Chapter 2

Motivation Theories

Soldier lives for this Naam and Nishan throughout his life even to the peril of his life.
CHAPTER – 2

MOTIVATION THEORIES

“Discipline is based on pride in the Profession of Arms, on meticulous attention to details, and on mutual respect and confidence. Discipline must be a habit so engrained that it is stronger than the excitement of battle or the fear of death.”

General George S. Patton, Jr.23

The first component of the Army Profession is the Army Profession of Arms24. The Army as part of the broader Indian Profession of Arms serves a collective client, the Nation. The impacts of the Army’s actions are far reaching and serve the vital interest of our Nation: the recovery of a community devastated by natural disaster, the defeat of enemy forces, or the defense of our mother land. Therefore, failure of the military profession carries potential catastrophic consequences. Indian military professionals work, study, and train throughout their careers to ensure the military profession will not fail in its call to duty.

Individual members of the Army Profession are distinguished from those of other professions by the “unlimited liability” they assume in their oaths of service to the Nation. While members of some professions engage in routine dangerous tasks, only members of the Armed Forces are required to place their lives in peril anywhere at any time when ordered. The obligations they undertake, risking life and well-being for the greater good, are in many ways extraordinary. The Army is united with members of all the services in one common purpose: defending the Constitution and protecting the Nation’s interests, at home and abroad, against all threats.

PROFESSION OF ARMS: The Army Profession of Arms is composed of the uniformed Army, those skilled in the art of warfare and under unlimited liability in its “killing and dying” aspects.

24Army Profession of Arms, Center for the Army Profession and EthicCombined Arms Center, TRADOC, Oct 2010
THE PROFESSIONAL SOLDIER: An Indian Professional Soldier is an expert, a volunteer certified in the Profession of Arms, bonded with comrades in a shared identity and culture of sacrifice and service to the Nation and the Constitution, who adheres to the highest ethical standards and is a steward of the future of the Profession.

Another important aspect of most operations carried out in the military are decentralised operations. Effectively a junior leader, a lieutenant, or a JCO or a NCO is going to lead the team and makes tactical decisions that have strategic effects. Nobody is looking over their shoulder saying ‘Yes. Pull the trigger,’ or ‘No, do not pull the trigger.’ The decision he is going to make, and because it has a strategic effect, is going to be defined by the set of values he or she aspires to and those values are defined by the values of Indian Army.”

Motivation is defined as the driving force that causes the flux from desire to will in life. It can be considered as a psychological state that compels or reinforces an action toward a desired goal.

Motivation has been shown to have roots in physiological, behavioural, cognitive, and social areas. Motivation may be rooted in a basic impulse to optimise well-being, minimise physical pain and maximise pleasure. It can also originate from specific physical needs such as eating, sleeping or resting and sex.

Motivation is an inner drive to behave or act in a certain manner. These inner conditions such as wishes, desires and goals, activate to move in a particular direction in behaviour.

It is advocated that majority of intake joins the Indian Army with high level of motivation to overcome the difficulties of service and make the supreme sacrifice of life for the country, despite the fact that the compensation package provided for the service is highly inadequate. It becomes low in comparison to packages provided in the outside world for much lower employments.
Types of Theories and Models

For the purpose of discussion the academic theories are being discussed. However majority of these do not apply to the Indian Armed Forces as these have been developed to explain the acts which do not involve the hardship as applicable to the Armed Forces, their work conditions or to the peril of their life.

Motivational Theories

A class of theories about why people do things seeks to reduce the number of factors down to one and explain all behaviour through that one factor. For example, economics has been criticised for using self-interest as a mono-motivational theory.25 Mono-motivational theories are often criticised for being too reductive or too abstract.

Conscious and unconscious motivations. A number of motivational theories emphasise the distinction between conscious and unconscious motivations. In evolutionary psychology, the "ultimate", unconscious motivation may be a cold evolutionary calculation, the conscious motivation could be more benign or even positive emotions.26

Freud27 is associated with the idea that human beings have many unconscious motivations that cause them to make important decisions because of these unconscious forces.

Psychological theories and models

Motivation can be looked at as a cycle where thoughts influence behaviours and these behaviours thus drive performance. Performance will impact thoughts and the cycle becomes cyclical. Each facet is composed of many multi-faceted dimensions where attitudes, beliefs, intentions, effort, and withdrawal all affect the amount of motivation one has.

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27 http://www.biography.com/people/sigmund-freud-9302400
Rational motivations. The idea that human beings are rational and human behaviour is guided by reason is an old one. However, recent research (on Satisfying for example) has significantly undermined the idea of homo economics or of perfect rationality in favour of a more bounded rationality. The field of behavioural economics is particularly concerned with the limits of rationality in economic agents.

Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation

Motivation can be divided into two types:

- Intrinsic (internal) motivation and
- Extrinsic (external) motivation.

Intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation refers to motivation that is driven by an interest or enjoyment in the task itself, and exists within the individual rather than relying on external pressures or a desire for reward. Intrinsic motivation has been studied since the early 1970s. The phenomenon of intrinsic motivation was first acknowledged within experimental studies of animal behaviour. In these studies, it was evident that the organisms would engage in playful and curiosity driven behaviours in the absence of reward. Intrinsic motivation is a natural motivational tendency and is a critical element in cognitive, social, and physical development. Students who are intrinsically motivated are more likely to engage in the task willingly as well as work to improve their skills, which will increase their capabilities. Students are likely to be intrinsically motivated if they:

- Attribute their educational results to factors under their own control, also known as autonomy.
- Believe they have the skills to be effective agents in reaching their desired goals, also known as self-efficacy beliefs.

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• Are interested in mastering a topic, not just in achieving good grades.

**Extrinsic motivation.** Extrinsic motivation refers to the performance of an activity in order to attain an outcome, whether or not that activity is also intrinsically motivated. Extrinsic motivation comes from outside of the individual. Common extrinsic motivations are rewards (for example money or grades) for showing the desired behaviour, and the threat of punishment following misbehaviour. Competition is in an extrinsic motivator because it encourages the performer to win and to beat others, not simply to enjoy the intrinsic rewards of the activity. A cheering crowd and the desire to win a trophy are also extrinsic incentives.

**Comparison of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation.** Social psychological research has indicated that extrinsic rewards can lead to overjustification and a subsequent reduction in intrinsic motivation. In one study demonstrating this effect, children who expected to be (and were) rewarded with a ribbon and a gold star for drawing pictures spent less time playing with the drawing materials in subsequent observations than children who were assigned to an unexpected reward condition. However, another study showed that third graders who were rewarded with a book showed more reading behaviour in the future, implying that some rewards do not undermine intrinsic motivation. While the provision of extrinsic rewards might reduce the desirability of an activity, the use of extrinsic constraints, such as the threat of punishment, against performing an activity has actually been found to increase one's intrinsic interest in that activity. In one study, when children were given mild threats against playing with an attractive toy, it was found that the threat actually served to increase the child's interest in the toy, which was previously undesirable to the child in the absence of threat.

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For those children who received no extrinsic reward, self-determination theory proposes that extrinsic motivation can be internalised by the individual if the task fits with their values and beliefs and therefore helps to fulfill their basic psychological needs.

**Operant conditioning.** Operant conditioning, a term coined by B.F. Skinner\(^{34}\), is a method of learning that occurs through rewards and punishments for behaviour. Skinner believed that internal thoughts and motivations could not be used to explain behaviour; instead to look at external, observable causes of human behaviour. His theory explained how we acquire the range of learned behaviours we exhibit each and every day\(^ {35}\).

**Self-control.** The self-control aspect of motivation is increasingly considered to be a subset of emotional intelligence; it is suggested that although a person may be classed as highly intelligent (as measured by many traditional intelligence tests), they may remain unmotivated to pursue intellectual endeavours. Vroom’s "expectancy theory"\(^ {36}\) provides an account of when people may decide to exert self-control in pursuit of a particular goal.

**Drive Theory.** A drive or desire can be described as *a deficiency or a need that activates behaviour that is aimed at a goal or an incentive*\(^ {37}\). These drives are thought to originate within the individual and may not require external stimuli to encourage the behaviour. Basic drives could be sparked by deficiencies such as hunger, which motivates a person to seek food whereas more subtle drives might be the desire for praise and approval, which motivates a person to behave in a manner pleasing to others.

By contrast, the role of extrinsic rewards and stimuli can be seen in the example of training animals by giving them treats when they perform a trick correctly. The treat motivates the animals to perform the trick consistently, even later when the treat is removed from the process.

\(^{34}\)http://www.bfskinner.org/behavioral-science/definition/


Incentive theory. A reward, tangible or intangible, is presented after the occurrence of an action (i.e. behaviour) with the intention of causing the behaviour to occur again. This is done by associating positive meaning to the behaviour. Studies show that if the person receives the reward immediately, the effect is greater, and decreases as delay lengthens. Repetitive action-reward combination can cause the action to become habit. Motivation comes from two sources: oneself and other people. These two sources are called intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation, respectively.

Reinforcers and reinforcement principles of behaviour differ from the hypothetical construct of reward. A reinforcer is any stimulus change following a response that increases the future frequency or magnitude of that response, therefore the cognitive approach is certainly the way forward as in 1973 Maslow described it as being the golden pineapple. Positive reinforcement is demonstrated by an increase in the future frequency or magnitude of a response due to in the past being followed contingently by a reinforcing stimulus. Negative reinforcement involves stimulus change consisting of the removal of an aversive stimulus following a response. Positive reinforcement involves a stimulus change consisting of the presentation or magnification of a positive stimulus following a response. From this perspective, motivation is mediated by environmental events, and the concept of distinguishing between intrinsic and extrinsic forces is irrelevant.

