UNIT 1 THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

(Need theories, goal setting theory, attribution theory, drive theory and socio-cultural perspective on motivation)

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit deals with theories of motivation. It discusses the need theories under which theories of Maslow, Alderfer’s ERG theory, Herzberg’s Motivation theory and McClelland’s Need for achievement, power and affiliation theories are discussed. This is followed by Goal setting theories in which the characteristics of goal setting are discussed, and the goals should be so that the individuals are motivated to reach the goal etc. Following this is the attribution theory and Hull’s Drive theory.

1.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Define motivation;
- Describe need theories;
- Explain the goal setting theories and the related factors;
- Elucidate attribution theory and indicate the importance of it; and
- Describe drive theory of Hull and the characteristic features of the same.

1.2 DEFINITION AND INTRODUCTION TO THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

The word motivation is coined from the Latin word “movere” which means to move. Motivation is defined as an internal drive that activates behaviour and gives it direction. Motivation can be broadly defined as the forces acting on or within a person that cause the arousal, direction and persistence of goal-directed, voluntary effort. The term motivation theory is concerned with the processes that describe why and how human behaviour is activated and directed. It is regarded as one of the most important areas of
The theories of motivation study in the field of organisational behaviour. There are two different categories of motivational theories such as content theories, and process theories. Motivation theory is thus concerned with the processes that explain why and how human behaviour is activated.

The content theory of motivation, also known as need theory mainly focuses on the internal factors that energise and direct human behaviour. Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, Alderfer’s ERG theory, Herzberg’s motivator-hygiene theory (Herzberg’s dual factors theory), and McClelland’s learned needs or three-needs theory are some of the major content theories.

Of the different types of content theories, the most famous content theory is Abraham Maslow’s hierarchy of human needs. Maslow introduced five levels of basic needs through his theory. Basic needs are categorised as physiological needs, safety and security needs, needs of love, needs for self esteem and need for self actualisation.

Just like Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, ERG theory explains existence, relatedness and growth needs. Through dual factors theory, Herzberg describes certain factors in the workplace which result in job satisfaction. McClelland’s learned needs or three-need theory uses projective techniques called Thematic Aptitude Test (TAT) so as to evaluate people based on three needs: power, achievement and affiliation. People with high need of power take action in a way that influences the other’s behaviour.

Another type of motivation theory is process theory. Process theories of motivation provide an opportunity to understand the thought processes that influence behaviour. The major process theories of motivation include Adam’s Equity theory, Vroom’s expectation theory, goal setting theory and reinforcement theory. Expectancy, instrumentality and valence are the key concepts explained in the expectancy theory. Goal setting theory suggests that the individuals are motivated to reach set goals. It also requires that the set goals should be specific. Reinforcement theory is concerned with controlling behaviour by manipulating its consequences.

1.3 THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

1.3.1 Need Theories

Content (need) theories of motivation focus on factors internal to the individual that energise and direct behaviour. In general, such theories regard motivation as the product of internal drives that compel an individual to act or move (hence, “motivate”) toward the satisfaction of individual needs. The content theories of motivation are based in large part on early theories of motivation that traced the paths of action backward to their perceived origin in internal drives. Major content theories of motivation are Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, Alderfer’s ERG theory, Herzberg’s motivator-hygiene theory, and McClelland’s learned needs or three-need theory.

