CHAPTER – 2
DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS AND MOTIVATION:
LITERATURE EVIDENCES

2.1 Introduction
This chapter tries to establish the theoretical background for building the research model. The chapter talks about the literature on determinants relevant for this study. The specific focus is on the demographic factors and their relation to motivational factors. The chapter also talks about the ‘extrinsic’ and ‘intrinsic’ motivation and its linkage to various demographic factors. The closing of the chapter is by stating the objectives and hypotheses of this research.

2.2 Demographic Factors and Work Motivation
The Indian employment scenario is changing drastically because of the recent growth happening in the Indian industries. Growth in IT and related developments in other industries are forcing the top management to look at HR strategically. Insights into the finer aspects of motivation would be helpful for the managers to deal with strategic and operational HR issues.

There are huge volumes of study available around various concepts and theories of motivation. However, there are only limited literatures available linking demographic factors and their relationship with motivation. The available literatures, which link demographic factors with motivational factors, mostly stress on age and gender.

Studies reveal that employees’ demographic aspects have a role in their job attitudes and motivation. Factors such as age, education, gender and job tenure might be playing an effective role in employee motivation and job attitude (Churchill et al, 1979; Dubinsky and Skinner 1984; Ingram and Bellinger 1983; Lefkowitz 1994).
2.2.1. Gender and Work Motivation

In many geographical areas, the gender composition in terms of women’s participation in job still has to rise to a substantial extent. In Europe, women graduates constitute 55% in the total graduate figure. However, when it comes to actual employment, the rate is 21% lower than the rate of their male counterparts. Also the top management representation of women in organizations is trivial the world over. In the listed companies of Europe, the top management representation of women is only 11%.

The effect of changes on the Indian industrial canvas and other changing needs are bringing more and more women to mainstream careers in India. India has more working women than any other country in the world has. Of the 400 million or so total workforce, the women’s share is around 30-35%. This trend is reflected in the IT industry as well.

When one looks at the Information Technology space, the number of women who used to enter into the Engineering colleges and into the IT industry during the initial years was much smaller than the current numbers. As per statistics, in 2005, the IT industry employed approximately 40.4% women. This trend shows a favorable gender ratio on the bottom rung of the career pyramid of the IT industry.

Table 2.1 Women employed in IT industry

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No of women employed</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>421,460</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>562,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>670,984</td>
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NASCOM-Mercer 2011

The Indian IT industry had been quite gender neutral from the beginning. In this industry, across designations, different job profiles and skill sets, women contribute relatively well. With such significant representation, it’s important to look at women’s motivational issues separately. But the question is whether there is real understanding of the motivational issues of women and whether such knowledge is used to tackle women
specific motivational issues or is it that we blanket the motivational efforts without looking at gender specific details.

For the women world over, the ride is not smooth when it comes to career and career progression. A ‘New York Times’ published article of 2003, titled ‘the opt-out revolution’, throws some stark facts. The central theme of this article was that a handful of educated and talented women were walking out of their jobs because of the poor acceptability of women in their organizations and they think that their lives are much more meaningful without being in such jobs4.

Japan, which is a developed economy in Asia, has a big share of working women. The female representation in the labor market of Japan is almost half. However, the percentage of them reaching the top is very low compared to the other industrialized economies (Renshaw 1999; Tsuda 1999; Staley 2002). This is despite the fact that their female workforce is among the most educated in the world.

It is also a fact that there are gender-wage gaps prevailing in many countries. Even for the same job that men and women do, men get paid much more than their women counterparts. According to some studies conducted in the recent past, such gender wage gap in the UK is close to 20% (Harkness, 1996; Blackaby et al 1997; Lissenburgh, 2000, Swaffield, 2000). Part of this gap could be because of the differences in education and experience. However, there’s another reason which could be a contributing factor for such disparity that needs further exploration. That reason could be the employer discrimination or could be some non-observed productivity differential (Chevalier, 2004).

Many things we frequently observe reinforce certain learning in us. Similar is the case with gender stereotypes. Eagly and Steffen (1984) explained gender stereotypes as a reflection of what people observe in daily life which they eventually perceive to be true. When women are constantly seen taking care of babies, the perception formed over a period of time is that women have the nurturing trait. Social roles that people play are instrumental in painting the perception of gender traits. Because of this perception
women tend to be home makers eventually. And when they take up jobs, they take up positions of lower status. When they are in lower status, they get influenced by the people above them. To conclude, people in the higher status act more selfishly while people in the lower status are more concerned about others. This helps reinforce the idea that men are more ‘agentic’ and women are more ‘communal’ (Kay and Susane, 2004).

