The Role of Motivation in an Efficacious Team Building of Organization

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Abstract
the article expounds the relationship of two factors; Motivation (independent variable) and Team building (dependent variable) and there role for each other. It will prominence the call for having motivation components in building effectual team of organization. Motivation techniques (appraisal, praise, status, competition, delegation of authority, participation, job security and job enrichment, job relation, financial motivation, the role of leader motivation) along with components (biological, learned, cognitive) lead to the organization commitments (tension at work, variety of tasks, scope (domain) of work, previous realistic expectation, creativity in job context) which generate constituent (productivity, common goal, self-learning, cooperation, communication, enjoyable workplace, motivation, identify strength) for effective team building. The detection of the conceptual study will play a vital role in emphasizing on the two factors correlation and there colossal part in maintaining the impulsive working environment of organization.

Keywords; Motivation techniques, motivation components, Organization commitment elements, Team building components.

Introduction

The organization, notwithstanding of business and size work for having a strong bond with its employees to get maximum output. An employee’s input is quintessentially influenced by motivation, potential and work environment. However, employees have various needs that are driven by different motivators. For example some employees get motivation through tangible incentives, other may not be. Here, the most challenging task is to build a team to which employees are motivated and convinced with the approach towards the direction of the organization objective.

Traditional motivation theories focus on specific elements that motivate employees in pursuit of organizational performance. For example, motives and needs theory (Maslow, 1943) states that employees have five level of needs (Physiological, safety, social, ego, and self-actualizing), while equity and justice theory states that employees strive for equity between themselves and other employees (Adams, 1963, 1965). Current motivation theory development is based on the template of conventional quantitative analysis (e.g., multiple regression analysis, structural equation modeling), which is clearly the dominant way of conducting social research today (Fiss, 2011; Ragin, 2008; Woodside, 2013).

In the modern world, a technically skilled workforce is critical—not only to compete and survive in the information–based global economy, but also to underpin team building and organizational positioning in the international market. There is a growing body of research to support the hypothesis that team-based games can address many of the challenges in current math education system (Eck, 2006; Prensky, 2001; Randel, 1992; Shaffer, 2005; Shute, 2011, Blankson, A.N., & C. Blair, C. 2016). This empirical research includes meta-analysis of the instructional effectiveness of team-based games compared to conventional classroom instruction. This research has consistently found that team-based games promote learning across multiple disciplines and ages (Dr. Gary Bitter, Dr. John Puglisi, Annie Gorges, PhD, Harpreet Kaur Uppal PhD, 2016).

In order to improve the effectiveness of teams, there are several studies that have studies team training and its effects on team building. These studies (Buljac-samardzic, et al, 2010; Salas, et al, 2008; Salazar, et al, 2012; Armstrong & Jackson smith, 2013) have used a variety of team-building activities and grant-writing activities to improve the team processes.
A comprehensive review of best practice for design and use of questionnaires by health service staff and patients was conducted by McColl et al (2001). In this review, the questionnaire appearance was analyzed, and recommended further studies to determine the relative placement of headings, response category descriptors and codes. The studies also advocated graphical methods (color contrasts and different typefaces) to aid in navigating the questionnaire. Braun and Clarke (2006) conducted and analyzed interviews. In resultant self-scoring system improved the interpretation of level of readiness to collaborate. The participants noted problems but also reported seeing the value in a research study but as something to be used for their own needs (John Liu Jr.2016).

Proposition about the direct effects of extrinsic motivation on creativity are more complicated. Performance-contingent rewards create extrinsic motivation, but there is not a consensus about how extrinsic motivation affects creativity (Shalley, Zhou, & Oldham, 2004). According to SDT (Self-determination theory), when external rewards are obtained only through successful performance of a specified behavior, extrinsic motivation increases and intrinsic motivation decreases (Gagne & Deci, 2005). This enhances performance levels on simple tasks and decreases performance levels on complex tasks, like creative ones, that are otherwise intrinsically motivated (Gane & Deci, 2005).

A collaborative team climate does not explicitly, by itself, include extrinsic rewards for collaborating. These collaborative structural preconditions suggest that creativity is not only the work of individuals but also the consequences of a social system of actors that amplify one another’s creativity (George, 2007; Gilson & Shalley, 2004). For example, Carmeli et al. (2015) found that relational information processing, an active level of interpersonal behavior that seeks colleagues’ input and reaction to employees’ work, which is conceptually related to collaboration, had a significant relationship with the employee creative behavior (Donald G. Gardner, 2016).

Motivation Techniques

Appraisal, Praise and status

Firms spend billions annually in employee’s rewards and recognition (Bersin, 2012). Maintaining a reward system is costly with an average budget equating to 2% of a firm’s payroll, according to a trade group survey of more than 650 HR professionals (World to work, 2011). Indeed, in light of cost concerns and the competition for talent firms today are increasingly looking creative ways to incentivize and reward...

Recent studies have linked non-monetary incentives and rewards to a host of outcomes, including performance (Bareket-Bojmel, Hochman & Ariely, 2014), job satisfaction (Dave et al., 2011), employee turnover intention (Pare & Tremblay, 2007), social responsibility (Tymon, Stumpf, & Smith, 2010), and career success (Tymon, Stumpf, & Smith, 2011).