Applying proper motivational techniques can be much harder than it seems. Steven Kerr notes that when creating a reward system, it can be easy to reward A, while hoping for B, and in the process, reap harmful effects that can jeopardise your goals.

Incentive theory in psychology treats motivation and behaviour of the individual as they are influenced by beliefs, such as engaging in activities that are expected to be profitable. Incentive theory is promoted by behavioural psychologists, such as BF Skinner and literalised by behaviourists, especially by Skinner in his philosophy of Radical behaviourism, to mean that a person's actions always have social ramifications: and if actions are positively received people are more likely to act in this manner, or if negatively received people are less likely to act in this manner.
Incentive theory distinguishes itself from other motivation theories, such as drive theory, in the direction of the motivation. In incentive theory, stimuli "attract", to use the term above, a person towards them, as opposed to the body seeking to re-establish homeostasis and pushing towards the stimulus. In terms of behaviourism, *incentive theory* involves positive reinforcement: the reinforcing stimulus has been conditioned to make the person happier. For instance, a person knows that eating food, drinking water, or gaining social capital will make them happier. As opposed to in *drive theory*, which involves negative reinforcement: a stimulus has been associated with the removal of the punishment - the lack of homeostasis in the body. For example, a person has come to know that if they eat when hungry, it will eliminate that negative feeling of hunger, or if they drink when thirsty, it will eliminate that negative feeling of thirst.

**Escape-seeking dichotomy model**[^38]. Escapism and seeking are major factors influencing decision making. Escapism is a need to breakaway from a daily life routine, turning on the television and watching an adventure film, whereas seeking is described as the desire to learn, turning on the television to watch a documentary. Both motivations have some interpersonal and personal facets for example individuals would like to escape from family problems (personal) or from problems with work colleagues (interpersonal). This model can also be easily adapted with regard to different studies.

**Drive-reduction theory**[^39]. There are a number of drive theories. The *Drive Reduction Theory* grows out of the concept that people have certain biological drives, such as hunger. As time passes the strength of the drive increases if it is not satisfied (in this case by eating). Upon satisfying a drive the drive's strength is reduced. The theory is based on diverse ideas from the theories of Freud to the ideas of feedback control systems, such as a thermostat.

[^38]: *Lesley A Knowles*, Four Major Theories on Motivation, Oct 2010.

Drive theory has some intuitive or folk validity. For instance when preparing food, the drive model appears to be compatible with sensations of rising hunger as the food is prepared, and, after the food has been consumed, a decrease in subjective hunger. There are several problems, however, that leave the validity of drive reduction open for debate. The first problem is that it does not explain how secondary reinforcers reduce drive. For example, money satisfies no biological or psychological needs, but a pay check appears to reduce drive through second-order conditioning. Secondly, a drive, such as hunger, is viewed as having a "desire" to eat, making the drive a homunculi being - a feature criticised as simply moving the fundamental problem behind this "small man" and his desires.

Drive reduction theory cannot be a complete theory of behaviour, or a hungry human could not prepare a meal without eating the food before he finished cooking it. The ability of drive theory to cope with all kinds of behaviour, from not satisfying a drive (by adding on other traits such as restraint), or adding additional drives for "tasty" food, which combine with drives for food in order to explain cooking render it hard to test.

Cognitive dissonance theory. Suggested by Leon Festinger, cognitive dissonance occurs when an individual experiences some degree of discomfort resulting from an inconsistency between two cognitions: their views on the world around them, and their own personal feelings and actions. For example, a consumer may seek to reassure themselves regarding a purchase, feeling in retrospect that another decision may have been preferable. Their feeling that another purchase would have been preferable is inconsistent with their action of purchasing the item. The difference between their feelings and beliefs causes dissonance, so they seek to reassure themselves.


http://www.famouspsychologists.org/leon-festinger/
While not a theory of motivation, per se, the theory of cognitive dissonance proposes that people have a motivational drive to reduce dissonance. The cognitive miser perspective makes people want to justify things in a simple way in order to reduce the effort they put into cognition. They do this by changing their attitudes, beliefs, or actions, rather than facing the inconsistencies, because dissonance is a mental strain. Dissonance is also reduced by justifying, blaming, and denying. It is one of the most influential and extensively studied theories in social psychology.

**Motivation**, as defined by Pritchard and Ashwood, is the process used to allocate energy to maximise the satisfaction of needs\(^4^2\).

**Maslow's hierarchy of needs**\(^4^3\). Content theory of human motivation includes both Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs and Herzberg's two-factor theory. Maslow's
The American motivation psychologist Abraham H. Maslow developed the hierarchy of needs consisting of five hierarchic classes. According to Maslow, people are motivated by unsatisfied needs. The needs, listed from basic (lowest-earliest) to most complex (highest/latest) are as follows:

- Physiology (hunger, thirst, sleep, etc.).
- Safety/ Security/ Shelter/ Health.
- Belonging/ Love/ Friendship.
- Self-esteem/ Recognition/ Achievement.
- Self actualisation.

