CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews the literature on motivation. It begins by discussing the concept of motivation in the organizational context. Then it discusses various well known theories of motivation. However, only the 3 Needs Theory is reviewed indepeth as it constitutes the theoretical framework for this study. Finally, this chapter discusses relevant past research on the 3 Needs Theory.

2.1 CONCEPT OF MOTIVATION

From the many theories of motivation, it is clear that different theorists have different conceptions about motivation. Nevertheless, there is general agreement, according to Murray (1964), that a motive is an internal factor that arouses, directs and integrates a person's behaviour. For example, Beck (1978) defines motivation as broadly concerned with the contemporary determinants of choice (direction), persistence and vigour of goal-directed behaviour. Mondy (1993) states that motivation is the willingness to put forth effort in pursuit of organizational goals. He further clarifies that motivation is internal to each individual. Thus, it can be seen that motivation is not observed directly but is inferred from a person's behaviour, or is simply assumed to exist in order to explain his behaviour.

It is assumed that there must be some kind of need or motive underlying human behaviour. The term "need" suggests a deprivation, a lack of something, which the attainment of the goal will presumably satisfy. Thus, according to McClelland (1961), this deprivation will lead a person to act in ways that will satisfy his needs. McClelland
stipulates that there are three intrinsic motives that are important determinants of work related behaviour: the need for achievement, the need for power and the need for affiliation - hence the 3 Needs Theory. Before elaborating on the 3 Needs Theory, it would be appropriate to briefly review some of the better known theories of motivation.

2.2 THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

Besides the 3 Needs Theory, some of the better known theories are:

(i) hierarchy of needs theory;
(ii) motivation-hygiene theory;
(iii) theory X and theory Y;
(iv) expectancy theory;
(v) goal setting theory; and
(vi) equity theory.

2.2.1 Hierarchy Of Needs Theory

Maslow (1965) postulates a hierarchy of human needs, incorporating several levels. According to Maslow’s theory, the needs at the lower levels of the hierarchy must be largely satisfied before the needs at the higher levels become operative. The needs are as follows:

(i) physiological needs - hunger, thirst and so on;
(ii) safety needs - freedom from bodily threat or feelings of insecurity;
(iii) affiliation or social needs - the need for friendship, affection and love;
(iv) esteem needs - the need for self-respect and for a stable, positive evaluation of self; and
(v) self-actualisation needs - the need to become what one wants to be, to achieve one’s life goals or to achieve the potential of one’s personality.
2.2.2 Motivation-Hygiene Theory

Herzberg (1966) postulates the existence of two sets of factors relevant in work motivation, satisfiers (motivators) and dissatisfiers (hygienes). The dissatisfiers are the outward characteristics of work such as pay, security, working conditions and the like. Dissatisfiers are extrinsic factors which affect job dissatisfaction. However, satisfiers are intrinsic factors such as achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement and all the elements of the work itself. Satisfiers affect job satisfaction. There are two distinct scales involved in this theory, one scale for job dissatisfaction and the other for job satisfaction.

2.2.3 Theory X And Theory Y

According to McGregor (1967), theory X is the belief held by managers that people are lazy. Thus, to motivate them, administrators must use the "carrot and stick" method. Theory X employees are by nature indolent, lack ambition, dislike responsibility, prefer to be led, inherently self-centred and indifferent to organisational needs unless motivated by personal gain. On the other hand, theory Y assumes that employees have a psychological need to work and that they desire achievement and responsibility.

2.2.4 Expectancy Theory

Vroom (1964) states that people decide what to do by subjectively estimating the probability (i) of being able to complete a job task and (ii) of whether or not that activity will be rewarding. There are three components of expectancy theory, as follows :-

(i) expectancy, which is the subjective probability that performance levels are based on the amount of effort exerted;
(ii) *instrumentality*, which is the positive/negative correlation between performance levels and possible rewards; and

(iii) *valence*, which is the subjective positive/negative value of the various outcomes.

### 2.2.5 Goal Setting Theory

Locke (1967) postulates that the primary motivational force behind work behaviour is the achievement of a goal set by the individual himself. Goal setting causes individuals to compare their present capacity to perform with that required to achieve that goal. According to Locke, there are two types of goals: specific and general. Specific goals are greater motivators than general goals. Likewise, difficult goals are greater motivators than easy ones.