Intrinsic rewards have been identified as a type of intangible non-monetary reward and incentive and definitions of intrinsic rewards have been used in studies concerned with non-monetary rewards. For example, intrinsic rewards exist in the job itself (Herzberg, 1987) and can include achievement, challenge, autonomy, responsibility, and personal growth (O’Driscoll & Randall, 1999; Raghy,Sen,&Rao, 2003). Additionally, intrinsic rewards are inherent in the job and can include job characteristics identified by Hackman and Oldham (1987): skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback. Intrinsic rewards include: recognition, praise form supervisors and /or peers, and status (Baker, Jensen, & Murphy, 1998). When employees have these types of intrinsic rewards they are thought to have greater job satisfaction, work motivation, and, job performance (Hwang, 2005).
The second category of non-monetary rewards and incentives are those that are tangible. These can include a variety of items that have a cash value (Jeffery & Adomdza, 2011). Tangible non-monetary rewards can include: gift cards, travel, meals, merchandise, and other small gifts (Dzuranin & Stewart, 2012; Presslee, Vance, & Webb, 2013). It is has been argued by Jeffery and Shauffer (2007) that tangible, non-monetary rewards are better motivators of employees than cash rewards.

**Competition**

Encounter competition occurs rarely and unpredictably, and is thus difficult to observe in natural environments; this is especially true for cryptic species likewise human species. Previous research on the subject has relied upon laboratory experiments and easily observed species inhabiting open habitats to develop theory (Schoener 1983, Johnson et al. 1985, Cooper 1991, Dickman 1991). This bias may have influenced the current perceptions on encounter competition, which emphasizes “bigger is better” even in complex organisms with diverse adaptations (Martin and Ghalambor 2014). For example, the chemical weapons of skunks, which are traditionally associated with defense (Hunter, 2009), could also prove advantageous during encounter competition (e.g., Martin and Ghalambor 2014).

The 2016 ASC student competition was held at Nugget casino Report in Sparks, Nevada. The day began with each commercial team meeting in a room to receive the problem statement from Mortenson construction. They provided a presentation to group explaining what the project was those teams were to compete and all of the material that have to turn in. After this presentation, the teams were released back to their rooms to begin working on the project. They uploaded necessary documents such as project plans, sub-contractors, and other project-related material that were able to use throughout the day to help the team with the project. There were three total curveballs during the competition. The first one was specific tasks, second one was time management and third one was “part-platform” (quantity estimation and price). In resultant, the work was split into individual workplaces, every person was on right place, there were clear differentiation and deadlines were given. Throughout the competition team learnt a great deal about hard work and working as a team. Each person learns how to step out from comfort zone to learn what the team needed to learn and help others to complete necessary tasks. In the end, it wasn’t about each person’s individual tasks, but the group’s mission as a whole (Jacob Erpenbach, Colby Sims, Spencer VanWichen, Sarah Qunell, Braedy German, 2016).

**Delegation of authority**

Durbin (2016) defines empowerment as the passing of decision-making authority and responsibility from the manager to group members. Furthermore, empowerment is a philosophy that enriches people’s job and gives them the power to exercise control over and responsibility for outcomes of efforts. According to Singh (2004), an empowering organization emphasizes on autonomy, proper information and individual participation for organization excellence. Gomez Mejia et al (2004) states that the newer empowerments approach are requiring managers to commit to coaching their team members to understand their roles and being able to execute them effectively. This often increases employee’s trust; commitment and also productivity. Ripley and Ripley (1992) stated that empowerment can enhance the responsibilities as well as the motivation of employees in their routine work, improve satisfaction level, quality of service, employee’s trust, productivity, organizational commitment and effectiveness.

Organizations rightly spotted that through delegation of authority to executives will mature the hidden talents and competencies towards the business requirements in the areas like the construction of new projects, operational methods, and effective employee engagement e.t.c (Chijioke Nwachukwu, 2016).

**Participation**
Assuming intrinsic motivation and self-determined extrinsic motivation promote exercise participation, understanding the conditions that influence these motivations may prove beneficial in fostering them. Towards end, the cognitive evaluation theory (CET), a subtheory of SDT (self-determination theory), proposes that both intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 1985) and self-determined extrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000) are enhanced by the satisfaction or three basic psychological needs: autonomy (the quality or state of being self-governed), competence (the capacity to function or develop in a particular way), and relatedness (a feeling of meaningful connection to others in one’s social environment). However, research has yet to fully validate these theoretical relationships. For example, while studies have shown that intrinsic motivation is clearly and consistently related to competence (Deci & Olson, 1989; Goudas, Biddle, Fox & Underwood, 1995; Matosic, Cox, & Amorose, 2013; Phillips & Lord, 1980), results are inconsistent with regard to the relationships between intrinsic motivation and either autonomy or relatedness (Goudas et al., 1995; Matosic et al., 2013).