The basic requirements build upon the first step in the pyramid: physiology. If there are deficits on this level, all behaviour will be oriented to satisfy this deficit.Essentially, if you have not slept or eaten adequately, you won't be interested in your self-esteem desires. Subsequently we have the second level, which awakens a need for security. After securing those two levels, the motives shift to the social sphere, the third level. Psychological requirements comprise the fourth level, while the top of the hierarchy consists of self-realisation and self-actualisation.
Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs theory can be summarised as follows:

- Human beings have wants and desires which influence their behaviour. Only unsatisfied needs influence behaviour, satisfied needs do not.

- Needs are arranged in order of importance to human life, from the basic to the complex.

- The person advances to the next level of needs only after the lower level need is at least minimally satisfied.

- The further the progress up the hierarchy, the more individuality, humanness and psychological health a person will show.

Herzberg's two-factor theory. Frederick Herzberg's two-factor theory, viz intrinsic/extrinsic motivation, concludes that certain factors in the workplace result in job satisfaction, but if absent, they don't lead to dissatisfaction but no satisfaction. The factors that motivate people can change over their lifetime, but "respect for me as a person" is one of the top motivating factors at any stage of life.

He distinguished between:

- Motivators; (e.g. challenging work, recognition, responsibility) which give positive satisfaction, and

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• Hygiene factors; (e.g. status, job security, salary and fringe benefits) that do not motivate if present, but, if absent, result in demotivation.

The name hygiene factor is used because, like hygiene, the presence will not improve health, but absence can cause health deterioration. Herzberg's theory has found application in such occupational fields as information systems and in studies of user satisfaction such as computer user satisfaction.

Alderfer's ERG theory\textsuperscript{45}. Alderfer, expanding on Maslow's hierarchy of needs, created the ERG theory. This theory posits that there are three groups of core needs –

• Existence,
• Relatedness, and
• Growth, hence the label: ERG theory.

The existence group is concerned with providing our basic material existence requirements. They include the items that Maslow considered to be physiological and safety needs. The second group of needs is those of relatedness- the desire we have for maintaining important personal relationships. These social and status desires require interaction with others if they are to be satisfied, and they align with Maslow's social need and the external component of Maslow's esteem classification. Finally, Alderfer isolates growth needs as an intrinsic desire

\textsuperscript{45} Alderfer, C. P., Existence, Relatedness, and Growth; Human Needs in Organizational Settings, New York: Free Press, 1972
for personal development. These include the intrinsic component from Maslow's esteem category and the characteristics included under self-actualisation.

**Self-determination theory**\(^{46}\). Since the early seventies Edward L. Deci and Richard M. Ryan have conducted research that eventually led to the proposition of the Self-Determination Theory (SDT). This theory focuses on the degree to which an individual's behaviour is self-motivated and self-determined. SDT identifies three innate needs that, if satisfied, allow optimal function and growth \(^{47}\): competence \(^{48}\), relatedness \(^{49}\) and autonomy \(^{50}\). These three psychological needs motivate the self to initiate specific behaviour and mental nutriments that are essential for psychological health and well-being. When these needs are satisfied, there are positive consequences, such as well-being and growth, leading people to be motivated, productive and happy. When they are thwarted, people's motivation, productivity and happiness plummet \(^{51}\).

There are three essential elements to the theory: \(^{52}\)

- Humans are inherently proactive with their potential and mastering their inner forces (such as drive and emotions).
- Humans have an inherent tendency towards growth, development and integrated functioning.
- Optimal development and actions are inherent in humans but they do not happen automatically.

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Temporal motivation theory. The latest approach in developing a broad, integrative theory of motivation is Temporal Motivation Theory. Introduced in a 2006 Academy of Management Review article, it synthesises into a single formulation the primary aspects of several other major motivational theories, including Incentive Theory, Drive Theory, Need Theory, Self-Efficacy and Goal Setting. It simplifies the field of motivation and allows findings from one theory to be translated into terms of another. Another journal article that helped to develop the Temporal Motivation Theory, "The Nature of Procrastination," received American Psychological Association's George A. Miller award for outstanding contribution to general science.

Achievement motivation. Achievement motivation is an integrative perspective based on the premise that performance motivation results from the way broad components of personality are directed towards performance. As a result, it includes a range of dimensions that are relevant to success at work but which are not conventionally regarded as being part of performance motivation. The emphasis on performance seeks to integrate formerly separate approaches as need for achievement with, for example, social motives like dominance. Personality is intimately tied to performance and achievement motivation, including such characteristics as tolerance for risk, fear of failure, and others.

Achievement motivation can be measured by The Achievement Motivation Inventory, which is based on this theory and assesses three factors (in 17 separated scales) relevant to vocational and professional success. This motivation has repeatedly been linked with

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57 Atkinson, John; George H. Litwin (1960). Achievement Motive and Text Anxiety Conceived as Motive to Approach Success and Motive to Avoid Failure. Bobbs-Merrill Company.
adaptive motivational patterns, including working hard, a willingness to pick learning tasks with much difficulty, and contributing success to effort.\textsuperscript{62}

Achievement motivation was studied intensively by David C. McClelland, John W. Atkinson and their colleagues since the early 1950s.\textsuperscript{63} Their research showed that business managers who were successful demonstrated a high need to achieve no matter the culture. Here are three major characteristics of people who have a great need to achieve according to McClelland's research.