In a theory outlined by Gove (1994) of Vanderbilt University, human motivation is rooted in biological, psychological and social processes. There is a great deal of literature available which say that men are more competitive and goal directed while women are affiliative and sensitive. Walter says that social scientists attribute these perceptions to socialization and roles that men and women have played throughout time. He then points out that there is a growing field of evidence being presented by biologists, that gender differences in nurturing and instrumental behavior reflect not just socialization, but a complicated mix of social and biological processes.

In a study conducted among a few graduates of the UK who had been in the labor market for 42 months or below, their career and life expectation was studied. That input was decomposed to explain the gender-wage gap. This has reveled that there’s substantial difference in the career and life expectation between men and women. The result has conformed to the conventional belief of men being more career focused than women caring about the usefulness of their jobs. The main difference here is about the child rearing role. While 30% of women strongly agree that they expect to take a career break for their children, only 2% male graduates responded in the similar scale. In the whole study, the single greatest contributor to the gap was ‘expectation on career break’4. The above information could be useful for organizations while making policies so that women friendly policies could be made to empower them and encourage them.

The fact is that, there are many evidences favoring the positive women impact in workplaces. It was observed that, organizations with two or more women on board showed better performance in equity than the industry average. According to a recent Economic Times study (Economic Times, 08/03/2009), in India, companies headed by
women grew by a compounded annual growth rate of almost 35 per cent compared with 21 per cent registered by the BSE-30. Their profits grew by 56 per cent in the last five years, but grew even faster, at the rate of 64 per cent, in the last three years. The BSE-30 companies posted a growth rate of 27 per cent and 23 per cent, respectively, during the same period. These studies tell the tales which strongly indicate that having women in workplaces and also having them in leadership positions are beneficial for the organizations. Learning the gender perspective in motivation would help in dealing with employee issues differently.

John B. Miner by 1974, spent 15 years studying the concept of ‘motivation to manage’ in structured organizations. In most of the tests, he has used ‘miner sentence completion scales (MSCS)’. He was expected to find that women are less motivated to manage than men. This was done based on the differences in child rearing practices. He did the study in that year among 44 females and 26 males (also among 25 female educational administrators and 194 male administrators). He observed that managerial motivation was ‘significantly related to the success of female managers’. This conveys that women who become managers have the motivational capability to perform as much as their male counterparts have. He concludes by saying that though women’s presence is becoming more and more prominent in the labor market, the possibility of having more women managers available in the talent pool cannot be predicted. This is throwing up the requirement to do more research in the context of gender and certain kinds of motivational factors (Kay and Susane, 2004).

Concerned about some research details of the gender differences in ‘managing’, there was a ‘feminist’ involvement in researching about it. They have done it because they felt that the questions used were skewed towards male dominance. Also they wanted to prove some motivational theories of theirs. Eagly et al, (1994) performed a meta analysis to summarize all the previous researches done on ‘motivation to manage’ between genders using ‘minor sentence completion scale’. The researchers concluded that managerial styles are closely related to masculine styles. According to them, masculine managerial roles are barriers to women who are aspiring for managerial positions. However,
according to their observation, for ‘assertive leadership styles’, the motivation of men was seen greater than that of women (Kay and Susane, 2004).

As cited earlier, the reason for gender differences on work motivation or even ‘motivation to manage’ is a sum total of the biological, sociological and psychological processes. The culture of the nation plays a critical role in the sociological perspective. Hofstede (1980), made an attempt to classify the culture of the nation based on four factors- a) uncertainty avoidance b) power distance c) individualism- collectivism and d) masculinity-femininity. Among these four, ‘masculinity-femininity’ plays the biggest role in determining the national perception towards women at workplace. Masculinity-femininity, a multi-dimensional and complex cultural construct, is related to a society’s attitude towards the strength of traditional gender roles and perspectives on material success and assertiveness (Wortheya et al, 2009).

One of the reasons identified by Mckinsey and Company in their studies is that of the ‘double-burden syndrome’ that women undergo. This is about the mixed official and domestic responsibilities women handle. She takes the central family role in terms of organizing family life, child care, elderly care, etc. The impact of the above constraint is not the same in all the countries as some countries offer more support systems than others. On an average, in Europe, a woman takes at least twice the time that men take in domestic matters. This reason makes it impossible for women to be available for the ‘any time-anywhere’ management, especially in terms of their mobility to different geographical areas which could be one of the requirements to be in leadership positions.