The investigation occurred within voluntary, employee worksite wellness program available to all faculty and staff at a public school district (K-12) in central Texas. At the same time of the study, the wellness program was offered at nine of the ten school campuses, as well as district office and the transportation services facility, and consisted of periodic fitness assessments, monthly educated classes, and weekly group exercise classes (e.g., Circuit-training, dance-fitting classes, high- and low –impact aerobics kickboxing, walking, and yoga). The 45 – minute exercise classes, led by certified group exercise instructors, were offered at the end of the workday two times per week transportation services facility after the completion of bus routes in school gymnasiums, cafeterias, weight rooms, auditoriums, classrooms, and conference rooms. Participants were encouraged and allowed to partake in any worksite wellness offering at any of the 11 locations. The result showed that the participants were strongly competent, motivated and related to the program (Kyle T. Patek, Lisa K. Lloyd, Eric A. Schmidt, Karen Meaney, Phillip w. Vaughan, 2016).

**Job security and Job enrichment**

Herzberg concluded that true employee satisfaction rests in a fulfilling job experience more commonly known as job enrichment or vertical job loading. Employers who deepened their staff’s knowledge through programs or benefits promoting achievement had the happiest, more productive workforces. They also had more cohesive work cultures, increased company loyalty and more motivated teams. To enrich the work experience and instill motivation in employees, following practices can be implemented in organization.

Job enrichment is the process of offering added value to employees through a variety of programs. Enrichment helps to relieve the feeling that a job is repetitive or offer no career path. Using enrichment programs helps to increase employee productivity and lower costly turnover (Dr. Supriya Choudhary, 2016)

A non-experimental descriptive survey design was used for the study of use job enrichment strategy by nurse managers at ESUTH Enugu as perceived by nurses under them.235 nurses, out of 253 nurses on duty at the time of study and who were willing to participate were used in the study. The results showed that female nurses were highly motivated and ready to cope up with the challenges. Another finding of the study is that, subordinates are not given the freedom, independence to decide on how best to implement an assignment entrusted in them, nurses are not allowed to update their knowledge in job performance; subordinates are not engaged in a variety of different activities that involve use of a number of skills. This inconsistent or lack of utilization of job enrichment in an institution may likely affect the services of the nurses employees (subordinates) negatively. Udhi (2007) stated that managers lacked such strategies that enhance job enrichment and the result was unmotivated workers. Hoppen (2009) was of the opinion that when motivation like job enrichment are not used that staff feel insecure and the goals of the organizations are neglected. The reason for not using job enrichment by ward managers may be due to the facts the top management of the hospital do not encourage them to do that (Ezenduka P.N., Nwaneri A. C., Ndie E.C. and Ude C. C, 2016).

**Job relation**
Researchers have advocated for using integrative approaches to the motivation with models composed of several dimensions and/or based on different theoretical approaches (Ford, 1992; Kehr, 2004; Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010; Pintrich, 2003). Such integrative models may be of special relevance in various career transitions, for example, from school to work, because they can provide insight into the structure and the variation in motivation among individuals engaged in career transitions. The multidimensional character of integrative models of motivation makes person-centered statistical approaches particularly pertinent. These approaches allow for the variation between motivational variables to be reflected in specific groups with quantitatively and qualitatively differing motivational profiles (Morin & Marsh, 2015; Wang & Hanges, 2011).

(Van Hooft, Wanberg, & Van Hoye, 2013) that assesses how job seekers set and revise personal goals, develop job search plans, monitor and analyze the job search process, and improve their skills related to finding a job. Despite its theoretical relevance, SDT (self-determination theory) has received very little attention in connection to the job search. As an exception, Vans-teenksite, Lens, De Witte, and Deci (2004a) found that autonomous motivation in general (i.e., at the person-level) was positively related to intensity; controlled motivation in general was unrelated to intensity. Beyond the work, research has focused on the role motivation more broadly plays during the job search. For example, Kanfer et al. (2001) identified two categories of motivation that influence job search behaviors—generalized expectations (i.e., locus of control, optimism) and self-evaluation (i.e., self-esteem, job search self-efficacy)—with prior work finding that higher job search self-efficacy positively relates to job search intensity (Cote, Saks, & Zikic, 2006).

Financial motivation

All over the world, compensation in the form of wages or any other form of incentive influences job performance and has effects on organization’s success (Adeogun, 2008). According to Wayne (1992), compensation includes direct cash payments and indirect payments in the form of employee benefits and incentives to motivate employees to strive for higher levels of productivity is usually single most important employment reward that has a significant effect on individuals attitudes and job performance.

To assess the extent financial motivation plays in influencing the performance of teachers in Ghana. Considerable controversy surrounds the concepts of play as motivators, but studies continue to reveal that incentives pay plans can increase productivity and improve efficiency (Aronso, 1079). In the case of the senior high school teacher, such financial motivations include the basic monthly salaries and some fringe benefits such as car maintenance allowance, house or form master’s allowance, medical care, accommodation allowance, and guidance and counseling allowance (Ghana Education Service, 2000). From the comments of Kokemuller (2013), financial motivation relates to the way in which organizations uses compensation structure to motivate workers to perform well (Gabriel Dwomoh, Kofi Agyenim-Boateng, Musa Ahmed, Williams Kwasi Boaches, 2016).

