



**DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION
MASTER IN MANAGING PEOPLE, KNOWLEDGE AND CHANGE**

MOTIVATION AND KNOWLEDGE WORK

Investigation and Analysis of Motivation Factors in Academia

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ABSTRACT

- Title:** Motivation and Knowledge Work: Investigation and Analysis of Motivation Factors in Academia
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- Five key words:** Motivation, Knowledge Work, Academic, University, Autonomy
- Purpose:** The purpose of this study is to investigate and analyze all the factors that motivate knowledge workers in Lund University.
- Methodology:** The research is a qualitative study in which data is collected by semi-structured face to face interviews with the selected academics in the institution.
- Theoretical perspectives:** This study mainly gives a place to Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, Herzberg's two-factor theory, McClelland's theory of needs, Hackman and Oldham's job characteristics model, Self-determination theory and Vroom's expectancy theory as theoretical perspectives.
- Empirical foundation:** The Case Study of Lund University
- Conclusions:** The research arrives at five related conclusions: (1) Salary and security are not motivators in academia since academics already have enough money, and job security. (2) Symbolic meanings such as status, title and office size should not be underestimated, but not be overestimated either. (3) Academics' main motivators are autonomy, work itself, self-actualization, personal development and collegial relations. (4) Whereas self-motivation plays big role in academics' motivation, what is the role of management? (5) There is nothing named as demotivator, but there many things in the institution such as lack of feedback system and gender issues that frustrate them.

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1. INTRODUCTION

In this first chapter, we aim to introduce readers to the research topic. Thus, in the following paragraphs, the background, the problem and the purpose of the research will be discussed.

1.1 Background

Motivation is always one of the most important and frequently debated issues in the field of organizational behavior, and motivating employees is always seen as prime objective and task of managers. There have been many theories, models and concepts created, various articles and books written, and a great number of web-sites that tackle the issue. But, why do management and organizational development scientists, coaches, and managers do a lot of hard mental work on the subject of motivation? Why is one of the basic duties of managers motivating their employees? Why is motivation so important for businesses?

There is a common assumption that the best businesses usually have the most motivated workers; they are the best due to higher productivity of their motivated workers. It is probable that this correlation between motivation and performance goes back to Taylorism in which employee motivation is seen as very important to increase productivity during the time of industrialization and mass production. However, the conditions are quite different in today's competitive business environment; naturally, the companies' reasons for motivating employees are quite different as well.

In modern management, focus is not only on increasing performance and productivity but also loyalty and commitment of employees to the organization. Retaining your workforce in today's highly competitive environment may be the biggest challenge for your organization since the competitors may copy your companies' products, systems, structure and strategies. However, they cannot copy your company's trustworthy atmosphere and employees' performance. This challenge is even greater in knowledge-intensive environment in which a large part of work is primarily based on intellectual skills; employees are thus highly qualified people typically with academic backgrounds (Alvesson, 2004; 17; Alvesson and Sevenson; 2003; 968). Thus, there is no doubt that the human resource is the most crucial

asset no matter how efficient companies' technology and systems are. There is no match for your unique resource i.e. your staff.

While talking about knowledge workers who are also known as the “*gold collar*” workers (Newel *et. al.*, 2002; 28) of an organization, it is inevitable not to mention the autonomy and co-location concepts which in a sense emphasizes the complication of the knowledge workers' retention within the organization. Knowledge workers bring their expertise, their experience, their skills, their professional reputation, and their network of professional contacts to the organization (Lowendhal, 2005; 45). “*They own the organization's primary means of production- that is their knowledge*” (Newel *et. al.*, 2002; 27) which makes the nature of their work to be in demand for autonomy. Knowledge, which is the main input for the knowledge work, “*always has a subjective and personal dimension, thus cannot be dissociated from the interpretations of those involved in knowledge work*” (Alvesson, 2004; 50). What they do in their job is embedded in their professional knowledge and skills, therefore, knowledge workers themselves are tend to be the most appropriate people to decide how to initiate, plan, organize and coordinate their major work tasks (Newel *et. al.*, 2002; 27). This information has also been supported with the results of our research; which has been explained under the heading “Autonomy; my precious”.