In India where currently more women are present on the career canvas, women would certainly have specific issues coming out of the challenge they face in terms of managing both work and home. Traditionally in India, domestic responsibilities are mostly on the shoulders of women, and this indicates that they have to manage most of the domestic affairs too, when they choose to work. In this study, the researcher is attempting to look at the impact of gender on the motivational perspective of ‘work life balance’.
Harward Business Review in one of their studies, conveys that women’s career is like a maze and there could be de-railing at any stage when it comes to career progression. The real challenge is to sort out this maze. McKinsey has developed a model for women’s leadership development (Centred Leadership) which helps women connect to their personal meaning and managing their energies accordingly instead of the traditionally accepted grooming and networking way. This kind of efforts and practices would ultimately help the organization deal with women’s progress effectively.

Researches around gender and motivation many times evidence that there are gender based differences in motivation. Some studies and their findings point to the fact that there are differences in the needs and expectations of genders.

When achievement motivation was studied by Spence et al, (Helmreich and Spence, 1978) they could not establish that men are more achievement oriented than women. It would be appropriate to say that gender difference exists in some types of achievement rather than saying that men are more achievement oriented than women. Their research evidences say that men of some types (eg: business people, varsity athletes, etc) were found more competitive than women. However, there was no difference in the two achievement motivational factors (mastery and work) studied. In a follow up research of Spence (Flecher et al., 2007), it was found that there is difference in gender when it comes to their fitness in terms of their personality traits and their perceptions of environment.

There are certain industries where presence of women is traditionally low. One such Industry is ‘construction industry’. When checked to understand why there are lesser women motivated to join the construction industry, several factors were revealed. Male Dominance at the workplace was found to be one of the reasons why women were not motivated to enter into construction industry. This dominance results in the male orientation of the industry (Court and Moralee, 1995). Lack of promotion prospects, lack of child care facilities and lack of flexibility in working hours (Sommerville et al, 1993) also discourage women to enter into this industry. This industry also has an image of that
of hard physical work which women are unsuited for (Gale and Skitmore, 1990). As a solution to this, Dainty et al, (2000) suggest that the focus of the industry should be about changing its culture and it should then start attracting women which would yield better results in attracting more women employees.

In a study conducted in Australia (Gilbert and Walker, 2001), which tried to explore ‘the relationship between motivation, de-motivation and gender’, it tried to find out whether men and women are motivated and de-motivated by different variables encountered in the construction industry. Their study could not produce any results on ‘gender and levels of motivation’ or ‘gender and de-motivation’ among construction industry employees. Here the scores of male and female respondents on motivation were similar but the components of the results were different. They came up with variables which caused statistically significant agreement or disagreement as per gender grouping which are:

a) The presence of ‘exposure to project prestige’
b) The importance of good relationship with the supervisor
c) The importance and presence of ‘feeling isolated by the opposite gender’
d) Having the opinion ignored by the opposite gender

Analyzing all the above tells that it’s important that the managers treat their team members differently other than taking a gender bound stand. Managers need to understand that women have different perceptions and priorities.

There is considerable increase in women owned business throughout the world, and as per some research conducted by Fasci and Valdez (1998) as well as Moore and Buttner (1997) in North America, ownership of business by women had a considerable increase from the year 1970. This growth of women owned business across the world had led to many studies on gender impact on financial performance. Some researches that were conducted were around some of the motivational aspects such as ‘need for achievement’ in both men and women and ‘need for autonomy and dominance’ in both men and women (Sexton and Bowman-Upton 1990; Masters and Meier 1988). In some such
research it was found that women were motivated to start a business for a more complex set of objectives than their male counterparts. Also there were differences in the way men and women viewed the factors related to achieving flexibility between family and work lives (Cinamon and Rich 2002; Stephens and Feldman 1997).

However, many researches fail to explain the relationship of ‘gender and financial performance’ which suggests that female owned business ventures also tend to be successful on an average, even though personal characteristics differ (Collins-Dodd, Gordon and Smart, 2004).

The relationship between gender and motivation has been studied and discussed in various contexts. Ebrahimi (1999) in his research has identified gender as an important factor in the case of work motivation. In ‘dynamic triangle motivation’, which was suggested by Osteraker (1999) a relation among ‘culture, organizational culture and individual characteristics’ is specified. Gender is an individual personal characteristic, and this model gives a theoretical canvas to draw the gender related issues in motivation.

In a research, Aycan (2001) mentioned that more research is needed to study gender differences in motivation.

To put things in perspective, there are many evidences which suggest that motivational factors are not the same for both genders. Researchers attribute this mainly to the social, biological and psychological reasons. Some of the most important findings regarding this ‘gender’ difference in motivation is because of the following:

1. Double burden Syndrome – Women are caught between the family and work responsibilities.
2. Career- Life Expectations – Their career expectation is not as strong as that of men. A majority of them are planning and are ready for taking career breaks for children which is not the case with men.
3. The Traditional Management Style – The traditional management style is taught and accepted is masculine in nature, and this is women unfriendly.
4. Masculinity- femininity culture of the country.
5. Culture of the organization.