The role of Leader motivation

The emphasis on dyadic relationships is an important and unique feature of LMX (Leader-Member Exchange) theory. Nevertheless, in supervisor-subordinate relationships, it has proven that supervisors do not behave consistently toward all subordinates [19]. Instead, supervisors engage different quality relationships with their subordinates. In supervisor-subordinate relationships, high quality of LMX dyads exhibits a high level of exchange between the supervisor and the subordinate. This characterizes by mutual liking, trust, respect, and reciprocal influence [17]. As a result, subordinates are often given more information by supervisor and reported better latitude of job. On the other hand, lower quality of LMX relationships known as traditional “supervisor” relationship are based on hierarchical differentiation and exercise more formal rules of employee contract [20].
It is important that supervisors have a positive perception of trust upon their subordinates in order to strengthen the relationship between employees’ motivation and performance [33] (Shreen Noranee, Noormala Amir Ishak, Raja Munirah Raja Mustapha, and Mohammad Shahril Mohamad Besir, 2016).

Motivation components

Biological motivation

Historical and evolutionary approach provides principles of description of self-developing biological system, one of which includes the parameters of the interaction of two opposing tendencies of the system functioning – the conservative tendency, reproduction of system generic experience and the changing tendency as kind of “extended reproduction” providing the appearance of variety of innovations in the system [11].

These principles of the system functioning are subscribed by the system of Lotka, Volterra and Gause’s equations, which is also used in the justification of the law on competitive project properties, where specie acts an enterprise that supplies its product on the market and competes with other companies, as well as the population is the product amount. Thus, the theoretical component of the project management knowledge in the approval of competitive relationship attributed to the rank of law was further developed [12]. Team members who have the conservative ability participate in the operation process, and team members who have the changing ability participate in the development process (O. Sherstyuk, T. Olekh, K. Kolesnikova, 2016).

Learned motivation

The first stage of the trajectory focuses on the individual within the organization, including how values, learning styles, motivation, and decision-making can affect individual success and organization dynamics (McShane & Von Glinow, 2009). These individual theories through the use of self-assessments can gain greater insight about their own characteristics and perspectives. Additionally, they can learn the concepts, utilizing a task performing methods. Then they can share their experiences with each-oher within their team, which creates new reliance and obligation to teammates.

Once the team charter is complete an orientation of Everest V2 simulation is conducted along with assignments of individual roles. These stimulated-established roles include leader, photographer, environmentalist, marathoner, and physician. The underlying design of this stimulation requires each role to work together to achieve team goals. Individually, each role has separate communications from the simulation with conflicting goals (Roberto & Edmondson, 2011).

Cognitive motivation

According to neurolinguistic theory, people do not choose the words they use accidently; the language of the person uses is an indication of how they are thinking One development is neurolinguistic was the identification of “meta programs” describing how a person thinks, gets motivated and makes decisions. Thus the program is an example of what is referred to herein as “cognitive motivation orientation”, which refers factors, patterns and/or elements that describe how a person thinks, becomes motivated, and makes decisions in a given context. One or more cognitive motivation orientation may be expressed within a given communication, and these reflect how the author thinks and gets motivated… (Shelle Rose Charvest, Michael Horst Tschichholz, Stephan Busemann, jorg Steffen, Jonathan Scott Ross, 2016).

Absorptive capacity at individual level refers to the learning behavior of individuals directed at the identification, assimilation, dissemination, and application of knowledge (Pedrosa & Jasmand, 2011). Empirical works have also validated conceptual differences between servant leadership and LMX and transformational leadership. Various individual, group, organizational, and cross-level studies have found servant leadership influencing OCB, work engagement, Organizational commitment, in-role work behavior, community

Organization commitment elements

Tension at work

Since the 1960s, commitment has become a popular, if not a stable variable for Organizational behavior (OB) scholars. Originating in the United States (US; Becker, 1960; Mowday, Strees, & Porter, 1979) and further developed by Canadian as well as American scholars (e.g., Becker, 1992; Kelin, Molloy, & Brinsfield, 2012; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001), model of workplace commitment have been widely adopted elsewhere (Fischer & Mansell, 2009; Meyer, Stanley, Jackson, McInnis, Matin, & Sheppard, 2012).

The accounts by Breitsholt and Jorgensen question the generalizability of commitment antecedents and consequences observed in a liberal market economy to a coordinated market economy or welfare regime (Soskice, 1999). In welfare states like Germany and Denmark, antecedents that lead to POS such as job security, training, and procedural justice (e.g., Voice; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) are likely to have little variance among organizations because they are regulated by the law or labor arrangements. Jorgensen notes that many organizational practices like involvement in decision making, training, and development are legally required by firms and that Danish employees consider themselves entitled to organizational and institutional support given their high taxes and their decision to work despite being able to afford not to do so. As Danish employees do not see why they should feel effectively committed to a particular organization. Indeed, Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli and Lynch (1997) reason that favorable organizational experiences contribute more to POS if employees believe them to be at the discretion of the organization (SA Wasti, MF Peterson, H Breitsohl, 2016).