Needs are deficiencies that energise or trigger behaviours to satisfy those needs. At some point in your life, you might have a strong need for food and shelter. At other times, your social needs may be unfulfilled. Unfulfilled needs create a tension that makes you want to find ways to reduce or satisfy those needs. The stronger your needs, the more motivated you are to satisfy them. Conversely, a satisfied need does not motivate. In this section, we will look at the four content theories of motivation that dominate organisational thinking today.
A) Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory

Abraham Maslow developed the theory of hierarchy of needs, which suggests that individual needs exist in a hierarchy consisting of physiological needs, security needs, belongingness needs, esteem needs, and self-actualisation needs. Physiological needs are the most basic needs for food, water, and other factors necessary for survival. Security needs include needs for safety in one’s physical environment, stability, and freedom from emotional distress. Belongingness needs relate to desires for friendship, love, and acceptance within a given community of individuals. Esteem needs are those associated with obtaining the respect of one’s self and others. Finally, self-actualisation needs are those corresponding to the achievement one’s own potential, the exercising and testing of one’s creative capacities, and, in general, to becoming the best person one can possibly be. Unsatisfied needs motivate behaviour; thus, lower-level needs such as the physiological and security needs must be met before upper-level needs such as belongingness, esteem, and self-actualisation can be motivational.

This theory condenses the numerous needs that scholars have identified into a hierarchy of five basic categories. At the bottom are physiological needs, which include the need to satisfy biological requirements for food, air, water, and shelter. Next come safety needs – the need for a secure and stable environment and the absence of pain, threat, or illness. Belongingness includes the need for love, affection, and interaction with other people. Esteem includes self-esteem through personal achievement as well as social esteem through recognition and respect from others. At the top of the hierarchy is self-actualisation, which represents the need for self-fulfillment – a sense that the person’s potential has been realised.

Maslow recognised that an employee’s behaviour is motivated simultaneously by several need levels, but behaviour is motivated mostly by the lowest unsatisfied need at the time. As the person satisfies a lower-level need, the next higher need in the hierarchy becomes the primary motivator. This concept is known as the satisfaction-progression process. Even if a person is unable to satisfy a higher need, he or she will be motivated by it until it is eventually satisfied. Physiological needs are initially the most important, and people are motivated to satisfy them first. As they become gratified, safety needs emerge as the strongest motivator. As safety needs are satisfied, belongingness needs become most important, and so forth. The exception to the satisfaction-progression process is self-actualisation; as people experience self-actualisation, they desire more rather than less of this need.

Although Maslow’s needs hierarchy is one of the best-known organisational behaviour theories, the model is much too rigid to explain the dynamic and unstable characteristics of employee needs. Researchers have found that individual needs do not cluster neatly around the five categories described in the model. Moreover, gratification of one need level does not necessarily lead to increased motivation to satisfy the next higher need level. Although Maslow’s model may not predict employee needs as well as scholars initially expected, it provides an important introduction to employee needs and has laid the foundation for Alderfer’s ERG theory, which has better research support.

Applications of the hierarchy of needs to management and the workplace are obvious. According to the implications of the hierarchy, individuals must have their lower level needs met by, for example, safe working conditions, adequate pay to take care of one’s self and one’s family, and job security before they will be motivated by increased job responsibilities, status, and challenging work assignments. Despite the ease of application of this theory to a work setting, this theory has received little research support and therefore is not very useful in practice.
Maslow’s hierarchy of needs is most often displayed as a pyramid. The lowest levels of the pyramid are made up of the most basic needs, while the more complex needs are located at the top of the pyramid. Needs at the bottom of the pyramid are basic physical requirements including the need for food, water, sleep and warmth. Once these lower-level needs have been met, people can move on to the next level of needs, which are for safety and security.

As people progress up the pyramid, needs become increasingly psychological and social. Soon, the need for love, friendship and intimacy become important. Further up the pyramid, the need for personal esteem and feelings of accomplishment take priority. Like Carl Rogers, Maslow emphasised the importance of self-actualisation, which is a process of growing and developing as a person to achieve individual potential.

**Types of Needs**

Maslow believed that these needs are similar to instincts and play a major role in motivating behaviour. Physiological, security, social, and esteem needs are deficiency needs (also known as D-needs), meaning that these needs arise due to deprivation. Satisfying these lower-level needs is important in order to avoid unpleasant feelings or consequences.

Maslow termed the highest-level of the pyramid as growth needs (also known as being needs or B-needs). Growth needs do not stem from a lack of something, but rather from a desire to grow as a person.