- They would prefer a work environment in which they are able to assume responsibility for solving problems.
- They would take calculated risk and establish moderate, attainable goals.
- They want to hear continuous recognition, as well as feedback, in order for them to know how well they are doing.\textsuperscript{64}

Cognitive theories

**Goal-setting theory**\textsuperscript{65}. Goal-setting theory is based on the notion that individuals sometimes have a drive to reach a clearly defined end state. Often, this end state is a reward in itself. A goal's efficiency is affected by three features:

- Proximity,
- Difficulty and
- Specificity.

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Good goal setting incorporates the SMART criteria, in which goals are:

- Specific,
- Measurable,
- Accurate,
- Realistic, and
- Timely.

An ideal goal should present a situation where the time between the initiation of behaviour and the end state is close. This explains why some children are more motivated to learn how to ride a bike than to master algebra. A goal should be moderate, not too hard or too easy to complete. In both cases, most people are not optimally motivated, as many want a challenge which assumes some kind of insecurity of success). At the same time people want to feel that there is a substantial probability that they will succeed. Specificity concerns the description of the goal in their class. The goal should be objectively defined and intelligible for the individual. A classic example of a poorly specified goal is to get the highest possible grade. Most children have no idea how much effort they need to reach that goal.

Models of behaviour change. Social-cognitive models of behaviour change include the constructs of motivation and volition. Motivation is seen as a process that leads to the forming of behavioural intentions. Volition is seen as a process that leads from intention to actual behaviour. In other words, motivation and volition refer to goal setting and goal pursuit, respectively. Both processes require self-regulatory efforts. Several self-regulatory constructs are needed to operate in orchestration to attain goals. An example of such a
motivational and volitional construct is perceived self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is supposed to facilitate the forming of behavioural intentions, the development of action plans, and the initiation of action. It can support the translation of intentions into action.

John W. Atkinson, David Birch and their colleagues developed the theory of "Dynamics of Action"\(^{66}\) to mathematically model change in behaviour as a consequence of the interaction of motivation and associated tendencies toward specific actions\(^{67}\). The theory posits that change in behaviour occurs when the tendency for a new, unexpressed behaviour becomes dominant over the tendency currently motivating action. In the theory, the strength of tendencies rises and falls as a consequence of internal and external stimuli (sources of instigation), inhibitory factors, and consummatory in factors such as performing an action. In this theory, there are three causes responsible for behaviour and change in behaviour:

- **Instigation (T\(_S\))** - increases tendency when an activity has intrinsic ability to satisfy;
- **Inhibition (T\(_A\))** - decreases tendency when there are obstacles to performing an activity\(^{68}\); and
- **Consummation** - decreases a tendency as it is performed\(^{69}\).

**Conscious motivation.** This is a kind of motivation in which people are aware of having the desire to engage in an activity and being aware of the desire.\(^{70}\)

**Unconscious motivation.** Some psychologists believe that a significant portion of human behaviour is energised and directed by unconscious motives. According to Maslow, "Psychoanalysis has often demonstrated that the relationship between a conscious desire and the ultimate unconscious aim that underlies it need not be at all direct."

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Thematic Appreception Test. Psychologists David C. McClelland and John W. Atkinson argued that motivation should be unconscious. They refined measures of motivation by means of content analysis of imaginative thought using, for example, the Thematic Apperception Test.\textsuperscript{71}

Intrinsic motivation and the 16 basic desires theory. Starting from studies involving more than 6,000 people, Professor Steven Reiss has proposed a theory that found 16 basic desires that guide nearly all human behaviour.\textsuperscript{72} The 16 basic desires that motivate our actions and define our personalities are:

- Acceptance, the need for approval.
- Curiosity, the need to learn.
- Eating, the need for food.
- Family, the need to raise children.
- Honor, the need to be loyal to the traditional values of one's clan/ethnic group.
- Idealism, the need for social justice.
- Independence, the need for individuality.
- Order, the need for organised, stable, predictable environments.
- Physical activity, the need for exercise.
- Power, the need for influence of will.
- Romance, the need for sex and for beauty.
- Saving, the need to collect.
- Social contact, the need for friends (peer relationships).
- Social status, the need for social standing/importance.
- Tranquility, the need to be safe.
- Vengeance, the need to strike back and to compete.