As it is believed that gender diversity works favorably for organizations, many IT organizations try to do gender inclusiveness consciously. Gender inclusiveness is a concept which even non-IT organizations try to practise today. Such contexts wherein more number of women are associated with the mainstream jobs, where such diversity in work is desired by the organization and where the industry is constantly seeking for talents- deeper understanding about gender motivational factors would help managers address motivation of employees more effectively.

Though research reveals gender impact on work motivation, it does not in depth discuss which are the motivational factors that are critical for each gender, what are the roles ‘extrinsic’ and ‘intrinsic’ motivations play with regard to ‘gender and work motivation’, etc. This research focuses on finding an answer to this.

**2.2.2. Age, Experience, Education, Geographical Region and Work Motivation**

As per some of the researches already conducted, especially in the West, employee work attitude is likely to change with respect to demographic factors such as age, gender, work tenure and education levels. Some literature on career progression suggests that over a period of time the perceptions of work evolve. As people age and experience, the expectations from work also change (Brown and Peterson 1993; Jurkiewicz and Brown 1998).

Research has evidenced differences in the motivation of younger and older adults. An example is the study conducted by Freund (2006). Also Kanfer and Ackerman (2004) suggest that age has an impact on certain types of work motivation.

It was found that perceptions of work changes, as the person ages and as the work tenure increases. It’s actually the expectations from the work that change (Brown and Peterson 1993, Jurkiewicz and Brown 1998). As people age and gain experience, factors that
motivate them may also change. As the historical and social experiences change, their work attitude changes. Owing to different material and emotional needs and desires, less developed self concept and less developed professional attachments, younger workers might have a different work attitude compared to older workers (Jurkiewicz and Brown 1998).

According to Beuro of Labour Statistics details of 2002, almost half of the US population now is above 45 years or older. This is the trend in most of the developed nations. In India, on the contrary, there is around 60% of the population in the age group 15-59 years, of which half are below 25 years of age. So it is not the similar motivational issues that both these countries would face.

Some recent work on career stages (Dalton and Thompson, 1986; Greller and Simpson, 1999) and barriers to employee development among midlife and older workers (e.g., London, 1998; Simpson, Greller, and Stroh, 2002; Sterns and Doverspike, 1988) points to the fact that it's the age-related changes in motivational variables which play the critical role in successful work outcome much more than the real chronological age or cognitive abilities.

There are many kinds of stereotyping regarding old age. Stereotyping is judging, reacting to, or treating another person on the basis of one’s perception of the group to which that person belongs (e.g: old, young, doctor, women) or in which they have been placed (Robbins, 2001). Some positive beliefs are that older people possess experience, good judgment, strong work ethics, commitment to work quality, etc. However, there are negatives such as they lack flexibility, are resistant to new technology, are unwilling or unable to learn new skills, and are unable to change or adapt. Many people attribute high absenteeism and high job turnover of the older population to the stereotype of a physically and mentally declining individual (Lord and Farrington, 2006).

Many such stereotyped beliefs are proved by research to be baseless. Older workers are proved to have the need and capabilities for learning just like younger workers. A study
reveals that older people who are well above seventy years (70 years) are capable of learning, and as a result, they also feel vibrant and younger (Sullivan and Duplaga, 1997). However, many times organizations exclude older people from training, thinking that they have only a few more years to go and investing on their training is a waste of resources (Lord and Farrington, 2006).

The general perception on aging is about declining of cognitive and intellectual abilities. However, many researches say otherwise. There have been numerous applications of life-span perspectives to intellectual abilities, personality, affect, and theories of the self (e.g., Lachman and James, 1997). For this kind of theories, adult development can be seen in terms of four distinct patterns which are intellectual abilities, affect, personality and theories of the self, rather than seeing this age as the age of decline.

There are certain factors which decline with age and some others which grow with age. Extroversion, neuroticism and openness to experience seem to decline with age. Based on this finding, older adults could be less active, less anxious and less open to new experiences compared to younger adults. However, it was found in some cross functional studies that conscientiousness and agreeableness increase with aging (Warr, Miles and Platts, 2001). Based on this finding, it could be assumed that older adults are more conscientious but less sociable, out going, change oriented and career motivated than younger adults.