**Five Levels of the Hierarchy of Needs**

There are five different levels in Maslow’s hierarchy of needs:

i) **Physiological Needs**: These include the most basic needs that are vital to survival, such as the need for water, air, food and sleep. Maslow believed that these needs are the most basic and instinctive needs in the hierarchy because all needs become secondary until these physiological needs are met.

ii) **Security Needs**: These include needs for safety and security. Security needs are important for survival, but they are not as demanding as the physiological needs. Examples of security needs include a desire for steady employment, health insurance, safe neighbourhoods and shelter from the environment.

iii) **Social Needs**: These include needs for belonging, love and affection. Maslow considered these needs to be less basic than physiological and security needs. Relationships such as friendships, romantic attachments and families help fulfill this need for companionship and acceptance, as does involvement in social, community or religious groups.

iv) **Esteem Needs**: After the first three needs have been satisfied, esteem needs becomes increasingly important. These include the need for things that reflect on self-esteem, personal worth, social recognition and accomplishment.

v) **Self-actualising Needs**: This is the highest level of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs. Self-actualising people are self-aware, concerned with personal growth, less concerned with the opinions of others and interested fulfilling their potential.

**B) Alderfer’s ERG needs theory**

In 1969, Clayton Alderfer’s revision of Abraham Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs, called the **ERG Theory**. Alderfer’s contribution to organisational behaviour was dubbed the
ERG theory (Existence, Relatedness, and Growth), and was created to align Maslow’s motivation theory more closely with empirical research.

**Clayton Alderfer’s ERG Theory**

![ERG Theory Diagram](image)

ERG Theory is similar to the famous Maslow’s Hierarch of Needs. Existence, or physiological, needs are at the base. These include the needs for things such as food, drink, shelter, and safety. Next come relatedness needs, the need to feel connected to other individuals or a group. These needs are fulfilled by establishing and maintaining relationships.

Similarities include reducing Maslow to three needs since some overlap. Thus ERG is the three.

The differences include allowing different levels of needs to be pursued simultaneously. Also, it allows for the order to be different for different people. The theory acknowledges that if higher levels remain unfulfilled, there may be a regression to lower level needs in what is known as frustration-regression principle.

At the top of the hierarchy are Growth needs, the needs for personal achievement and self-actualisation. If a person is continually frustrated in trying to satisfy growth needs, relatedness needs will remerge. This phenomenon is known as the frustration-regression process.

The ERG categories of human needs are:

**Existence Needs**: physiological and safety needs (such as hunger, thirst and sex).

**Relatedness Needs**: social and external esteem (involvement with family, friends, co-workers and employers).

**Growth Needs**: internal esteem and self-actualisation (the desire to be creative, productive and to complete meaningful tasks).

- The ERG theory allows for different levels of needs to be pursued simultaneously.
- The ERG theory allows the order of the needs be different for different people.
- The ERG theory acknowledges that if a higher level need remains unfulfilled, the person may regress to lower level needs that appear easier to satisfy. This is known as the frustration-regression principle.

Thus, while the ERG theory presents a model of progressive needs, the hierarchical aspect is not rigid. This flexibility allows the ERG theory to account for a wider range of observed behaviours. For example, it can explain the “starving artist” who may place growth needs above existence ones.

**Implications of ERG Theory for Management**

If the ERG theory holds, then, managers must recognise that an employee has multiple needs to satisfy simultaneously. Furthermore, if growth opportunities are not provided
to employees, they may regress to relatedness needs. If the manager is able to recognise this situation, then steps can be taken to concentrate on relatedness needs until the subordinate is able to pursue growth again.

C) Herzberg’s Motivator-Hygiene Theory

Herzberg felt that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction do not exist on the same continuum, but on dual scales. In other words, certain things, which Herzberg called hygiene factors, could cause a person to become unhappy with their job. These things, including pay, job security, and physical work environment, could never bring about job satisfaction.