Then, the co-location concept is that there is often the need to work remote from the organization for knowledge workers (Newel *et. al.*, 2002; 27). Regarding this concept, what we investigated in our research is that our sample group also sometimes needs to work away from the organization in order to carry out research in other organizations. Their physical co-location is important because it can be an important management issue in the sense of maintaining a high motivation level, and accordingly maintaining their retention. However our research has shown surprising results regarding managerial roles which will be explained in the following chapters.

1.2 Problem

Organizations need motivated and committed employees in order to achieve organizational goals. It is so clear that a satisfied employee at work performs better and displays higher level of commitment to what he/she is doing. But we should remember that, individuals are

different with regards to background, education, culture, ethnicity, and so forth. In other words, what satisfies someone might not satisfy another; and/or what satisfies someone today might not satisfy them tomorrow. For these reasons, management has a big challenge to satisfy and retain each employee at the workplace in the right way at the right time. Therefore, the knowledge of what motivates, encourages and satisfies individual at work is the most crucial resource that organizations have and need to be aware of.

Motivation is already a complex phenomenon itself and it becomes even more complicated in knowledge-intensive environment, especially in universities. Since universities are non-profit organizations, it is rare to talk about conventional motivational incentives; due to the fact that there are no usual reward or bonus systems, frequented feedback from peers or supervisors, or recognition as is found in classical knowledge-intensive environments. Hence, this is an attractive subject to be investigated in this research.

The following questions will guide the research process in order to enlighten the problem; motivation of knowledge workers in selected institution.

1. What are the most critical factors for motivation?
2. To what extent are these factors present in the selected institution?
3. To what extent do these critical factors affect knowledge workers' motivational level?

The last two questions will be examined in terms of academics' perceptions on the subject of motivation in general, and in terms of demographics, job characteristics, work environment, organizational structure, and so forth.

1.3 Purpose

This research investigates and analyzes all the factors that motivate knowledge workers in Lund University through focusing on motivational theories mentioned in the frames of reference chapter, and by applying the methods that have been put forward in the methodology chapter.

2. METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, we aim to enable the reader to deeply understand and evaluate the research as well as its outcomes by means of providing information about our research process. For this purpose, we give a place to the research sample, the data collection and analysis, and as well as the objectivity, reliability and validity issues of our research process.

2.1 Research Process

Firstly, we formulated our research problem and thereafter, constructed our research questions that were desired to be answered by the study. To achieve this aim, we have examined and analyzed the related literature; books, articles and previous field studies in order to get further information that allowed us to gain different perspectives and understandings about the subject. After that, we have decided to collaborate with Lund University as our research place since we thought that it would be the best fit with our problem under the research. We strongly believed that interview as a data collection method was the most appropriate one with our research purpose. Therefore, we contacted academics who work in the institution in order to conduct interviews which generated our primary data. Thus, we prepared a list of interview questions with the intention of answering our research questions. In a short period of time, interviews were carried out, and written down. During this time, we had also started to create and type the frame of reference part of our research. As a final step, we have interpreted and analyzed the data which was collected through interviews; and consequently, have concluded our investigation with the hope of substantial contributions to the field.

2.2 Sample

The research is a case study which is concerned with investigating the factors that effect the motivation of academics as knowledge workers at Lund University. A number of factors have a bearing on the motivation of these employees. Hence, it is a field study in which the emphasis is mainly on understanding the motivational patterns of knowledge workers by means of determining the interrelations among the motivation factors.

For this purpose, we wanted to have a diverse sample group to study with, and aimed to get deeper information by individual in-depth case studies, this was the reason sample size was limited to six knowledge workers. The selection of participants was random and we did not have any specific purpose such as maximization of difference. However, we do strongly believe that different voices from different backgrounds, gender, age and status are crucial for a qualified research. Hence, this issue was considered during the selection process of our sample which consists of both junior and senior academics as well as a number of female academics.

In this case study, we have collaborated with Lund University since it is one of the biggest and well known research and education institution in Scandinavia. We do believe that Lund University's multinational and diversity-oriented structure was really important for us in order to create an interesting and successful case study since not many studies about the motivation of academics have been made so far. Comparing a non-profit organization with traditional knowledge intensive firms was another factor that drew us towards choosing a university as our subject.

