

Motivation

OBJECTIVES:

After studying this lesson, you will be able to:

- explain the meaning of motivation;
- describe the types of motives;
- differentiate between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation;
- describe self-efficacy, life goals and values as motivators; and
- describe conflict and frustration

MEANING OF MOTIVATION:

Motivation is one of the most frequently used words in psychology. It refers to the factors which move or activate the organism. We infer the presence of motivation when we see that people work toward certain goals. For example, we might observe that a student works hard at almost every task that comes to him/her; from this we infer that the person has motive to achieve.

All human behavior appears to arise in response to some form of internal (physiological) or external (environmental) stimulation. The behaviours, however, are not random. They often involve some purpose or goal. It is often held that behaviours take place as a result of the arousal of certain motives. Thus motivation can be defined as the process of activating, maintaining and directing behaviour towards a particular goal. The process is usually terminated once the desired goal is attained by the person.

- The process of initiating action is technically called 'motivation'.

Directing behaviour towards certain goal is the essence of motivation

.Motivation is not always directly observable. It is inferred and used to explain behaviour.

-Motives also help us make predictions about behaviour.

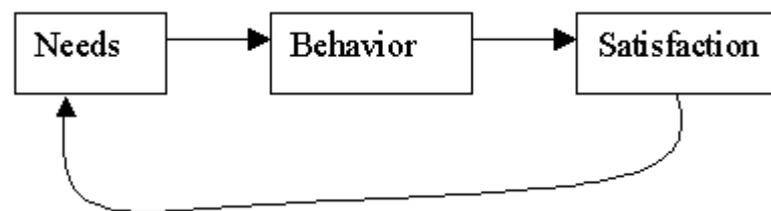
Theories of Motivation

Overview

At a simple level, it seems obvious that people do things, such as go to work, in order to get stuff they want and to avoid stuff they don't want.

Why exactly they want what they do and don't want what they don't is still something a mystery. It's a black box and it hasn't been fully penetrated.

Overall, the basic perspective on motivation looks something like this:



In other words, you have certain needs or wants (these terms will be used interchangeably), and this causes you to do certain things (behavior), which satisfy those needs (satisfaction), and this can then change which needs/wants are primary (either intensifying certain ones, or allowing you to move on to other ones).

A variation on this model, particularly appropriate from an experimenter's or manager's point of view, would be to add a box labeled "reward" between "behavior" and "satisfaction". So that subjects (or employees), who have certain needs do certain things (behavior), which then get them rewards set up by the experimenter or manager (such as raises or bonuses), which satisfy the needs, and so on.

Classifying Needs

People seem to have different wants. This is fortunate, because in markets this creates the very desirable situation where, because you value stuff that I have but you don't, and I value stuff that you have that I don't, we can trade in such a way that we are both happier as a result.

But it also means we need to try to get a handle on the whole variety of needs and who has them in order to begin to understand how to design organizations that maximize productivity.

Part of what a theory of motivation tries to do is explain and predict who has which wants. This turns out to be exceedingly difficult.

Many theories posit a hierarchy of needs, in which the needs at the bottom are the most urgent and need to be satisfied before attention can be paid to the others.

Theories of Motivation

5 Psychological Theories of Motivation to Increase Productivity

Dozens of theories of motivation have been proposed over the years. Here are 5 popular theories of motivation that can help you increase workplace productivity...

1. Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory:

The Two-Factor Theory of motivation (otherwise known as dual-factor theory or motivation-hygiene theory) was developed by psychologist Frederick Herzberg in the 1950s.

Analyzing the responses of 200 accountants and engineers who were asked about their positive and negative feelings about their work, Herzberg found 2 factors that influence employee motivation and satisfaction...

- 1. Motivator factors** – Simply put, these are factors that lead to satisfaction and motivate employees to work harder. Examples might include enjoying your work, feeling recognised and career progression.
- 2. Hygiene factors** – These factors can lead to dissatisfaction and a lack of motivation if they are absent. Examples include salary, company policies, benefits, relationships with managers and co-workers.

According to Herzberg's findings, while motivator and hygiene factors both influenced motivation, they appeared to work completely independently of each other...

While motivator factors increased employee satisfaction and motivation, the absence of these factors didn't necessarily cause dissatisfaction. Likewise, the presence of hygiene factors didn't appear to increase satisfaction and motivation but their absence caused an increase in dissatisfaction.

2. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

The Hierarchy of Needs theory was coined by psychologist Abraham Maslow in his 1943 paper "A Theory of Human Motivation".

The crux of the theory is that individuals' most basic needs must be met before they become motivated to achieve higher level needs.

The hierarchy is made up of 5 levels:

1. **Physiological** – these needs must be met in order for a person to survive, such as food, water and shelter.
2. **Safety** – including personal and financial security and health and wellbeing.
3. **Love/belonging** – the need for friendships, relationships and family.
4. **Esteem** – the need to feel confident and be respected by others.
5. **Self-actualisation** – the desire to achieve everything you possibly can and become the most that you can be.

According to the hierarchy of needs, you must be in good health, safe and secure with meaningful relationships and confidence before you are able to be the most that you can be

Maslow

Need	Home	Job
self-actualization	education, religion, hobbies, personal growth	training, advancement, growth, creativity

esteem	approval of family, friends, community	recognition, high status, responsibilities
belongingness	family, friends, clubs	teams, depts, coworkers, clients, supervisors, subordinates
safety	freedom from war, poison, violence	work safety, job security, health insurance
physiological	food water sex	Heat, air, base salary

3. Hawthorne Effect:

The [Hawthorne Effect](#) was first described by Henry A. Landsberger in 1950 who noticed a tendency for some people to work harder and perform better when they were being observed by researchers.

The researchers changed a number of physical conditions over the course of the experiments including lighting, working hours and breaks. In all cases, employee productivity increased when a change was made. The researchers concluded that employees became motivated to work harder as a response to the attention being paid to them, rather than the actual physical changes themselves

4. Expectancy Theory

proposes that people will choose how to behave [Expectancy Theory](#) depending on the outcomes they expect as a result of their behaviour. In other words, we decide what to do based on what we expect the outcome to be. At work, it might be that we work longer hours because we expect a pay rise.

However, Expectancy Theory also suggests that the process by which we decide our behaviours is also influenced by how likely we perceive those rewards to be. In this instance, workers may be more likely to work

harder if they had been promised a pay rise (and thus perceived that outcome as very likely) than if they had only assumed they might get one (and perceived the outcome as possible but not likely)

Expectancy Theory is based on three elements:

1. **Expectancy** – the belief that your effort will result in your desired goal. This is based on your past experience, your self confidence and how difficult you think the goal is to achieve.
2. **Instrumentality** – the belief that you will receive a reward if you meet performance expectations.
3. **Valence** – the value you place on the reward.

Therefore, according to Expectancy Theory, people are most motivated if they believe that they will receive a desired reward if they hit an achievable target. They are least motivated if they don't want the reward or they don't believe that their efforts will result in the reward.

5. Three-Dimensional Theory of Attribution

Attribution Theory explains how we attach meaning to our own, and other people's, behaviour. There are a number of theories about attribution.

Bernard Weiner's [Three-Dimensional theory of attribution](#) assumes that people try to determine why we do what we do. According to Weiner, the reasons we attribute to our behaviour can influence how we behave in the future.

For example, a student who fails an exam could attribute their failure to a number of factors and it's this attribution that will affect their motivation in the future.

Weiner theorised that specific attributions (e.g. bad luck, not studying hard enough) were less important than the characteristics of that attribution. According to Weiner, there are three main characteristics of attributions that can affect future motivation.

1. **Stability** – how stable is the attribution? For example, if the student believes they failed the exam because they weren't smart enough, this is a stable factor. An unstable factor is less permanent, such as being ill.

According to Weiner, stable attributions for successful achievements, such as passing exams, can lead to positive expectations, and thus higher motivation, for success in the future.

However, in negative situations, such as failing the exam, stable attributions can lead to lower expectations in the future.

2. **Locus of control** – was the event caused by an internal or an external factor?

For example, if the student believes it's their own fault they failed the exam, because they are innately not smart enough (an internal cause), they may be less motivated in the future. If they believed an external factor was to blame, such as poor teaching, they may not experience such a drop in motivation.

3. **Controllability** – how controllable was the situation? If an individual believes they could have performed better, they may be less motivated to try again in the future than someone who believes they failed because of factors outside of their control.