Motivating factors, on the other hand, can increase job satisfaction. Giving employees things such as a sense of recognition, responsibility, or achievement can bring satisfaction about.

Frederick Herzberg explored the question “What do people want from their jobs”. He did this through asking various people about situations and events at work, when they felt exceptionally good or bad about their jobs.

Herzberg’s collection of information revealed that intrinsic factors are related to job satisfaction, whilst extrinsic factors created job dissatisfaction. In other words when people felt satisfied and happy at work the conditions present were directly affecting their inner feelings and self esteem. Yet dissatisfaction was created by the job environment people worked in and the interactions within that environment. This distinction is clearly illustrated in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivation creating job satisfaction</th>
<th>Hygiene factors creating job dissatisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>Supervision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition</td>
<td>Company policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work itself</td>
<td>Relationship with supervisor</td>
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<tr>
<td>Responsibility</td>
<td>Working conditions</td>
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<tr>
<td>Advancement</td>
<td>Salary</td>
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<tr>
<td>Growth</td>
<td>Relationship with peers</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Relationship with subordinates</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Status</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Security</td>
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As job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are controlled by different factors Herzberg concluded that job satisfaction was not the opposite of job dissatisfaction. In contrast to the accepted theories at the time, Herzberg believed that job satisfaction was a distinct and separate entity from job dissatisfaction.

In other words the complete removal of job dissatisfaction will not cause an employee to feel job satisfaction. Similarly job satisfaction does not necessarily eradicate all elements of job dissatisfaction. Herzberg therefore decided that the opposite of job dissatisfaction was simply a work environment containing “no dissatisfaction” and the opposite of job satisfaction was an employee feeling “no satisfaction”.

As extrinsic factors do not motivate employees Herzberg referred to these as Hygiene factors and intrinsic factors were called motivators for obvious reasons. From the 1960s to the 1980’s Herzberg’s theory of motivators and hygiene factors was widely popular.
After that other studies labelled it as simplistic but its principles can still be found within other motivation theories.

**D) McClelland’s Theory of Need**

David McClelland proposed that an individual’s specific needs are acquired over time and are shaped by one’s life experiences. Most of these needs can be classed as achievement, affiliation, or power. A person’s motivation and effectiveness in certain job functions are influenced by these three needs. McClelland’s theory sometimes is referred to as the three need theory or as the learned needs theory.

McClelland used projective technique called the Thematic Aptitude Test (TAT) to measure people in three dimensions: the need for power, achievement, and affiliation. Individuals with a high need for power take actions that affect other peoples’ behaviour and arouse strong emotions in them. The need for power can be revealed in socially acceptable ways (demonstrating a socialised power orientation) or in selfish, inconsiderate ways (a personalised power orientation.)

Those with strong need for achievement enjoy competition against some standard and unique accomplishment. High achievers like tasks that are neither simple (which anyone could do) or extremely difficult (where the chance of success has more to do with luck than ability), but that challenge them to do their best.

People with a strong need for affiliation are particularly concerned with being liked and accepted. These individuals tend to establish, maintain, and restore closer personal relationships with others.

**Need for Achievement**

People with a high need for achievement (nAch) seek to excel and thus tend to avoid both low-risk and high-risk situations. Achievers avoid low-risk situations because the easily attained success is not a genuine achievement. In high-risk projects, achievers see the outcome as one of chance rather than one’s own effort. High nAch individuals prefer work that has a moderate probability of success, ideally a 50% chance. Achievers need regular feedback in order to monitor the progress of their achievements. They prefer either to work alone or with other high achievers.

**Need for Affiliation**

Those with a high need for affiliation (nAff) need harmonious relationships with other people and need to feel accepted by other people. They tend to conform to the norms of their work group. High nAff individuals prefer work that provides significant personal interaction. They perform well in customer service and client interaction situations.

