication nature of 198
- of oneself 52
- of other 54
- oriented 75
- original 162, 164, 166, 168, 191
- over–motivation 32, 64, 162
- participative 199, 201, 205
- perceived 26, 44, 158, 160
- redefined 54
- reevaluated 64
- relationship 146, 199, 201, 205, 206
- renewed 54
- re-orientate 182
- resultative 162, 164, 166, 192
- satisfaction 198, 199, 201, 205, 206
- slackened 125
- strengthened 39, 54, 80, 125, 143, 161, 191, 192, 206
- structure of work motivation 36–37
- targeted 39
- transcendent 14, 29–30, 124
- understood 139
- work 36–37

Motivation to 70, 136, 142, 151, 163, 165, 177, 185, 196, 198
- continuous improvement 46
- increase of effectiveness 42, 44–47
- quality work 42–45
- submit new ideas 44–47, 159

Motivational
- accent 42, 87, 97, 120, 125, 138, 141, 167, 168, 171
- ambushes 77
- approach 55, 70, 139, 150, 159, 180, 192, 196, 215
- authentic 121, 164
- basis 35
- environment 13, 79
- events 50–52, 55, 56, 66, 76, 79–80, 83, 87, 146, 181, 210
- factors 47, 71, 185
- flexibility 14, 64–65, 67
- intent 131
- measurements 81
- motive 59
- orientations 41, 67, 126, 177
- preferences 38, 70, 75, 88, 177, 179, 203, 205
- procedures 30, 61, 167, 181, 203, 205
- program 42, 65, 70–72, 119, 127, 145, 150, 178, 179, 199, 201–204, 215
- punishment 59
- reciprocity 125, 150
- scheme 64, 72
- strategy 61, 125, 175, 178, 180
- symbiotic spirals 118, 146, 153, 160–168
- system 35, 61, 67, 84, 86, 154

Motivators 56, 80, 180, 191, 201, 215
- cognitive 87
- communication 87, 142
- efficiency of 56, 80, 83, 85–87
- extrinsic 29
- financial 80, 85
- intellect 87
- intrinsic 80
- most efficient 80
- personality 87
- positive 124
- process 87
- reservoir of 201, 203
- self 57
- social 87
- symbol 87
- transcendent 87, 88
- universal 87

Motive 11, 28, 30, 35, 85, 146, 172, 191, 192, 200–202, 210
- accelerative 146
Index

- anti-motive 50–52
- altruistic 146
- basic 38
- consequent 30
- de-motive 51, 52
- different 11, 30, 65, 86, 189
- dynamic 31
- harmonized 146
- heterogeneous 30
- logistic 146
- primary 30
- secondary 30
- variousness 40
Multi-content sequence 206
Multi-criteria 172, 196, 198, 200, 206, 207, 209
Multidimensional 26, 38–39
- motivation 38, 39
- sample in survey 26
Multi-disciplinary 179
Multifaceted interventions 190
Multilevel perspective 39, 41, 142
Multi-objectives 131, 136, 172
Multi-participant 179
Multiple
- criteria 173, 208
- decision taking 181
- needs 40
- objectives 173
- satisfaction 40
Multiplication 194, 196–201, 204–206, 208, 210
Multiplication effect 206, 207
Multiplicative effect 194
Multiplicativeness 208
Multiply 173
Multi-variability 172
Multivariate solutions 174
Mutuality 81
Myth 91, 107

Nature 41, 42, 57, 66, 74, 80, 91, 161, 164, 184, 195, 198, 207
Needs 38–41, 66, 75–77, 84, 172, 177, 189, 192, 210, 214
- achievement 40
- affiliation 40
- autonomy 40
- competence 31, 40, 57
- cultural 39
- deficiency 33
- esteem 40
- existence 40
- growth 40
- love 40
- material 40
- meta 14, 39, 205
- multiple contentual 40
- novelty 40
- physiological 39
- power 40
- prioritization of 40
- profession 40
- psychological 31, 40, 57
- recognition 39
- relation 40
- safety 39, 40
- self-actualization 39, 40
- self-transcendent 39
- social 62, 124, 149, 206
Negation 50
Neural 33–34, 179
Neurolinguistics 38, 179
Neurons 28
Non-compliance 94, 107

Obligingness 211, 213
Observation 30, 75, 96, 100, 180, 201
Obstacle 81, 174
Opportunity 31, 60, 63, 79, 84, 115, 126, 133, 214
Organism 28, 31, 40
Organization behavior 28, 37, 38, 179
Organized 38–39, 115
Orientation 35, 36, 41, 42, 44, 45, 72, 87, 104–108
Our-ness 152
Over-motivation 32, 64, 162