Variety of tasks

When employees recognize that top management is promoting means for employees to thrive in the context of change, collective sense-making processes tend to be oriented toward embracing change rather than resisting it (DeCelles, Tesluk, & Tacman, 2013). They are likely to frame the frequent changes that are associated with a dynamic environment as opportunities for them to grow and contribute greater value to the organization’s success. Through intense collective sense-making, individual employees thus are able to interpret how changes relate to their own work and to identify means of framing their work that are meaningful for themselves (Ann Chunyan Peng, Hsing-Er Lin, John Schaubroeck, Edward F. McDonough, Baomin Hu, and Aiguo Zhang, 2016).

For example, in marketing profession, employees are required to listen to unruly customers (e.g, agreeableness), and making sales calls (e.g. extraversion). Hence, it is expected that employees who are able to relate to the tasks positively are more likely to be more comfortable performing the tasks and to remain in their job.

Within the study of organizational commitment and intention to stay, ample evidences have shown a positive relationship between these two variables where employees who reacted much more positively in their working environment are more likely to remain in the organization (Reed, Kratchman, & Strawser, 1994).

Scope (domain) of the work
The desire of the employees to be involved in absenteeism or to leave their jobs would affect individuals’ satisfaction of work, success, organizational commitment and work of life quality (Applebaum et al., 2010). Each of these results is an undesired consequence outcome (Durukan, Ayurek & Coskun, 2010; Sencan, Yegenoglu & Aydintam, 2013). Due to this reason, there is linear relation between life quality and organizational commitment. A person whose work life quality decreases would also have less organizational commitment. Zhao et al. (2013) supports this conclusion. The effect of quality of work life is positive on job embeddedness and affection commitment and negative on turnover intention. Turnover intention is an important, practical antecedent of turnover that appears to have negative effects on organizational effectiveness (Battistelli, Portoghese, Galletta & Pohl, 2013).

Quality of work life examines the relation between the employee and its working environment (Gaurav, 2012:2). Administrative processes such as wage and reward system, the safety and health environment at work, the capacity of the personnel to improve and develop itself and healthy, safe growth of the organization are included in this concept (Cao, Duan, Fan, Li, Liu, Sun & Zhao, 2013:781: Walton, 1975:93). Work life quality covers the evaluation of work conditions, the employee’s satisfaction from his or her work, management style and the relation between the work life and the social life out of work, or in short the strengths and weakness of the work environment (Martel & Dupuis, 2006: 333).

Previous realistic expectation

Considering the characteristics of Generation Y related to work and employment (Lyon & Kuron, 2014), there is an obvious question regarding how these characteristics would be reflected in their PCs. Generation Y (also called Millenials, Generation Me, Nexters) is usually defined as demographic cohort following Generation X and refers to those born between 1982 and 2002 (Parry & Urwin, 2011). Both the popular press and academic research explored how this generation differs from previous ones and how this would affect their behavior, attitudes and performance at work. Lyons and Kuron (2014) reviewed research generational differences at work and reported that it seems consistently to show that Generation Y has rather high expectations regarding the returns from work, such as salaries, benefits, promotion, development, work-life balance and interesting work. This review also confirms the claim by Twenge (2010) that work centrality is decreasing for the young generation and loyalty to an employer is not of great importance to them. Generation Y is described as self-centered, high in self-esteem, ambitious and eager to learn, but also suffering increased anxiety and depression (Lyon & Kuron, 2014). On the other hand, current economic and labor market conditions are having a negative effect, especially on the young generation. Relatively high levels of youth unemployment, difficulties in finding a job, temporary work assignments and general uncertainty have lowered their expectation (De Haunw & De Vos, 2010; Smithson & Lewis, 2000). Negative experiences, either while working or just observing events in the surrounding environment, such as lay-offs, reduced salaries and loss of status, can also affect the formation of PCs by reducing expectation and making PCs more transactional (Eilam-Shamir & Yaakobi, 2014).

Creativity in job

In order to better understand the effect of employee-experienced HR (human resource) systems on employee creativity, there is a strong need to study how employee-experienced HR systems may lead to employee creativity (i.e., the mediating mechanism) (Jiang, Takeuchi, & Lepak, 2013). The SHRM literature suggests that performance–oriented HR systems develops employees’ job-relevant knowledge and skills (Wright, Dunford, & Snell, 2001), which are referred to as domain-relevant skills in the creativity literature (Amabile, 1988). The componential theory of creativity has highlighted domain-relevant skills as a core driver of creativity (Amabile, 1998, 1996).

SHRM research has routinely taken a universal approach and focused on the main effect of HR systems, a recent review of the SHRM literature suggests that a fertile area for future research is take a contingency approach to understand when HR systems may function more or less effectively (Jackson et al., 2014).
the recognition that effects of different HR systems may be contingent on each other and the call for examining potential synergy among different HR systems (Jiang et al., 2012), the interplay between different HR systems has curiously received little attention (Dong, Liu, Yaping Gong, Jing Zhou, Jia-Chi Huang, 2016).