**Need for Power**

A person’s need for power (nPow) can be one of two types - personal and institutional. Those who need personal power want to direct others, and this need often is perceived as undesirable. Persons who need institutional power (also known as social power) want to organise the efforts of others to further the goals of the organisation. Managers with a high need for institutional power tend to be more effective than those with a high need for personal power.

**Assessment of Needs: Thematic Apperception Test**

McClelland used the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) as a tool to measure the individual needs of different people. The TAT is a test of imagination that presents the subject with a series of ambiguous pictures, and the subject is asked to develop a
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Psychologists have developed fairly reliable scoring techniques for the Thematic Apperception Test. The test determines the individual’s score for each of the needs of achievement, affiliation, and power. This score can be used to suggest the types of jobs for which the person might be well suited.

Implications for Management

People with different needs are motivated differently.

**High need for achievement** – High achievers should be given challenging projects with reachable goals. They should be provided frequent feedback. While money is not an important motivator, it is an effective form of feedback.

**High need for affiliation** – Employees with a high affiliation need perform best in a cooperative environment.

**High need for power** – Management should provide power seekers the opportunity to manage others.

### Self Assessment Questions

1) Fill in the blanks:
   a) _______________ needs include the need to satisfy biological requirement.
   b) The need for a secure and stable environment is called ______________ needs.
   c) The need for self fulfillment was called ___________________________.
   d) The ERG theory allows the order of the ______________ be different for different people.
   e) Giving employees things such as sense of recognition, responsibility or achievement can bring ______________ about.

2) Answer the following statements with True (T) or False (F):
   a) The ERG theory allows for different levels of needs to be pursued simultaneously.
   b) Herzeberg felt that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction exist on the same continuum.
   c) McClelland used projective test, TAT.
   d) Social needs include the need for safety.
   e) People with a strong need for affiliation are particularly concerned with being liked and accepted.

### 1.3.2 Goal Setting Theories

Goal setting theory of motivation is a theory which states that there is an inseparable link between goal setting and task performance. It states that specific, measurable and attainable goals motivate an employee to achieve the goal, while lousy vague targets suck off enthusiasm.
Principles of Goal Setting

To prepare a delicious meal, you need to put in the right ingredients. In the same way, setting the right goals, there needs to be the right combination of certain factors. Let’s have a look at these important factors of goal setting theory in management.

Clarity

Vague, unambiguous goal spun in thin air will only build a house on the sand. Such random goals leaves lots of room for misconceptions and will never give desired results. When the manager says, ‘Do how much you can’, the employee gets a vague idea of what is expected of him and does not strive to perform better. The result is at the time of evaluation, there is a lot of confusion. The manager is not happy with the employees low performance, while the employee cannot understand why the manager is pouting. Crisp, clear, measurable, specific goals have to be set and communicated to the employee in the simplest way possible. No room for assumptions in goal setting.

Challenging goals

Besides being clear and specific, the goal set should be challenging. Easy to achieve goals fail to keep the employee excited, however, since people are often motivated by the feeling of achievement, setting challenging goals helps motivate the employee to do his best. Another factor that has to be noted here is the fact of recognition. When an employee knows his efforts will not go unnoticed, he will want to stretch himself. Financial or any other kind of remunerations will help motivate the employee to reach his goal. As the intensity of rewards increase with the difficulty of the task, employees are willing to take up more challenging tasks to achieve that high compensation.

Achievable goals

We just saw how important it is for an employee to know what his manager expects out of him to perform better. However, if the goal by his manager is something really steep, it will do more damage instead of good. Blowing a balloon to its fullest capacity brings about beauty, however, blowing a little more bursts the balloon. There is only a hairline difference between the fullest capacity and the amount that can burst it. Same is the case with an employee. Easy goals don’t seem to challenge an employee, however, in the eagerness to set challenging goals, if the goal is tad on the unattainable side, the employee can get demotivated, instead of motivated. The idea is to challenge the employee to give his best performance without frustrating him.