Paradox 152
Parallel 125, 170
Parameter 13, 36, 37, 55, 136, 139, 159, 170, 174, 177, 185, 192, 202
Participation 52, 60, 78, 79, 86, 87, 114, 120, 141, 147, 161, 179, 205, 214
Partnership 122, 125, 148, 149, 150, 205
Passion 37
Pattern 63, 81, 103, 108, 209
Pearson test 43, 44, 46, 66, 67, 120, 127, 141, 144, 147
Perception 11, 37, 42, 92, 134, 139
Motivation: Motivational spirals and decision making

Performance 126–139, 36–37, 52, 59, 73, 215
Performance gains 197
Permanency 118
Persistence 31, 36, 79, 121
Personality 13, 32, 38, 79, 87, 88, 118, 122, 133, 150, 177, 189, 192, 201, 207
Persuasion 121, 171
Pessimism 189, 192
Philosophy 38, 63, 70, 74, 123, 179, 192
Pillar 96, 147
Player 84
Polemic 40
Popularization 94
Populistic 11
Potency 37, 136, 142
Potential
– holistic 126
– unrealized 126
Power 11, 28, 31–32, 37, 64, 80, 84, 85, 118, 143, 145, 168, 178
Praise 82, 83, 87, 140, 144, 197, 199, 215
Precise 11, 61, 111, 136, 182
Precise-making process 137, 208
Preference 30, 38, 70, 72, 75, 88, 139, 177, 179, 195, 202–205
Press 19
Pride 18, 29
Principle 33, 35, 38, 41, 65, 70, 74, 85, 129, 173, 208–209
Priority 30, 33, 38, 65, 172, 187
Procedure 30, 44, 61, 111, 137, 175, 181, 203
Process
– decisional 172, 178, 184, 194, 196
– dynamic 66, 139
– fictively finished 209
– inner 35
– intentional 54, 79
– intra–personal 35
– invisible 35
– mental 35, 174
– multi-criteria 196, 200
– of creating motivation program 72, 79, 119, 120, 127
– of decision making 122, 132, 170–176, 203–204, 206–210
– of motivating 42, 55, 141, 152, 162, 166, 170, 174, 181, 191
– of motivation 35
– of performance appraisal 110
– pattern of 209
– permanent 54, 115
– permanently opened 208
– precise-making 208
– self-cyclic 209
– system 191
– systematic 173, 191
Productivity 74, 121, 195, 206
Professional knowledge 41
Profile 28, 30, 35, 70, 72, 75, 118, 126, 192
Profiling 101, 171
Profit 37, 73, 74, 122, 129, 145, 172, 199, 201, 205, 206
Progress 37, 51, 81, 86, 115, 133, 150, 162, 208
Prospect 126, 145, 215
Psyche 32
Psychology 13, 28, 37, 38, 179
Punish 29, 59, 106, 129
Purposefulness 178, 201, 206, 207
Puzzle 38–39