There are research evidences on positive relationships between age and knowledge (Ackerman, 1996, 2000; Ackerman and Rolfhus, 1999; Beier and Ackerman, 2001, 2003). It also emphasizes on the fact that middle aged adults are more knowledgeable than younger adults, when considering a broad conceptualization of knowledge.

When McAdams (McAdams and de St.Aubin, 1998) and his colleagues tried to study further on Erikson's(1964) theory which connotes ‘generativity’ which is a motive pertaining to caring for others, parenting, and helping larger society and future generations, no consistent evidences could be brought about across adulthood. However,
cross sectional findings suggest that middle aged adults display more generativity motives than young adults and older adults (McAdams, de St. Aubin, and Logan, 1993; Keyes and Ryff, 1998).

As employees age, it was found that the strength of achievement motive comes down but the strength of motives of positive affect and protecting self-concept increases (Kanfer and Ackerman, 2004)

Further, according to McAdams (2001), generativity expressions happen in some life roles when there are circumstantial pressures. To substantiate this, there are empirical evidences provided by MacDermaid, Franz and DeReus (1998) which bring about generativity expressions as a function of context (home vs work) and role (parent vs worker). This study is compelled to focus on the process and collaborative nature of goal accomplishments for midlife adults, rather than the mere focus on job performances. This also points to the fact that as compared to younger workers, midlife workers may respond more positively to managerial strategies that emphasize cooperation more than competition.

Based on some research findings, it might be appropriate to think that younger workers are ‘developmental’ focused and older workers are ‘generative’ focused. That way younger workers may focus on gaining training and work experience and older workers may focus on mentoring others (Kanfer and Ackerman, 2004).

Modern theories of work motivation tend to emphasize ‘intrinsic’ rewards related to learning and ‘extrinsic’ rewards related to pay, promotion, and recognition. Among older workers, constraints on learning, often lessen the value of these rewards. Rewards related to emergent motives for knowledge utilization, helping, collaboration, and enhancing positive affect have yet to be addressed in either theory or practice. If theories of work motivation suggest that older workers are, as a group, less motivated, perhaps the problem lies in the limitations of our current theories and organizational practices, rather than with the class of individuals (Kanfer and Ackerman, 2004).
Need satisfaction models universally reveal that, as an individual ages and as a person experience, the expectations from the job also change. As a person ages, the life experiences and historical experiences also grow. Because the emotional needs, material needs and desires are different for an older person and a younger person, the work attitude in an older person and a younger person will also be different. The less developed self-concept in younger people can also be a reason for why the work attitude is different (Jurkiewicz and Brown, 1998).

Many motivational theories can be explained with respect to age and experience. One of the well known stage–model theories that can be explained is ‘Maslow’s theory of need hierarchy’. According to Maslow the higher-order needs such as self-actualization tend to occur in later adulthood, following accomplishment of lower-order needs during early adulthood (Kanfer and Ackerman, 2004).

An employee’s evolution in an organization can be explained with the help of Maslow’s theory of need hierarchy. When an employee joins, the primary focus is on the monetary benefits. He also might be looking at satisfying his belongingness need through being a good team member or by making friends in the organization. Eventually his focus should be on getting promotions, added responsibilities and on getting people reporting to him which is his attempt to meet the esteem needs. Looking at creative jobs within the organization or starting his own organization could be his later stage move which could be explained as his attempt to fulfill the self actualization need. If this is true, then the motivational factors that influence one are different with respect to one’s age or with respect to the number of years of experience he holds. This research looks at finding the relationship that age, experience and level in the organization have on work motivation.

As Maslow’s approach has largely lacked organizational research explanations, other stage-type approaches to adult personality development have flourished (Neugarten and Hegestad, 1976; Sheldon and Kasser, 2001). Indeed, work drawing on these models, such as ‘passages’ by Sheehy (1976), ‘seasons of a man’s life’ by (Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, and McKee, 1978) and Hall and Mirvis’s (1995) ‘concept of the protean
career' have substantially impacted popular thinking about the nature and meaning of work, particularly with regard to changes in motivation for work and learning during the midlife period (Kanfer and Ackerman, 2004).

Yet another study (Warr, 1997 and 2001) reveals that there is association between age and increased preferences for physical security, job security, salary and opportunity for skill utilization through late midlife. However, age should be negatively associated with job variety, feedback and provision of external goal assignments. Warr (2001) adds that job related preferences can be influenced by the anticipated utility of the performance.

As one gains experience in the job, his expectations with respect to efforts, performance and type of incentives preferred change. In a study conducted among the industrial sales people in the US, (Churchill et al, 1979) found that age and job tenure exert influences in preferring rewards. Their study evidenced that as employees age, their preference for job security increases. Also as the job tenure increases, the desire to do something significant and worthwhile in their jobs also increases.