Team building components

Productivity

Construction projects involve a complex network of participants and stakeholders, each with specialized expertise and diverse responsibilities. In general, the larger the project the greater the number of diverse skills that are necessary. Despite the fact that rights, duties and obligations are described in the contract documents, formal and informal responsibility can exist, which differ from one project to another, and also at different stages of the same project.

The ongoing efficiency of the industry is certainly not improved by traditional approach of many construction projects, which encourage the disintegration of project teams once the project is completed. Project arrangement and procurement methods, such as Design and Build, Project Management, Build-Own-Operate-Transfer (BOOT) and Construction Management, offer real prospects of improved relationships with fewer problems (Walker and Hampson, 2003). These approaches are more common now in the public and private sectors of the business.

Some commentators (Latham, 1994; Egan, 1998; Gray and Hughes, 2001; Jagar et al., 2002; Walker, 2002) notes that separation of design and construction into two teams, often in conflict and often in conflict and often relegating the requirements of the client to a secondary or even tertiary level of priorities, may be basic defect in the business (Jim Smith, David Jagger and Peter Love, with Oluwole Alfred Olatunji, 2016).

Working structure involves weekly meetings. The meetings include a number of regular agenda items, including: Planning for the organization meetings and involvement, discussion, and revision of the plan of action and next steps; written reflections on the team approach. The partnership has a mutual benefit , by collaboration or building a team, clarity in tasks , mutual problem understanding, consensus, combine thinking, problem solving strategies come, in the end the productivity of the employee enhances as well as the organization gets more close to its objective (Ann B. Brewster, Paul Pisani, Max Ramseyer and Jack Wise, 2016).

Common goal

An intra and inter-professional relationships are built, teams can be formed that have shared purpose to pursue quality improvement. Team creation was identified more than any other single component of CNL (Clinical nurse Leaders) practice during analysis, with more than 101 excerpts linked across all reports. The CNL brings people together with a common goal who nevertheless may have never worked together before because of a lack of inter-professional engagement and a dearth of coordination resources. Team building included representation from information technology, executive leaderships, physicians, nutritional services, respiratory therapy, social work, physical therapy, frontline staff, educators, wound ostomy nurses, clinical nurse specialists and the quality department, to name just a few. Clinical nurse leaders, through their continuous microsystem presence, observe and understand the interdependency of all professions providing care to the patient. By bringing together all professions that affect and are affected by microsystem practices, the CNL emphasises the importance of all professions in care functions. Team building creates interdependency that helps align motivation for solving common care process problems, including many that were described as “entrenched” before CNL implementation (Bender, M, 2016).

Self-learning

http://www.ijmsbr.com
ATTP (art therapy trauma protocol) is an intensive, peer-reviewed curriculum featuring in-depth, multi-day training on best practices in (a) assessment and treatment of PD, and (b) provision of key elements of integrated, team based care. The program targets music (MT), occupational (OT), and Physical therapy (PT), social work (SW), speech-language pathology (SLP), and (as of 2007) physician (MD), nurse/nurse practitioner (RN/NP), and physician assistant (PA) discipline. An expert inter-professional faculty, including a movement disorders MD, PD, OT, PT, MT, SW, SLP and team specialist, collaboratively developed and taught ATTP and has largely remained stable during the 2003-2013 study period.

Trainees rated self-perceived knowledge on curriculum learning objectives, using a 7-point scale from 1 (no knowledge) to 7 (complete Knowledge). ATTP averaged 40 curriculum modules, each with two six learning objectives, training. Conceptually learning objectives were grouped into scaling, one of the scale outcome shown; attitudes toward healthcare teams scale shown statistically significantly improvement for trainees vs. Controls in the overall ATCHTS. Trainees completed the follow-up survey reported substantive practice changes, with no such changes reported by controls (Elaine V. Cohen, Ruth Hagestuen, Gladys Gonzalez-Ramos, Hillel W. Cohen, Celia Bassich, Elaine Book, Kathy P. Bradley, Julie H. Carter, Mariann Di Minno, Joan Gardner, Monique Giroux, Manny J. Gonzalez, Sandra Hoten, Ricky Joseph, Denise D. Kornegay, Patricia A. Simpson, Concetta M. Tomiano, Richard P. Vandendolder, Maria Walde-Douglas, Rosemary Wichmann, John C. Morgan, 2016).

Cooperation

All team members play active role. They exchange information and work with innovation and organization and focus on the position of the organization. During the planning phase, the work methods are not planned in detail, but the team makes a flowchart for the organization process that is always scheduled. Employees work a little with practical planning at the end of the plan period. The method of cooperation on organization tasks is not established at this stage: “First, one has to have an experience in this”.

In summary, team members becomes familiar with each other, discusses and come to solutions for collaboration to create equality among team members with various occupations, and developed a common thinking of the team’s functioning and organization mission.

It is advantageous that everyone in the team would independently perform all practical tasks. Some team members work more than others with mapping, especially those with the knowledge and experience with such tasks from previous professional practice. The opportunity is to provide an experience of working purposefully in an interdisciplinary way, and they become well known to each other during practical work (Aud Moe, Hildfrid V Bratass, 2016).