2.3 Data Collection

Data collection sources are classified into secondary and primary data (Clarke and Dawson, 1999). As is pointed out in the literature, secondary data is obtained from previously published materials, and primary data is collected specifically for the purpose of the investigation at hand by means of observing phenomena or surveying respondents (Saunders et al., 2007).

As is suggested in the literature, a researcher should firstly focus on secondary data in order to find an answer for the research question(s) (Saunders et al., 2007). Thus, we have used many forms of secondary data such as books, articles and course literature in our investigation in order to meet our objectives and discover how we could use them. The reason for using secondary data was also to deepen our knowledge about the concepts related to our topic, and also to see original ideas of different authors who have tackled the problem previously through different perspectives, which contribute to understanding of the problem under investigation.

Although secondary data contributes a lot to research, it is not sufficient to solve our research problem. Thus, primary data is vital to solve the problem at hand (Saunders et al., 2007). To meet this aim in our study, interviews were used as a data generation tool which constructs the source of the primary data of the research. Therefore, we have conducted semi-structured interviews with our participants and every interviewee has been visited by researchers individually. Interviews have been relatively loosely structured and allowed the participants to express their ideas, perceptions, and experiences. The other reason for conducting semi-structured interviews was to obtain more valid and reliable information, not to limit the interviewee by structured questions, and to allow some flexibility and discretion (McNeill and Chapman, 2005; Saunders *et al.*, 2007). Both participants and the interviewers were to feel free to ask and/or tell whenever needed. It is also requested from interviewees to enrich their answers with some biographical examples. Qualitative interviews with open-ended questions allowed us to get in-depth information from the participants in a relatively short period of time. This application was expected to increase the cooperation of the subjects and to motivate them to give accurate answers.

Interview questions were conducted carefully in order to get the right information from the interviewee (Cohen and Manion, 1994). We constructed nine main questions and some sub-questions. The reason for having some sub-questions was to get more detailed information.

The interviews' main themes included motivation, de-motivation, work environment, knowledge work and so forth. In the interviews, initially we asked participants to talk about themselves in terms of personal information, demographic and educational background. Secondly, we sought the reasons and drivers behind participant's choices for being an academic, and membership of our case institution. After these initial questions; we questioned their work and the tasks they are responsible for, their workplace definitions, hierarchical issues, organizational structure and collegial relations in order to view the context and the conditions of the case. And then as the main question, we asked participants to give information about motivation and de-motivation factors in order to find out their perceptions and beliefs about the problem under research.

The interviews generally lasted between 45 and 60 minutes. All of the data that was acquired from interviews was studied carefully. A sound recorder was used to record all the interviews

to study the conversation afterwards. Moreover, using the sound recorder helped us increase the efficiency of the interview analysis. We tried to read and re-read all the material that had been collected. Interpretations have been based on holistic readings about related themes and sub themes, and great effort has been showed to constitute relations between them (Alvesson and Karreman, 2007).

We also strongly believe that interview statements must be considered in their social context, they should not be treated as an instrument for collecting data on something existing outside the empirical situation. Since the questions we are asking and the answers which are given by interviewees have different meanings in different circumstances. Hence, localism and also reflexive pragmatism play important roles during both the progress and interpretation of the interviews in order to construct the study in a dynamic and flexible way (Alvesson, 2003; 16, 24, 25, 26).

2.4 Data Analysis

Modes of interpretation of the collected data are vital in our qualitative research in which there is no room for self-evidence. The qualitative methods, where the focus is on open, equivocal empirical material as a central criterion, are more appropriate to the research of complex phenomena like motivation (Alvesson and Sköldberg, 2000; 18). However, some qualitative methods emphasize the importance of categorization and codification of the empirical material. For instance, data-processing approaches such as grounded theory consider data as privileged, and there is a tendency to stress rationality through procedures, rules and a clear route from empirical reality to theory (Alvesson and Sveningsson, 2003; 967). This research has been interpreted in a different way, based on three interpretative principles.

The first principle is *hermeneutic* reading, in which there is a circular movement between part and whole, and pre-understandings and understanding. Rather than machinery and quick coding process of the collected data, we have tried to find out something hidden, and we have taken into account the variation and contradiction seriously. We have tried to interpret meanings expressed in the paragraphs of the interviews, and also construct relations to

interviews as a whole (Alvesson and Sköldbberg, 2000; 53, 57; Alvesson and Sveningsson, 2003; 967).