### 2.2.6 Equity Theory

Adam (1976) postulates that individuals make social comparisons between themselves and others with respect to two variables: outputs and inputs. Outputs refer to the things individuals believe they and others get out of their jobs, such as pay, fringe benefits and prestige. Inputs refer to the contributions employees believe they and others make to their jobs, such as the amount of time worked, the qualifications brought to the job, the number of units produced and the amount of effort required. Thus, this theory is concerned about the perceptions of fairness of one's pay relative to the pay of others by comparing output-input ratios.

### 2.3 THE 3 NEEDS THEORY

This theory was developed by David McClelland and his associates, particularly John Atkinson. They investigated the three intrinsic motives that are important determinants of work related behaviour: the need for achievement, the need
for power and the need for affiliation. According to this theory, a person who has a particular need behaves differently from one who does not have it. Thus, the needs actually present behavioural predispositions that influence the way people perceive situations and motivate them to pursue a particular goal.

2.3.1 The Atkinson Model

Atkinson (1964) presents a formal theory of motivated behaviour which states that all adult human beings carry around with them the potential energy to behave in a variety of ways. The particular way in which an adult behaves depends on :

(i) the relative strength or readiness of the various motives he has; and

(ii) the situational characteristics or the opportunities present.

The Atkinson model was initially developed to explain work behaviour and job performance in terms of the need for achievement. The model was later developed to explain behaviour in terms of the need for power and the need for affiliation. McClelland (1961), Vroom (1964) and Andrews (1965) have shown that these three needs are important determinants of performance and success in business as well as non-business and government organizations.

2.3.2 Measurement Of Motive Strength

Thematic apperceptive methods are utilised to determine the presence of and to assess the strength of the three needs. The basic method used, called TAT (Thematic Apperception Test) was developed by Henry Murray (1938). In the TAT, an individual is first shown a series of pictures, usually of people in fairly ambiguous social and work situations, and he is then asked to write or to relate imaginative stories based on those pictures. The content of the story projections is used to infer the personality of and areas of conflict in the story teller. This method is employed by McClelland, Atkinson and other researchers in their studies on motivation.
However in this exploratory study, the use of the TAT is not practical because of the usual constraints. The alternative employed involves close observation of the behaviour of different people in different circumstances. Since behaviour is a function of aroused motivation, careful assessment of behaviour should allow reasonable inferences about motivation patterns. This method has often been used by other researchers. Indeed Litwin (1968) used this method to developed a list of key behavioural questions which help managers identify different kinds of motivated behaviour.

2.3.3 Need For Achievement (n Achievement)

According to McClelland (1962), if a person spends his time thinking about doing his job better, accomplishing something unusual and important, or advancing his career, then that person has a high need for achievement (often written n Achievement). He is concerned with achievement and derives considerable satisfaction from striving for achievement. A person with strong n Achievement thinks about achievement goals, considers possible obstacles he might encounter and also thinks about how he will feel if he succeeds or fails.

What are people with a strong need for achievement good for workwise? Litwin (1968) states that such people seek out, enjoy and do well at jobs that are entrepreneurial in character. They make good business executives, particularly in challenging or growing industries. McClelland (1962) adds that they often become salespersons, sales managers, consultants or fund raisers. Years of empirical research by McClelland and Atkinson have made possible an understanding of why a person with a strong need for achievement exhibits such characteristics in his behaviour.
A person with a high \( n \) Achievement tends to like situations in which he can take personal responsibility for finding solutions to problems. The reason, according to McClelland, is obvious. If he does not have personal responsibility, he can get little personal achievement satisfaction from any successful outcome. McClelland adds that such a person is not a gambler. This means that he does not prefer a situation where the outcome depends on chance or other factors beyond his control, rather than on his own abilities and efforts.

Another characteristic of a person with a strong need for achievement is his tendency to set moderate achievement goals and to take calculated risks. McClelland explains that if such a person takes on an easy problem, he will not be satisfied when he succeeds, as the task did not provide adequate opportunities for him to test his ability, and thereby frustrates his need for achievement. And if he takes on an extremely difficult problem, he may not succeed, thus disproving his ability and frustrating his need for achievement. Such a person also likes to have concrete feedback on how he is doing. He has a compelling interest in knowing whether he was right or wrong. McClelland states that this type of person will thrive and be happier when this condition is satisfied than when it is not.