Communication

Some author (Kumaraswamy et al., 2005; Rehman and Kumaraswamy 2008) indicated that cooperative team-working is improved by moving from classical to rational contracting; the main barrier to collaborative team-work is mainly the lack of trust. According to these authors there are four factors that encourage cooperative team-working: owner’s competencies, prior interactions, compatible organizational culture, and better selection of project partners.

In Spanish construction industry, the most popular delivery method among public agencies is the traditional design-bid-build (de la Cruz et al. 2006; SEOPAN 2014). Design-bid-build is also the most common delivery method used by private developers (Pellicer et al. 2014). There are five primary procurements methods that can effect integration: low bid, one stage best-value, two-stage best value, prequalified negotiation, sole source negotiation.
After collecting the data, the research team aimed to compare highly integrated projects with less integrated ones. However, the variables included in the questionnaire were not mutually exclusive, which made it difficult to cluster projects based on their level of integration. For example “timeless of communication” and “team chemistry” can be correlated, which makes difficult to give equal weight to all questions. Therefore, the research team needed to transform variables in such a way as to remove multicollinearity among variables.

Examples of these decisions variables include the owner`s type of relationship with the project team, team`s prior experience as a unit, project team chemistry, timeliness of owner decisions, owner`s ability to make decision, involvement of end users, colocation, formal vs. informal communication, compromise on project issues, timeless of communication, contingency approach, and commitment to the project goal. The results showed that highly integration lead to high performance (Eugenio Pellicer, M.Amalia Sanz, Behzad Esmaeli, and Keith R. Molenaar, 2016).

Enjoyable workplace

Each project team member might pursue different or even contradictory objectives in a project. For example, a contractor may consider construction speed and profitability as the most important measures of success, which an owner may emphasize on-budget completion or quality of construction. These conflicting views of success can result in poor overall project performance if expectations are not communicated. In response to these divergent priorities, most of the previous literature identified CSFs (Critical success factors) for shared objectives among different team members; these factors included cost, time and quality, found that the following factors improve the likelihood of achieving outstanding project performance: reducing team turnover, providing a constructability program for contractor organization, and increasing number of construction control meetings for the contractor organization.

Black et al. (2000) analyzed several companies with and without partnering experience to investigate the importance of CSFs toward partnering success. He obtained the opinion of clients, consultants, and contractors in the UK regarding the success factors and benefits of partnering. He found that the following requirement should be met to implement partnering successfully: trust, communication, and commitment, a clear understanding of roles, and consistency and flexible attitude. The result also indicated that clients and contractors are more supportive towards the partnering process than consultant. Cheng and Li (2002) explained CSFs in a different way: formation, application, and reactivation. The results indicated that CSFs influence the whole partner process, while there are some CSFs for individual process stages. The common CSFs for whole partnering process are top management support, open communication, effective coordination, and mutual trust; CSFs at the stage of partnering formation are team building, facilitator, and partnering agreement; CSFs of partnering application are joint problem solving, adequate resources, and partnering goals` achievement. Finally, partnering experience, continuous improvement, learning climate, and long-term commitment are important in partnering reactivation phase.

One of the issues that can affect the partnering process is culture differences (Cheng & Li, 2002). Therefore, as adopting partnering becomes a common practice across the world, researchers attempt to identify partnering CSFs based upon local characteristics for specific country. The results showed the following requirements are necessary for successful partner: the establishment and communication of a conflict resolution strategy, a willingness to share resources among project participants, a clear definition of responsibilities, a commitment to a win-win attitude, and regular monitoring of partnering process (Esmaeili, Behzad; Pellicer, Eugenio; Molenaar, Keith R, 2016).

Motivation

Social identity theory (Beal, Cohen, Burke and McLendon, 2003; Tahfel and Turner, 1986), for instance, suggests that team cohesion leads in-group cooperation and helping, and relates to higher levels of participation.
in demanding group activities (Wong, 2004). Heightened mutual attraction within cohesive team fosters
communication and facilities the coexistence of conflicting demands that ambidexterity entails (Beal et al.,
2003; Ensely, Pearson, and Amason, 2002). Likewise, team efficiency echoes motivation-need fulfillment that
inspires greater confidence and resilience in members’ efforts to engage in complex activities (Gibson and
Early, 2007; Gong, Huang and Farh, 2009).