Secondly, we have also been inspired to some extent by post-structuralism and discourse analysis. Post-structuralism concentrates on deconstruction, language, discourse, meaning and symbols in which the evidence should be considered and interpreted carefully in order to see possible outcomes of discourse in action (Alvesson and Sköldbberg, 2000; 149,150; Alvesson and Sveningsson, 2003; 967). For this aim, we have tried to interpret how participants talk, how they use their voice tones, how they act whilst making a joke or being decisive, how they create meanings by their discourse and how they use symbols throughout the interviews. Through this interpretive principle, during the analysis of the research, we have also intended to give the reader an open space to define meanings actively. We believe that a text should not have a stable identification because it must be remembered that words essentially only refer to other words (Alvesson and Sköldbberg, 2000; 153,154).

Since “*reflexivity means challenging and reconsidering assumptions and beliefs of what data are all about*” (Alvesson, 2003; 26), thirdly we did our discussions and interpretations in a critical way through thinking and rethinking about the meanings of the data we have, instead of adapting them as they stand. Critical theory maintains a dialectical view of society and claims that there must always be a place for opposition; and consequently, the rationality becomes dominant (Alvesson and Sköldbberg, 2000). Since all organizations are assumed to be political (Morgan, 1997), we keep in our mind that people are also political, and there are always power issues within the organizations which in turn might affect the interviewees’ statements. Therefore, in our research; we aimed to go beyond the surface meanings and considered the ideologies, interests, identities and ideas lying behind the meanings of what our interviewees talked about.

We interpreted the interviewees’ ideas and assumptions in a reflexive way on the one hand, and always thought about some assumptive alternatives to the current situation on the other. For example, if it was an interview with a PhD student, we asked ourselves the question “Would her/his answers be different if she/he was not a PhD student, but a coordinator?” This critical approach helped us evaluate our empirical findings with the “*awareness of the political nature of social phenomena*” (Alvesson and Sköldbberg, 2000; 111).

According to critical perspective, societal conditions are historically created and heavily influenced by asymmetries of power, special interests, and unconscious processes (Alvesson and Sköldberg, 2000). That is why we firstly preferred to get some information about the interviewees' educational and personal background as well as their identities.

Thanks to having semi-structured interviews, we were able to intervene with the interview with our following questions once we felt that the interviewees approached the situation in a subjective way. We tried to direct also the interviewees to think critically while they were answering the questions, and to criticize the circumstances in a dialectic way in order to increase the validity of our research.

We embraced a critical approach not only for the interpretation of our data, but also for the frames of reference chapter by criticizing the motivational theories in particular ways, which are justified by the outcomes of our interviews and are mentioned in the fifth chapter.

Consequently, whilst interpreting the case, we tried to touch upon the hermeneutic, ideologically critical and postmodernist levels of interpretation in order to view and analyze the empirical material reflexively, since we strongly believe that interpretation of the qualitative research should be done in a reflexive way by avoiding the rigid assumptions. It must be remembered that ambiguity, complexity of rules and procedures, and researcher's judgment and intuition are always essential ingredients in order to interplay and interact constructively between these various levels (Alvesson and Sköldberg, 2000; 248, 249, 250, 287).

2.5 Validity, Reliability and Objectivity

Validity refers to the problem of whether the data collected shows the true picture of what is being studied or not (McNeill and Chapman, 2005; 9). It does not mean that interviewees are lying; they are just saying what they believe. Also language is a big limitation when it comes to validity issue. English is not our mother tongue, nor our interviewees'. Owing to this, there can be some misunderstandings between researchers and interviewees. However, we tried to minimize this risk by repeating and summarizing the important parts, such as the main ideas that we understand at the end of questions, and by using the sound recorder in order to listen

to the interviews again and again. Beside the language issue, in this empirical study, we also aimed to have observations in the field, because we do believe that more empirical material would shift the picture. However, we were not able to carry out field observations in this study due to the lack of time and limited access.