Commitment to goals

If goals are to see fruition, they need to be comprehended and agreed upon by both the management and the employees. The theory of participative management rests on the basis of allowing employees to have a role in setting goals and making decisions. If employees feel they were part of creating the goal, they are more likely to try their level best to achieve the goal. Simply barging into the meeting room and dictating the set of goals the employee has to attain, without considering whether he can or cannot attain it, will not lead to frustration and suffocation at work.

1.3.3 Attribution Theory

Attribution theory is probably the most influential contemporary theory with implications for academic motivation. It incorporates behaviour modification in the sense that it emphasises the idea that learners are strongly motivated by the pleasant outcome of being able to feel good about themselves. It incorporates cognitive theory and self-
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efficacy theory in the sense that it emphasises that learners’ current self-perceptions will strongly influence the ways in which they will interpret the success or failure of their current efforts and hence their future tendency to perform these same behaviours.

According to attribution theory, the explanations that people tend to make to explain success or failure can be analysed in terms of three sets of characteristics:

First, the cause of the success or failure may be internal or external. That is, we may succeed or fail because of factors that we believe have their origin within us or because of factors that originate in our environment.

Second, the cause of the success or failure may be either stable or unstable. If the we believe cause is stable, and then the outcome is likely to be the same if we perform the same behaviour on another occasion. If it is unstable, the outcome is likely to be different on another occasion.

Third, the cause of the success or failure may be either controllable or uncontrollable. A controllable factor is one which we believe we ourselves can alter if we wish to do so. An uncontrollable factor is one that we do not believe we can easily alter.

An important assumption of attribution theory is that people will interpret their environment in such a way as to maintain a positive self-image. That is, they will attribute their successes or failures to factors that will enable them to feel as good as possible about themselves. In general, this means that when learners succeed at an academic task, they are likely to want to attribute this success to their own efforts or abilities; but when they fail, they will want to attribute their failure to factors over which they have no control, such as bad teaching or bad luck.

The basic principle of attribution theory as it applies to motivation is that a person’s own perceptions or attributions for success or failure determine the amount of effort the person will expend on that activity in the future.

There are four factors related to attribution theory that influence motivation in education: ability, task difficulty, effort, and luck. In terms of the characteristics discussed previously, these four factors can be analysed in the following way:

Ability is a relatively internal and stable factor over which the learner does not exercise much direct control.

Task difficulty is an external and stable factor that is largely beyond the learner’s control.

Effort is an internal and unstable factor over which the learner can exercise a great deal of control.

Luck is an external and unstable factor over which the learner exercises very little control.

Students will be most persistent at academic tasks under the following circumstances:

1) If they attribute their academic successes to either:
   i) internal, unstable, factors over which they have control (e.g., effort) or
   ii) internal, stable, factors over which they have little control but which may sometimes be disrupted by other factors (e.g., ability disrupted by occasional bad luck);
If they attribute their failures to internal, unstable factors over which they have control (e.g., effort).

The following guidelines can be derived from the preceding statement:

If we want students to persist at academic tasks, we should help them establish a sincere belief that they are competent and that occasional imperfections or failures are the result of some other factor (such as bad luck or a lack of sufficient effort) that need not be present on future occasions.

It is not beneficial for students to attribute their successes entirely to ability. If they think they already have all the ability they need, they may feel that additional effort is superfluous. The ideal attribution for success is, “I succeeded because I am a competent person and worked hard.”

When students fail, they are most likely to persist and eventually succeed if they attribute their failure to a lack of appropriate effort.

It is extremely hazardous to motivational health for students to fail repeatedly after making a serious effort at academic tasks. When this happens, they will either (a) stop believing they are competent, or (b) stop attributing their failure to lack of effort.