\textsuperscript{73} Reiss, Steven (March 5, 2002). Who am I? The 16 Basic Desires that Motivate Our Actions and Define Our Personalities. Berkley Trade. ISBN 978-0425183403.
Attribution theory. The attribution theory is a theory developed by psychologist, Fritz Heider that describes the processes by which individuals explain the causes of their behaviour and events. A form of attribution theory developed by psychologist, Bernard Weiner describes an individual’s beliefs about how the causes of success or failure affect their emotions and motivations. Bernard Weiner’s theory can be defined into two perspectives: intrapersonal or interpersonal. The intrapersonal perspective includes self-directed thoughts and emotions that are attributed to the self. The interpersonal perspective includes beliefs about the responsibility of others and other directed affects of emotions; the individual would place the blame on another individual.

Individuals formulate explanatory attributions to understand the events they experience and to seek reasons for their failures. When individuals seek positive feedback from their failures, they use the feedback as motivation to show improved performances. For example, using the intrapersonal perspective, a student who failed a test may attribute their failure for not studying enough and would use their emotion of shame or embarrassment as motivation to study harder for the next test. A student who blames their test failure on the teacher would be using the interpersonal perspective, and would use their feeling of disappointment as motivation to rely on a different study source other than the teacher for the next test.

Approach versus avoidance. Approach motivation is a motivation to experience a positive outcome. In contrast, avoidance motivation is a motivation not to experience a negative outcome. Research suggests that, all else being equal, avoidance motivations tend to be more powerful than approach motivations. Because people expect losses to have more powerful emotional consequences than equal-size gains, they will take more risks to avoid a loss than to achieve a gain.

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Practical Applications. The control of motivation is only understood to a limited extent. There are many different approaches of motivation training, but many of these are considered pseudoscientific by critics. To understand how to control motivation it is first necessary to understand why many people lack motivation.

Employee motivation. Workers in any organisation need something to keep them working. Most of the time, the salary of the employee is enough to keep him or her working for an organisation. An employee must be motivated to work for a company or organisation. If no motivation is present in an employee, then that employee’s quality of work or all work in general will deteriorate. People differ on a personality dimension called locus of control. This variable refers to individual's beliefs about the location of the factors that control their behaviour. At one end of the continuum are high internals who believe that opportunity to control their own behaviour rests within themselves. At the other end of the continuum there are high externals who believe that external forces determine their behaviour. Not surprisingly, compared with internals, externals see the world as an unpredictable, chancy place in which luck, fate, or powerful people control their destinies. When motivating an audience, you can use general motivational strategies or specific motivational appeals. General motivational strategies include soft sell versus hard sell and personality type. Soft sell strategies have logical appeals, emotional appeals, advice and praise. Hard sell strategies have barter, outnumbering, pressure and rank. Also, you can consider basing your strategy on your audience personality. Specific motivational appeals focus on provable facts, feelings, right and wrong, audience rewards and audience threats.

Job Characteristics Model. The Job Characteristics Model (JCM), as designed by Hackman and Oldham attempts to use job design to improve employee motivation. They show that any job can be described in terms of five key job characteristics.

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76 Rotter, J.B. (1966). Generalised expectancies for internal versus external controls of reinforcement. Psychological Monographs, 80 (Whole no. 609)
• **Skill Variety** - The degree to which the job requires the use of different skills and talents.

• **Task Identity** - The degree to which the job has contributed to a clearly identifiable larger project.

• **Task Significance** - The degree to which the job has an impact on the lives or work of other people.

• **Autonomy** - The degree to which the employee has independence, freedom and discretion in carrying out the job.

• **Task Feedback** - the degree to which the employee is provided with clear, specific, detailed, actionable information about the effectiveness of his or her job performance.

The JCM links the core job dimensions listed above to critical psychological states which results in desired personal and work outcomes. This forms the basis of this 'employee growth-need strength." The core dimensions listed above can be combined into a single predictive index, called the *Motivating Potential Score*.

**Motivating potential score.** The motivating potential score (MPS) can be calculated, using the core dimensions discussed above, as follows:

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MPS = \frac{\text{Skill Variety} + \text{Task Identity} + \text{Task Significance}}{3} \times \text{Autonomy} \times \text{Feedback}
\]

Jobs that are high in motivating potential must be high on at least one of the three factors that lead to experienced meaningfulness, and also must be high on both Autonomy and Feedback. If a job has a high MPS, the job characteristics model predicts that motivation,

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performance and job satisfaction will be positively affected and the likelihood of negative outcomes, such as absenteeism and turnover, will be reduced.\textsuperscript{57}

**Employee recognition programs.** Employee recognition is not only about gifts and points. It's about changing the corporate culture in order to meet goals and initiatives and most importantly to connect employees to the company's core values and beliefs. Strategic employee recognition is seen as the most important program not only to improve employee retention and motivation but also to positively influence the financial situation.\textsuperscript{81} The difference between the traditional approach (gifts and points) and strategic recognition is the ability to serve as a serious business influencer that can advance a company's strategic objectives in a measurable way. "The vast majority of companies want to be innovative, coming up with new products, business models and better ways of doing things. However, innovation is not so easy to achieve. A CEO cannot just order it, and so it will be. You have to carefully manage an organisation so that, over time, innovations will emerge."