There are only limited studies available on motivation and education. In a study conducted among a group of highly educated Croatian employees, the perception of non-material rewards in their workplace was high which has been assumed as one of the reasons for their high job satisfaction (Poloski et al, 2008). In a research among library professionals, a correlation exists between perceived motivation, job satisfaction and commitment. However, the correlation between motivation and commitment was negative. In looking at the data of professionally qualified and non-professionally qualified library personnel, no differences were seen on perceived motivation (Tella, 2007).

Churchill et al, (1979) identifies that the education level of employees influences their work attitude because the individual expects that rewards and responsibilities will change as the education level increases.
In this study, the researcher intends to check whether education in general or professional education in particular has an impact on employee work motivation.

Different geographical areas may have an impact on the work motivation of employees because of the cultural differences that exist among geographical areas. Some of the motivation researches conducted in the US and also a few cross cultural studies stressing on employee work attitude mention that a universal set of motivators does not exist across cultures (Archichvili et al, 1998; Ambrose and Kulik 1999).

In general, research evidences say that demographic factors influence work motivation.

In the case of ‘age’, it has been proved that age brings in psychological changes in individuals. Some vital points seen from the discussion above are given in points below:

a) As one ages, expectations from work change.
b) Also perceptions of work change when one ages and the tenure increases.
c) Work attitude changes with age as the historical and social experiences change.
d) Age related changes in the ‘motivational variables’ are more critical for the successful work outcome than the real chronological age.
e) There are some factors that decline with age such as ‘extroversion’, ‘neuroticism’ and ‘openness to experience’.
f) ‘Generocity’ is a critical need as one ages and ‘generocity’ is seen more for the middle aged adults.
g) It could be assumed that younger workers are ‘developmental’ focused and older workers are ‘generative’ focused.
h) The preference for physical security, job security, salary and opportunity for skill utilization increases with increased age.
i) Age is negatively associated with job variety, feedback and provision for external job alignment.
j) Age and experiences influence the ‘type of rewards’ preferred.
k) As the tenure increases, the need to do something worthwhile increases.
It seems very clear that there are age related changes which happen not just physically but also emotionally. Older people tend to become less sociable, less outgoing and less change oriented. But they could be more agreeable, more sharing and knowledgeable. They are equally ‘learnable’ as the younger lot. Many times we tend to perceive things based on the stereotype that ‘old age’ is the age of decline. There is no basis for assuming that younger people are more motivated than older people. If this is observed anywhere, the issue is with the organization’s wrong practice of motivation.

The influence of ‘education’ on work motivation has also been discussed earlier. A few points to sum up regarding ‘education’:

a) Education may influence work attitude and motivation as individual expects that rewards and responsibilities change with education.

b) Highly educated employees may prefer non-material rewards.

c) When professionally qualified and non-professionally qualified employees among ‘library’ employees were studied, no difference was found with respect to their motivation.

It can be summed up in general that demographic factors influence work motivation.

Many times, there are contradictory findings in the studies conducted on motivational factors and demographic factors such as education, gender and age (Eskildsen, Kristensen, and Westlund, 2002). This is also a compelling reason to explore further in this area.

This study re-examines the influence of ‘age’, ‘work tenure’ and ‘education’ on work motivation. Along with these demographic factors, this research also explores the linkage of other demographic factors (such as ‘level in the organization’, ‘high and low family income, ‘geographical region etc.) with motivation.
2.2.3. Linkage of Demographic Factors to Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation

‘Intrinsic’ motivation is about obtaining the moving energy from the job and the job related factors whereas ‘extrinsic’ motivation is about finding that moving energy from the external prods.

Many believe that intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are independent of each other. However, there are studies which have proved otherwise. In a study conducted by Deci (1975) on students (who were spending time in solving puzzles and writing newspaper headlines which indeed was intrinsically satisfying), it was found that when this activity was tied to monetary rewards, the amount of free time they found on spending on this reduced. Based on this result, he suggested that to yield better results, the situations and the jobs should be structured properly instead of linking them to monetary benefits.

Similarly, Hofstede (1980) in his study also has an interesting finding and suggestion. According to him even if there is budget motivation available in an organization, a game spirit (an intrinsically motivating ‘play type’ activity) is essential for the budget motivation to be effective. So, according to him, intrinsic motivation is a co-requisite for budget motivation (extrinsic) to be fruitful.

One of the most popular performance based (where extrinsic and intrinsic motivations are discussed) approaches is Herzberg’s two factor theory of motivation (Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman, 1959). Herzberg here has grouped factors such as achievement, recognition, advancement etc as intrinsic factors and ‘context’ of the work such as supervision, co-workers and job security as extrinsic factors.