Questionnaire 14, 22–24, 75, 104, 110, 179, 185, 194, 201, 213

Rationality 80, 174–176
– bounded (limited) 175–176
– pure 175
Reaction 38, 33, 64, 88, 132, 201
– acquired 33
– inborn 33
Readiness 103, 129
Realistic 42, 119, 199
Reason 37, 39, 103, 149, 151, 170, 181, 182
– plethora of 32
Psychological 32
Reciprocity 34, 125, 145, 150
Recognize 66, 143, 214
Recruitment 87, 99–102
Recursion 14, 180, 181, 192
Reflection 37–39, 135, 154, 202
Refusal 50, 174
Regulation 18, 29, 31, 114, 139
Rejection 50, 52, 151
Relation 28, 34, 46, 55, 60, 78–82, 114, 122, 135, 148, 150, 160, 172, 178, 181, 192, 205
Reliability 59, 60, 149, 150, 209, 214
Reluctance 50, 172
Re-motivation 162
Selflessness 38
Self-preservation 38
Self-rewarding 56
Self-satisfaction 57, 58, 78, 214
Self-transcendent needs 87, 123
Self-understanding 177
Self-updating 39
Sensitive 13, 26, 41, 73, 125, 150, 192
Sequence 30, 41, 77, 171, 176, 181, 200–203
Significance 66, 107, 173, 206, 207
Significance level 42, 44, 46, 120, 144
Simulate 84–85
Slogan 91, 98, 119
Social media 84
Social psychology 28, 37–38, 179
Socialization 91
Society 14, 18–19, 28, 55, 81–82
Sociology 28, 37, 179
Software 24, 84
Sophisticate 38, 61, 85, 122, 126, 131, 135, 178, 180
Spirals 117–168
Spirit 38, 74, 124, 150
Spiritual 28–30, 122–124
– leader 123–124
– leadership 123
Standards 19, 64, 90, 101, 105–106, 143
Starting points 38, 152, 178
Statistic classification 22
Status 18, 87, 91, 97–98, 106, 143, 178, 202, 208
Stimuli 19, 35, 38, 55, 92, 185, 191
Story 107, 181
Strength 28, 31, 35, 61, 188, 190, 196, 205–206
Stress 50, 66, 108, 129, 189, 192, 214
Structure 55, 79, 96, 106, 118, 136, 142, 151–152, 177, 180, 182, 192, 201
Subconscious 37, 90, 174, 175
Subject 14, 19, 28, 58–59, 79, 88, 132, 137, 170, 175, 178, 181–182, 192, 201–204, 207–208
Success at work 201, 207
Suggestions 78, 82, 83, 140, 145, 158–208, 215
Survey 22–26, 37, 41, 57, 75, 82, 119, 144–145, 153, 184–190, 194, 202
Sustain 31, 150
Sustainability 28, 48, 54, 94, 122
Symbiosis myriad of 162
Symbiotic motivational spirals 117–168
Symbiotic motivation–process spirals 161–163
Symbiotic procedural spirals 163–165
Symbiotic spirals 161–168
Symbol 87, 90, 91, 97–98, 103–106, 143, 159
Syndrome 125
Synergy, synergies 125, 164, 171, 179, 194, 200
System
  – appraisal 128–134, 138, 139, 140, 163
  – communication 140
  – decision 182, 185, 192
  – imaginary 181
  – motivational 35, 61, 67, 138, 152
  – social 18, 62

Table value 42, 44, 46, 66, 120, 127, 141, 144, 147
Tact 104
Tactic 71, 102, 192
Talent 67, 72, 99, 109, 115, 128, 163
Target 39, 115, 136, 153, 158–158, 210
Tendency 35, 36, 62, 91, 148
Tension 34, 35, 50, 113, 129, 161, 208
Test
  – fit goodness 180
  – t-test 180
Theory
  – affiliation 62
  – exchange 34, 85
  – learning 18
  – motivating language 142
  – self-determination 29, 31, 36, 40, 51
Thinking
  – conscious 37
  – subconscious 37
  – unconscious 37
Threats 33, 82, 83, 142, 215
Time currency 206
Tiredness 50
Tradition 70, 73, 101
Training 44, 78, 82–84, 115–116, 215
Trajectory 38–39
Transcendent
  – leader 123–124
  – leadership 122–125
  – motivation 124
Transformational
  – leader 121, 123
  – leadership 119, 121, 122, 124, 125, 161
Trouble 110, 129, 204
True 11, 39, 77, 104, 121, 125
Trust 54, 64, 98, 101, 118–124, 129, 146–166
Trust base 150, 151
  – causal 150, 151
  – consequential 151
  – emotional 150
  – reciprocal 150
Truthful 131, 137, 142, 202
Truth-telling 163

Unit 18, 54, 76, 124, 210
Universal motivators 87
Uncertainty 92, 129, 138, 174, 186
Unwillingness 136, 137, 165, 195
Usefulness 37, 57–58, 205, 214

Validity 76, 86, 128, 196
Value 11, 18–19, 30, 38, 55, 74, 87, 93–94, 107, 122, 143, 167, 186, 206
Variability 63, 172, 173
Variant, variance 31, 38–39, 75, 171–175, 178, 191, 192, 208–209
Verification 147, 153, 184–185, 195–196, 201–204
Victim 34
Vision 44, 54, 70, 119, 124, 143, 170, 192
Visualize, visualization 34, 76
Vitality 129
Volition 37, 40
Weakness 85, 128, 205
Well-being 57, 67, 162
Willingness 23, 34, 36–37, 46, 50, 61, 78, 84, 126, 136, 145–146, 157–159, 197
Winner 104
Wisdom 61, 80, 123
Work meeting 87, 150, 180, 202
Work motivation 14, 136, 142, 151, 165, 178, 185–186
  – structure 36–37
Workshop 180
World 18, 61, 62, 148
  – inner 39
Zeal 118, 149
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