Generally, motivation is conceptualised as either *intrinsic* or *extrinsic*. Classically, these categories are regarded as distinct.\textsuperscript{83} Today, these concepts are less likely to be used as distinct categories, but instead as two ideal types that define a continuum.\textsuperscript{84}

- **Intrinsic motivation** occurs when people are internally motivated to do something because it either brings them pleasure, they think it is important, or they feel that what they are learning is significant. It has been shown that intrinsic motivation for education drops from grades 3-9 though the exact cause cannot be ascertained.\textsuperscript{85} Also, in younger students it has been shown that contextualising

\textsuperscript{81}How Employee Recognition Programmes Improve Retention CFO Insight Magazine, January 2013

\textsuperscript{82}Five mistaken beliefs business leaders have about innovation by FreekVermeulen in Forbes, May 2011

\textsuperscript{83}Alexander, P., Ryan, R., &Deci, E. (January 01, 2000). Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations: Classic Definitions and New Directions. Contemporary Educational Psychology, 25, 1

\textsuperscript{84}Vallerand, R. J. (March 08, 1993). The Academic Motivation Scale: A Measure of Intrinsic, Extrinsic, and Amotivation in Education. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 52

\textsuperscript{85}Susan Harter (1981), A New Self-Report Scale of Intrinsic versus Extrinsic Orientation in the Classroom: Motivational and Informational Components
material that would otherwise be presented in an abstract manner increases the intrinsic motivation of these students.\textsuperscript{86}

- **Extrinsic motivation** comes into play when a student is compelled to do something or act a certain way because of factors external to him or her (like money or good grades).

Academic motivation orientation may also be tied with one's ability to detect and process errors. Fisher, Nanayakkara, and Marshall conducted neuroscience research on children's motivation orientation, neurological indicators of error monitoring (the process of detecting an error), and academic achievement. Their research suggests that students with high intrinsic motivation attribute performance to personal control and that their error-monitoring system is more strongly engaged by performance errors. They also found that motivation orientation and academic achievement were related to the strength in which their error-monitoring system was engaged.\textsuperscript{87}

Motivation has been found to be an important element in the concept of Andragogy (what motivates the adult learner), and in treating Autism Spectrum Disorders, as in Pivotal Response Therapy.

Doyle and Moeyn have noted that traditional methods tended to use anxiety as negative motivation (e.g. use of bad grades by teachers) as a method of getting students to work. However, they have found that progressive approaches with focus on positive motivation over punishment has produced greater effectiveness with learning, since anxiety interferes with performance of complex tasks.\textsuperscript{88}


Indigenous education and learning. For many indigenous students (such as Native American children), motivation may be derived from social organisation; an important factor educators should account for in addition to variations in Sociolinguistics and Cognition. While poor academic performance among Native American students is often attributed to low levels of motivation, Top-down classroom organisation is often found to be ineffective for children of many cultures, who depend on a sense of community purpose and competence to effectively engage in material. Horizontally-structured, community-based learning strategies often provide a more structurally supportive environment for motivating indigenous children, who tend to be driven by "social/affective emphasis, harmony, holistic perspectives, expressive creativity, and nonverbal communication." This drive is also traceable to a cultural tradition of community-wide expectations of participation in the activities and goals of the greater group, rather than individualised aspirations of success or triumph.

Structure for social learning in indigenous communities also often allows siblings to co-parent younger children in their acquisition of behaviours and traditions, which fosters the dynamic of community-motivated engagement from a young age. Furthermore, it is commonplace for children to assist and demonstrate for their younger counterparts without being prompted by authority figures. Observation techniques are demonstrated in such examples as weaving in Chiapas, Mexico, where it is commonplace for children to learn by "a more skilled other" within the community. The assumption of responsibility amongst children is also apparent within Mayan weaving apprenticeships; often, when the "more skilled other" is tasked with multiple obligations, an older child will step in and guide the learner. Sibling guidance is supported from early youth, where learning through play encourages horizontally-structured environments through alternative educational

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models such as "Intent Community Participation." Research also suggests that that formal Westernised schooling can actually reshape the traditionally collaborative nature of social life in indigenous communities. This research is supported cross-culturally, with variations in motivation and learning often reported higher between indigenous groups and their national Westernised counterparts than between indigenous groups across international continental divides.

**Self-determination.** Self-determination is the ability to make choices and exercise a high degree of control, such as what the student does and how they do it (Deci et al., 1991; Reeve, Hamm, & Nix, 2003; Ryan &Deci, 2002). Self-determination can be supported by providing opportunities for students to be challenged, such as leadership opportunities, providing appropriate feedback and fostering, establishing and maintaining good relationships between teachers and students. These strategies can increase students' interest, competence, creativity and desire to be challenged and ensure that students are intrinsically motivated to study. On the other hand, students who lack of self-determination are more likely to feel their success is out of their control. Such students lose motivation to study, which causes a state of "helpless learning". Students who feel helpless readily believe they will fail and therefore cease to try. Over time, a vicious circle of low achievement develops.