In intrinsic motivation, the reward is not different from the task. The task itself is enjoyable to the individual. Intrinsic motivations tend to be deeper and more personal than extrinsic motivations. Self-motivations by definition are ‘intrinsic’. The following motivations are likely to be ‘intrinsic’ (Kushel, 1994, p. 69):
• Enjoyment of the work itself
• Desire to have some bit of a substantial action such as sharing visions, missions, leadership, authority, and responsibility
• Pride in excellent performance
• Need to prove some point to oneself
• Achievement and value realization (such as honesty in doing a task)
• The trust that the work one is doing is very important
• The excitement and pleasure of a challenge
• The desire to exceed one’s previous level of job performance, thus challenging one’s own records of achievement

Also, according to Maloney and McFillen (1985), personal growth, job satisfaction and the skills and knowledge of workers are intrinsic motivators.

In a Japan based study where the two-factor theory of motivation by Herzeberg was the central theme, it was found that male employees tend to choose intrinsic motivation over extrinsic motivation. Women employees of the sample did not have any clear distinctive opting trend, however, marginally it was found that their preferences were more for extrinsic factors. Also management perception of ‘what motivates employees’ wasn’t going along with the female responses. The major mismatches were for the factors interpersonal relations, job security and fairness of evaluation (Worthleya, MacNabb, Brislina, Itoa and Rosec, 2009).

The result of a survey conducted by International Social Survey Program revealed that 25% of the employees considered their works to be helpful to others and believed that their work thus contributes to the society, which for them was a very critical job value. This leads to the natural assumption that individuals also considered other social interests apart from personal interests while considering a job (Lanfrachi, Narcy and Larguem, 2010). Interestingly, this work value was prominent in the so-called ‘high income’ group (Clark, 2009). This again leads to the assumption that different job values might be dominating different types of employees.
Some observations extracted from the literature review discussed above have been summed up as below:

a) Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation need not be independent of each other.
b) Some studies reveal that intrinsic motivation is a ‘co-requisite’ for extrinsic motivation.
c) Male employees preferred intrinsic motivation over extrinsic motivation. In some studies Female employees did not show any such opting trend.
d) Older employees showed extrinsic motivation (such as job security) more than intrinsic motivation.
e) While taking up a job people from a high income group considered more seriously ‘social interest’ or factors such as usefulness which are more intrinsic in nature.

In this research, the researcher is intends to study whether any specific demography has an inclination for either ‘intrinsic’ or ‘extrinsic’ motivation.

### 2.3 A Brief Overview of the Work Motivational Studies in India

Employees who are valuable resources contribute to the activities of the organizations, based on the appropriate opportunities given by the organizations. It’s also critical for employees to stick to the organization and work towards organizational goals for organizations to be successful (Molander, 1996). Such commitment can be elicited through motivation.

There are a few motivational studies done in India in certain industry types and also among certain employee categories (Mundhra and Jacob, 2011).

One such study has been conducted in a manufacturing industry to check the intrinsic motivation and its influence on performance (In that study, ‘competence’, ‘autonomy’ and ‘relatedness’ were tested among different gender, age and education group), and it
was found that for the age group below 28 years and above 35 years the ‘competence’ as a factor had negligible impact. However, ‘autonomy’ and ‘relatedness’ had a high influence across age groups (Mundhra and Jacob, 2011).

The same test on ‘education levels’ revealed that the factor ‘competence’ had a negligible influence on all education group. ‘Autonomy’ and ‘relatedness’ had a moderate to strong influence on people of all education groups (Mundhra and Jacob, 2011).

In another similar study conducted in ‘services’ industries based on the ‘intrinsic’ motivation and its performance influence, the results observed were not the same. The intrinsic factors considered were ‘competence’, ‘autonomy’ and ‘relatedness’. This study revealed that ‘competence’ as an intrinsic factor had a negligible influence on performance, across age groups. ‘Autonomy’ as a factor had a negligible influence on the performances of people of 28-35 years age group as well as people who were above 35 years. ‘Autonomy’, however, had a moderate influence on the age group upto 28 years.

When the data studied on the basis of the education of the participants, it was found that ‘competence’ as a motivational factor had only a negligible influence on Graduates and Engineers. However, it had a moderate influence among Post Graduates. It was also observed that ‘autonomy’ had a moderate influence on people who were Graduates and Engineers. ‘Relatedness’ as a factor had a moderate to strong influence on all age groups except those whose education was ‘miscellaneous’ (Mundhra, 2010).