It is important to define effort correctly and for the learners to internalise an accurate concept of effort. In practical terms effort is most usefully defined as devoting effective academic learning time to the task. Just trying harder or spending more time doing ineffective activities does not constitute effort. It is extremely important to make this distinction. This will reduce motivation.

Excessively competitive grading and evaluation systems are likely to impair the learning of many students. Competition will encourage students to persist only to the extent that they believe additional effort will enable them to succeed within the competitive atmosphere.

It is useful to evaluate students at least partly (but not exclusively) on the basis of their effort. This does not mean that the weakest students in a class should receive the highest grades simply because they may spend more time trying to master the subject matter.

In general, it is best for students to believe that it is their own behaviour rather than external circumstances that leads to success or failure. Researchers refer to this as having an internal locus of control.

When students reject the value of effort, it is important to change their perception. This can be done by clarifying the meaning of effort and by seeing to it that effort does actually pay off.

Attribution theory is an evolving field, and it is likely that further research will lead to additional practical insights regarding motivation. It is important to note that this discussion of attribution theory has barely scratched the surface. The following are some additional concepts related to attribution theory:

Learning goals are set by individuals who seek to increase their competence. People who emphasise learning goals are likely to seek challenges, if they believe the challenges will lead to greater competence; and they tend to respond to failure by increasing their effort. It is good to encourage students to set and pursue learning goals rather than performance goals.

Performance goals, on the other hand, are set by individuals who seek to gain favourable
judgments or to avoid unfavourable judgments in the eyes of others. It is often undesirable to emphasise performance goals; but schools, parents, and society often overemphasise them to the detriment of learners.

*Learned helplessness* refers to the expectation, based on previous experience that one's actions cannot possibly lead to success. Performance goals are much more likely than learning goals to lead to ability rather than effort attributions and to result in feelings of learned helplessness.

*Self-handicapping* occurs when learners create impediments that make good performance less likely. Self-handicapping is likely to become prominent during adolescence. Since it occurs most often among persons with an overriding concern with their competence image, this problem can best be minimised by focusing on effort attributions and by helping learners develop secure feelings of self-efficacy.

*Expectancy-valence models* state that a person’s motivation to achieve a goal depends on a combination of the value of that goal (its valence) and the person’s estimation of the likelihood of success. The combination of expectancy and valence interacts with attribution theory in complex ways.

*Self-worth theory* Covington combines ideas related to self-efficacy, attribution theory, and learned helplessness. It focuses on the notion that people are largely motivated to do what it takes to enhance their reputation in various areas.

### 1.3.4 Drive Theory

Hull developed a version of behaviourism in which the stimulus (S) affects the organism (O) and the resulting response (R) depends upon characteristics of both O and S. In other words, Hull was interested in studying intervening variables that affected behaviour such as initial drive, incentives, inhibitors, and prior training (habit strength). Like other forms of behaviour theory, reinforcement is the primary factor that determines learning. However, in Hull’s theory, drive reduction or need satisfaction plays a much more important role in behaviour than in other frameworks (i.e., Thorndike, Skinner).

Hull’s theoretical framework consisted of many postulates stated in mathematical form; They include: (1) organisms possess a hierarchy of needs which are aroused under conditions of stimulation and drive, (2) habit strength increases with activities that are associated with primary or secondary reinforcement, (3) habit strength aroused by a stimulus other than the one originally conditioned depends upon the closeness of the second stimulus in terms of discrimination thresholds, (4) stimuli associated with the cessation of a response become conditioned inhibitors, (5) the more the effective reaction potential exceeds the reaction threshold, the shorter the latency of response. As these postulates indicate, Hull proposed many types of variables that accounted for generalisation, motivation, and variability (oscillation) in learning.

One of the most important concepts in Hull’s theory was the habit strength hierarchy: for a given stimulus, an organism can respond in a number of ways. The likelihood of a specific response has a probability which can be changed by reward and is affected by various other variables (e.g. inhibition). In some respects, habit strength hierarchies resemble components of cognitive theories such as schema and production systems.