All superiors who have power, responsibilities and competences should be able to motivate their team and
subordinates also at the time when the first impact of the recession occurs in the enterprise [21]. When the first
impact of the economic crisis occurs in the enterprise, most of traditional methods of motivation applied by the
management before this time cannot be carried out. Various incentives, extra holidays, corporate entertaining,
and rewards which are the most commonly used tools of motivation; seem to be less important in the
atmosphere of insecurity. Motivational programme can be considered a strategic corporate document dealing
with; measuring motivation level in order to identify areas necessary to improve the motivation, creating
environment where employees feel respected and rewarded by the enterprise, designing responsible and
engaged employee behaviour in the enterprise, creating an empowering motivational climate in the enterprise,
improving skills in the area of human resource management, designing operational tasks and new workplaces,
managing employees’ performance, managing employees’ performance, managing the performance-based

Identify strength

In 2011, the Fresno American Indian Health project (FAIHP) was awarded a 3-year planning grant from the
substance Abuse and Mental Health Service Administration (SAMHSA), entitled Circles of Care, to support the
Fresno Native community in developing a comprehensive plan of implementing a system of care that would
meet the needs of local Native youth and families in Fresno, California. To support these efforts, FAIHP used
a community-based participatory research (CBPR) model. CBPR is a model for research and evaluation that
engages community as an active and equal partner, builds upon local strength and resources, integrates
community knowledge and wisdom, values the voice of consumer experts, and returns date to the community
where the results can have harvest the greatest effects for improving the health and well-being of local families
(LaVeaux & Christopher, 2009; Minkler & Wallerstein, 2008).

In this respect, GONA is a strength –based prevention program. It is implemented through a 4-day event that
teaches youth ages 12-18 years four basic themes of living that have a strong basis in Indigenous worldview:
Belonging, Mastery, Interdependence, and Generosity. GONA works to reduce risks, such as substance abuse
and suicide, and increase protective factors by building assets based on these four themes. At the event, youth
learn about how they belong within their history and cultures (Belonging); the gifts they have been given upon
birth to learn to use of community service, and the importance of healing from historical and intergenerational
trauma to effectively master those gifts (Mastery); the role all community members have to support and
contribute to one another (Interdependence); and the importance of giving back by sharing individual gifts and
talents within the community to help maintain positive health and well-being (Generosity) (Spero M. Manager,
Natasha Floersch, 2016).

Conceptual Framework Model

Figure 1 exhibits the relevance of motivation and team building. It further gives detail of how to receive
motivation through various sources, what will be the influence of the sources and how it will help in
constructing an effectual team. There are many studies which indicated that without motivation, organization
cannot get employees/workers along with its menial objectives.

Organizations develop strategies to compete in highly competitive markets and to increase performance.
Nevertheless, just a few organizations consider the human capital as being their main asset, capable of leading
them to success or if not managed properly, to decline. If employees are not satisfied with their jobs and not motivated to fulfill their tasks and their goals, the organization cannot attain success.

Motivation (independent) get people shape in a form of productive team (dependent), as it improve communication, ability to work together, drive innovation, cooperation, provide opportunity to get along with each-other, empower to enhance the skills and self-esteem, in result, organizations’ efficiency and productivity enhances. Generally speaking, employees’ performance depends on a large numbers of factors such as motivation, appraisals, praise, status, competition, and delegation of authority, participation, job satisfaction / security, training and development, job relation, financial motivation, leader motivation and so on. As Kalimullah (2010) suggested, a motivated employee has his/her goals aligned with those of organization and directs his/her efforts in that direction. These organizations are more successful, as employees continuously look for ways to improve their work. Getting the employees to reach their full potential at work under stressful conditions is a tough challenge, but this can be achieved by motivation (Biological component, learned component, Cognitive component) them.
Empirical studies on team building (TB) and dynamics sheds some much needed light on creating and motivating the perfect team. The existing literature on TB seems to focusing on incorporating productivity, common goal, self-learning, corporation, communication, enjoyable workplace, motivation and identify strength to allow organization to have OC components (tension at work, variety of tasks, scope of work, preivious relaistic work, creativity in job contect, trust and chensiveness).

OC (Organization commitment) components, as an attitude , has been defined as the relative strenght of an individual’s identification with, and involvement in, a particular organization. It reflects an individual’s affective commitment, represents the majoy apprach to OC. In order to achevie organizational commitment, employers need to help their employees value being part of the organization, the more the employees value being part of the organization, the more likely they are to stay with the organization.

Conclusion

It is corroborated in several reseaches that motivation has a significant impact on team building. For effective team building, Organization should take a realistic and visionary view of people who work for them and with them. Motivation is contagious, so individuals should be infectious! If team meembers are not motivated, then organization should examine the reason where the lack in motivation lies?

From the motivation, Organization commitment steps in and through OC (organization commitment) job satisfaction represent possible benefits that are associated with effective team building. OC represents an individual’s identification with goals of organization, how much the individual values membership in the organization and the degree to which they intend to work to attain organizational goals. In result, organization ends up with the high perofrmance of employees.

Kellerman (1981) argues that a pre-requisite for any group with a high level of cohensiveness is a leader whose presence is continously and strongley felt: “highly cohesive groups are those in which the leaders symbolizes group concerns and identify and is personally visible to the membership” (p.16). Indeed, one of the surest ways of undermining the cohesiveness of a group is for leader to be absent, either physically or psychologically (the latter idea referring to insufficient care for the group and its goals).

The fact that group chesiveness has a positive impact on further motivation to learn was made explicit by Deutsch (1962) in his initial theory of cooperation, which stated that promotively oriented groups would show more achievement pressure. In summary of research effective on the cohesiveness on learner dispositions and behaviors, Johnson and Johnson (1995) verified this assumption.

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