Banerjee and Duflo (2006) made an attempt to study the ‘extrinsic’ motivation of health workers and teachers with regard to absenteeism, as absenteeism poses a big issue in the public health centres and schools in developed countries. The finding was that teachers were responding positively to extrinsic motivation with respect to absenteeism irrespective of the fact that the incentive offered was not extravagant (Banerjee and Duflo, 2006).
When two factor theory of motivation was studied in one of the researches in India, it revealed that the real motivating factors for the new generation were yet to be identified. Several studies in the past also have concluded that there is no similarity in the two factors identified by Fredric Herzberg; but not many have explored the factors that actually exist and are appropriate for the present workforce (Guha, 2010).

In yet another study conducted among Insurance Companies Officers (Balachander, Panchanatham and Subramanian, 2010) of both private and government sectors, it was seen that both the category officers expressed the same opinion about the satisfaction on pattern of working and chances to learn. However, the opportunity to learn more was with the employees in the private sector. The major observation here was that the job situation was influencing the motivation of both the government and private insurance sectors. A place, culture, climate and environment in which an employee performs his duty in the company could be termed as a ‘job situation’. The characteristics of Job situations are factors in the work environment which affect motivation in the organization (Singh, 2005).

There is a dearth of motivational studies in India with specific stress on industries. There are a few researches available which were conducted in non-IT industries such as manufacturing and service industries. Similar is the case of with the studies done on demographic factors and their influence on work motivation. Studies done on ‘extrinsic’ and ‘intrinsic’ motivation inclination of various demographic groups are also very few. This clearly demands studies in this area.

2.4. Statement of the Problem and Objectives of the Study
The concept of managing business organizations has been changing over a period of time. From a static function of business administration, the movement is to the dynamic function of strategic management. The organizational approach is now more and more human centered. From the traditional concepts of planning, organizing and controlling, the organizations are graduating to the concepts of initiating, influencing and motivating.
The traditional concept of management is changing into a human resources model (Kamdron, 2005).

Indian industries are going through a massive change era. New industries are finding space while the traditional industries are undergoing facelifts to withstand the stiff competition from the global players. India has found its niche in the IT space of the global arena over a period of time. Indian software and allied industries, which enjoy business shares both in the domestic and global markets, are heavily people intensive. Similar is the case with many other new generation non-IT organizations.

Learning more about the motivational factors and the influence they on demographic factors specifically for IT and non-IT industries will be extremely useful in dealing with employee motivation related issues. The IT industry which is people intensive, has a huge share of knowledge employees working in it. The time has gone wherein organizations were relying simply on the traditional theories for knitting their motivational program. As people are the critical factor for productivity, growth and sustainability for these industries, it is also important to address motivational issues specific to the employees of different demographic groups, so that the motivational programs will fetch more results.

Surprisingly, there are not many motivational studies done in India. A few of the studies available are focused on traditional industries. Also studies related to demographic factors and their impact on work motivation have hardly been done in the Indian context.

This study has attempted to bring out more insight on demographic factors such as age, tenure, gender and their influence on work motivation, The bearing that education has on work motivation, the impact that experience in years and annual family income have on work motivation, the difference motivational factors have for the professionally qualified and the non-professionally qualified, etc.
The objective of this study is to find out:

1. how demographic factors such as age, gender, income, etc. are related to motivation
   and
2. what motivates each demographic segment with respect to the industry

2.5 Hypothesis of the Study
There are twelve hypothesis which were proposed for testing. They are listed below:

1. The demographic factor of ‘age’ affects work motivation which would not be the same for IT and non-IT industries.

2. The demographic factor of ‘gender’ affects work motivation which would not be the same for IT and non-IT industries.

3. The demographic factor of ‘marital status’ affects work motivation which would not be the same for IT and non-IT industries.

4. The demographic factor of ‘education’ affects work motivation which would not be the same for IT and non-IT industries.

5. Factors that motivate professionally qualified employees are different from factors that motivate employees who are not professionally qualified.

6. Factors that motivate professionally qualified women are different from factors that motivate non-professionally qualified women.

7. The demographic factor of ‘level’ in the organization affects work motivation which would not be the same for IT and non-IT industries.

8. Factors that motivate supervisory employees are different from factors that motivate non-supervisory employees.
9. The demographic factor of ‘work tenure’ affects work motivation which would not be the same for IT and non-IT industries.

10. The demographic factor of ‘annual family income’ affects work motivation which would not be the same for IT and non-IT industries.

11. Factors that motivate employees of ‘high family income’ are different from factors that motivate employees of ‘low family income’.

12. The motivational factors that affect employees in Kerala and Karnataka are likely to be the same.