**Principles**

1) Drive is essential in order for responses to occur (i.e., the student must want to learn).
Stimuli and responses must be detected by the organism in order for conditioning to occur (i.e., the student must be attentive).

Response must be made in order for conditioning to occur (i.e., the student must be active).

Conditioning only occurs if the reinforcement satisfied a need (i.e., the learning must satisfy the learner’s wants).

Self Assessment Questions

1) Define the following terms:
   a) Goal setting
   b) Ability
   c) Effort
   d) Luck
   e) Self-handicapping

1.4 LET US SUM UP

COMPARISON OF CONTENT THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

**Maslow**

Self-Actualisation
- Highest need level.
- Involves an individual’s desire to realise full potential.
- Can be satisfied without this level.

Esteem

*Self-esteem*
- Need for personal sense of accomplishment, mastery.

*Social-esteem*
- Need for respect, recognition, attention, and appreciation of others
  - Social
- Need for love, affection, sense of belonging in one’s relationship
  - Relationships
- Dealings with friends, family, and colleagues falls in here
  - Safety and Security
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**Physical**
- need for security, protection from future threats, and stability.

**Physiological**
- Basic needs: food, water, etc.

**ERG**
- Desire for continued personal growth and development
- Desire to satisfy interpersonal relationships
- Desire for physiological and material well-being

**Herzberg**
- Improving factors leads to satisfaction, effort, and performance.
- Related to job content; what employees actually do.
- Factors:
  1) achievement
  2) recognition
  3) work itself
  4) responsibility
  5) advancement
  6) growth

**Hygiene Factors**
- Improving factors prevents dissatisfaction.
- Related to job environment more than nature of work itself.
- Factors:
  1) policies and procedures
  2) supervision
  3) relations with supervisor
  4) work conditions
  5) salary
  6) relations with peers
  7) personal life
  8) relations with subordinates
  9) status
  10) security

**McClelland**
- Need for Achievement
  - a drive to pursue and attain goals
  - accomplishment is important for its own sake
- Need for Competence
  - a desire to do quality work
  - want to develop skills
- Need for Power
  - desire to influence others
  - desire recognition of others
- Need for Affiliation
  - a drive to relate to people effectively
  - desire for close relationships

Attribution theory is probably the most influential contemporary theory with implications for academic motivation. It incorporates behaviour modification in the sense that it emphasises the idea that learners are strongly motivated by the pleasant outcome of being able to feel good about themselves. It incorporates cognitive theory and self-efficacy theory in the sense that it emphasises that learners’ current self-perceptions will strongly influence the ways in which they will interpret the success or failure of their current efforts and hence their future tendency to perform these same behaviours.

Hull’s theoretical framework consisted of many postulates stated in mathematical form; They include:

1) organisms possess a hierarchy of needs which are aroused under conditions of stimulation and drive,

2) habit strength increases with activities that are associated with primary or secondary reinforcement,

3) habit strength aroused by a stimulus other than the one originally conditioned depends upon the closeness of the second stimulus in terms of discrimination thresholds,
4) stimuli associated with the cessation of a response become conditioned inhibitors.
5) the more the effective reaction potential exceeds the reaction threshold, the shorter
the latency of response. As these postulates indicate, Hull proposed many types
of variables that accounted for generalisation, motivation, and variability (oscillation)
in learning.

Goal setting theory of motivation is a theory which states that there is an inseparable
link between goal setting and task performance. It states that specific, measurable and
attainable goals motivate an employee to achieve the goal, while lousy vague targets
suck off enthusiasm.

1.5 UNIT END QUESTIONS

1) Discuss content or need theory?
2) Explain and highlight the differences between Maslows and Alderfer’s theories.
3) Discuss goal setting theory.
4) Explain the principles of Attribution theory.
5) Discuss Herzberg’s and McClellands theory.

1.6 SUGGESTED READINGS