2.3.4 Need For Power \((n\text{ Power})\)

Also important is the need for power (often written \( n \) Power). Nash (1985) defines power as the ability to produce an intended effect. A need for power is but a need to control or to influence other people. McClelland (1975) declares that a person has a high need for power if he spends his time thinking about the influence and control he has over others, and how he can use this influence or control to change other people's behaviour or to gain a position of authority and status.
Winter (1978) defines social power as the ability or capacity to produce some intended effect on the behaviour or emotions of another person. According to Winter, a man with strong $n$ Power will attempt to influence others directly by making suggestions, by giving his opinions and evaluations, and by trying to talk others into doing things his way. Such persons are verbally fluent, often talkative and sometimes argumentative. They tend to seek positions of leadership in group activities and are seen by others as forceful, outspoken, hard-headed and demanding.

In an organisation, a person with a strong concern for power prefers positions which allow the exercise of power. He enjoys roles requiring persuasion, such as teaching and public speaking. In addition, he may also seek out positions which involve control of the means of influencing others, such as political office or top management slots. Studies by McClelland (1975) and Winter (1978) on the motivation of managers have shown that although strong achievement motivation distinguishes the successful manager or entrepreneur from other people, the people in top management, particularly presidents of organisations, are strongly motivated by the need for power. What research has been done also indicates that persons with a strong need for power do not always gain power, but when they do, what use they make of this power is determined by other needs and values they have.

2.3.5 Need For Affiliation ($n$ Affiliation)

A need for affiliation (often written $n$ Affiliation) is a need for warmth, companionship and friendship. Nash (1985) says that friendship is a major source of job satisfaction. McClelland and Atkinson discovered that when scoring the TAT for the need for affiliation, characters in the stories establish, maintain, and restore positive relationship with others. A person with a high need for affiliation wants approval; he needs to be liked. For example, a business executive with a high $n$ Affiliation chooses
friends rather than experts to work with him.

Furthermore, McClelland discovered that managers with high n Affiliation have fewer employees who quit than do managers with high n Power. Managers with high n Achievement experience different ratios of turnover, depending on the kinds of employees they have and whether the n Power or the n Affiliation is dominant. McClelland (1975) also discovered that productivity declined when the employee’s need for achievement was replaced by a need for affiliation. The implications for management are clear. A humanistic approach to management may make people feel good, but it will not make them as productive as achievement-oriented management.

2.4 ORGANISATIONAL TASKS

In an organisation, different tasks involve or require different kinds of individual behaviour and different patterns of motivation. Thus, even if a manager knows what the motivational needs of his workforce are, he will have to match these needs with the demands of each organisational task to get the most out of each employee. For example, it is poor management to promote a power-motivated person into a position where he will have to receive orders instead of give orders.

Litwin (1968) was one of the first researchers to realise that a manager must consider the nature of the tasks to be performed in order to motivate. Turner and Lawrence (1965) developed a set of questions (termed Task Analysis) to analyse the motivational demands of tasks. The analysis will indicate if a particular task is an Achievement Task, a Power Task or an Affiliation Task.
2.5 PAST STUDIES ON THE 3 NEEDS THEORY

Many studies have been conducted on the 3 Needs Theory by numerous researchers. However, only the results of relevant studies are discussed below especially those pertaining to various professions.

Through his many studies, McClelland (1961) came to the conclusion that the need for achievement is one of the keys to economic growth. According to him, people who are concerned with doing things better become active entrepreneurs and create the business firms that are the cutting edge in a developing economy.

McClelland (1961) found that in the USA, Italy and Poland, the need for achievement levels of business managers are significantly higher than the need for achievement levels of professionals. In that study, professionals were classified as those having jobs that require the primary application of specialised knowledge to the problems that fall within their province - whether medical, legal, educational or theological. He also investigated if the need for achievement is more evident in some business occupations than in others. McClelland considered five general types of business activity - general management, sales and marketing, finance, engineering and personnel. The general conclusion drawn by McClelland from this analysis was that only people involved in sales and marketing tend to have a high \( n \) Achievement level within the business community.

Litwin and Siebrecht (1967) have shown that ideally an integrative manager in a large organisation is not excessively high in \( n \) Power. If he were, he would spend too much time influencing, and not enough time integrating, conflicting viewpoints. The successful manager in this position typically has a balanced motivational profile - with
moderately high $n$ Power, $n$ Achievement and $n$ Affiliation. Danley and Winter (1970) have also shown that not all US Presidents were high in $n$ Power.