**Business.** At lower levels of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, such as physiological needs, money is a motivator; however it tends to have a motivating effect on staff that lasts only for a short period (in accordance with Herzberg's two-factor model of motivation). At higher levels of the hierarchy, praise, respect, recognition, empowerment and a sense of belonging are far more powerful motivators than money, as both Abraham Maslow's theory of motivation and Douglas McGregor's theory X and theory Y(pertaining to the theory of leadership) demonstrate.

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According to Maslow, people are motivated by unsatisfied needs\(^98\). The lower level needs such as Physiological and Safety needs will have to be satisfied before higher level needs are to be addressed. We can relate Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs theory with employee motivation. For example, if a manager is trying to motivate his employees by satisfying their needs; according to Maslow, he should try to satisfy the lower level needs before he tries to satisfy the upper level needs or the employees will not be motivated. Also he has to remember that not everyone will be satisfied by the same needs. A good manager will try to figure out which levels of needs are active for a certain individual or employee.

Maslow has money at the lowest level of the hierarchy and shows other needs are better motivators to staff. McGregor places money in his Theory X category and feels it is a poor motivator. Praise and recognition are placed in the Theory Y category and are considered stronger motivators than money.

- Motivated employees always look for better ways to do a job.
- Motivated employees are more quality oriented.
- Motivated workers are more productive.

The average workplace is about midway between the extremes of high threat and high opportunity. Motivation by threat is a dead-end strategy, and naturally staff are more attracted to the opportunity side of the motivation curve than the threat side. Motivation is a powerful tool in the work environment that can lead to employees working at their most efficient levels of production\(^99\).

Nonetheless, Steinmetz also discusses three common character types of subordinates: ascendant, indifferent, and ambivalent who all react and interact uniquely, and must be treated, managed, and motivated accordingly. An effective leader must understand how to

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manage all characters, and more importantly the manager must utilise avenues that allow room for employees to work, grow, and find answers independently.\textsuperscript{100}

The assumptions of Maslow and Herzberg were challenged by a classic study\textsuperscript{101} at Vauxhall Motors' UK manufacturing plant. This introduced the concept of orientation to work and distinguished three main orientations:

- instrumental (where work is a means to an end),
- bureaucratic (where work is a source of status, security and immediate reward) and
- solidaristic (which prioritises group loyalty).

Other theories which expanded and extended those of Maslow and Herzberg included Kurt Lewin's Force Field Theory, Edwin Locke's Goal Theory and Victor Vroom's Expectancy theory. These tend to stress cultural differences and the fact that individuals tend to be motivated by different factors at different times\textsuperscript{102}.

According to the system of scientific management developed by Frederick Winslow Taylor, a worker's motivation is solely determined by pay, and therefore management need not consider psychological or social aspects of work. In essence, scientific management bases human motivation wholly on extrinsic rewards and discards the idea of intrinsic rewards.

In contrast, David McClelland believed that workers could not be motivated by the mere need for money - in fact, extrinsic motivation (e.g., money) could extinguish intrinsic motivation such as achievement motivation, though money could be used as an indicator of success for various motives, e.g., keeping score. In keeping with this view, his consulting firm, McBer& Company, had as its first motto "To make everyone productive, happy, and

free." For McClelland, satisfaction lay in aligning a person's life with their fundamental motivations.

Elton Mayo found that the social contacts a worker has at the workplace are very important and that boredom and repetitiveness of tasks lead to reduced motivation. Mayo believed that workers could be motivated by acknowledging their social needs and making them feel important. As a result, employees were given freedom to make decisions on the job and greater attention was paid to informal work groups. Mayo named the model the Hawthorne effect. His model has been judged as placing undue reliance on social contacts within work situations for motivating employees.\(^{103}\)

William Ouchi introduced Theory Z, a hybrid management approach consisting of both Japanese and American philosophies and cultures. Its Japanese segment is much like the clan culture where organisations focus on a standardised structure with heavy emphasis on socialisation of its members. All underlying goals are consistent across the organisation. Its American segment retains formality and authority amongst members and the organisation. Ultimately, Theory Z promotes common structure and commitment to the organisation, as well as constant improvement of work efficacy.

In *Essentials of Organisational Behaviour*, Robbins and Judge examine recognition programs as motivators, and identify five principles that contribute to the success of an employee incentive program:\(^ {105}\)

- Recognition of employees' individual differences, and clear identification of behaviour deemed worthy of recognition.
- Allowing employees to participate.
- Linking rewards to performance.
- Rewarding of nominators.

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Visibility of the recognition process.

Games

Motivational models are central to game design, because without motivation a player will not be interested in progressing further within a game. Several models for gameplay motivations have been proposed, including Richard Bartle's. Jon Radoff has proposed a four-quadrant model of gameplay motivation that includes cooperation, competition, immersion and achievement. The motivational structure of games is central to the gamification trend, which seeks to apply game-based motivation to business applications.

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108 Popkin, Helen (June 1, 2010). "FarmVille invades the real world". MSNBC.