Reliability means that if somebody else uses the same method, or the same researcher uses it next time, the result will be the same (McNeill and Chapman, 2005; Cohen and Manion, 1994). In qualitative research, reliability means something different because it reflects reality at the time it is collected; it is not like a chemistry experiment that you can get the same result over and over again. Thus in qualitative methods, pre-understanding and bias of the researcher(s) are significant issues which affect the interview process and the interpretations of the empirical material.

Objectivity is one of the main tools in ensuring the reliability of the research. Objectivity means that when research is being conducted, the researcher should suspend his/her personal values and biases (Macionis and Plummer, 1997; 68). But of course, we are not machines; consciously or unconsciously we influence our environment with our beliefs, values and pre-understandings. Along with this fact, we are also not professional interviewers. However, we tried to be as objective as possible during the interviews.

3. FRAMES OF REFERENCE

This chapter gives the reader some definitions, theories, and models in order to improve their understanding of the area that we investigated. Motivation itself and its subheadings as well as some theories which are important for our analysis are clarified respectively. All information that is presented here will be the frame of our analysis in the next chapter.

3.1 Motivation

After the First World War, motivated and committed employees which lead to better and cheaper products was one of the main issues of employers and managers (Wilson, 2003). For this purpose, there were several theories created for motivating employees at work.

Motivation comes from Latin language, word of “*movere*” which means “to move” (Nelson and Quick, 2006). However, motivation is not an easy subject; it is not even easy to define because it is used by different people for different purposes (Rollinson, 2005). For instance, Rollinson (2005) describes it as,

“a state arising in processes that are internal and external to the individual, in which the person perceives that it is appropriate to pursue a certain course of action(s) directed at achieving a specified outcome(s) and in which the person chooses to pursue those outcomes with a degree of vigour and persistence.” (pp. 189)

Brenner’s (2007) definition is;

“to inspire and encourage another person to do a good job, to enjoy what they are doing, and to want to perform to the best of their ability.” (pp. 16)

Also the term motivation is defined as;

“a central mechanism or constellation of mechanisms that lie at the heart of why and how people change addictive and health behaviors. Being motivated to perform a

behavior is critical to an individual's performance and whether or not a successful outcome is achieved" (DiClement *et al.*, 2006; 26).

Motivation is a critical factor for organizations in order to compromise an individual's effort (Brooks, 2005), to arouse and support goal-directed behavior (Nelson and Quick, 2006; 150), to energize and direct human behavior (Steers and Porter, 1991), and to encourage the individual to perform better and to enjoy what he/she is doing (Brenner, 2007).

Motivation is also studied with references to internal and external incentives. (1) Internal incentives can be categorized as needs, goals (McKenna, 2000; Rollinson, 2005), motives and drives (Nelson and Quick, 2006). Needs are classified as physiological, social, security or self-esteem. It is not necessarily to do something for our needs, but they are still important triggers for some specific behaviors. Motives are the internal drives that energize and activate individuals to achieve the goals (McKenna, 2000; 89; Beardwell and Holden, 2004). Goals are also vital in order to lead individuals to satisfy their needs (Rollinson, 2005). (2) External incentives are mentioned by so many scholars as self-interest and economic gain. Self-interest is what individuals think is the best for them. The Hawthorne studies also confirmed the positive effects of pay incentives and interpersonal motives on productivity (Nelson and Quick, 2006).

3.1.1 Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

Motivator type as defined by the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation has highlighted the way for developmental practices and researches about human and/or organizational behavior. The researches have shown that the performance of an individual highly depends on the motivators behind it, as being intrinsic or extrinsic (Ryan and Deci, 2000a).

Extrinsic motivation *"requires an instrumentality between the activity and some separable consequences such as tangible or intangible e.g. verbal rewards, so satisfaction comes not from the activity itself but rather from the extrinsic consequences to which the activity leads"* (Gagne and Deci, 2005; 1).

Intrinsic motivation is defined as “*doing of an activity for its inherent satisfactions rather than for some separable consequence*” (Ryan and Deci, 2000a; 56). Ryan and Deci (2000a) claim that intrinsic motivation originates from the intrinsic needs of the individual and results in enjoyment of the process of increasing one’s competency in regards to particular academic tasks (Greene *et al.*, 2005; 4).

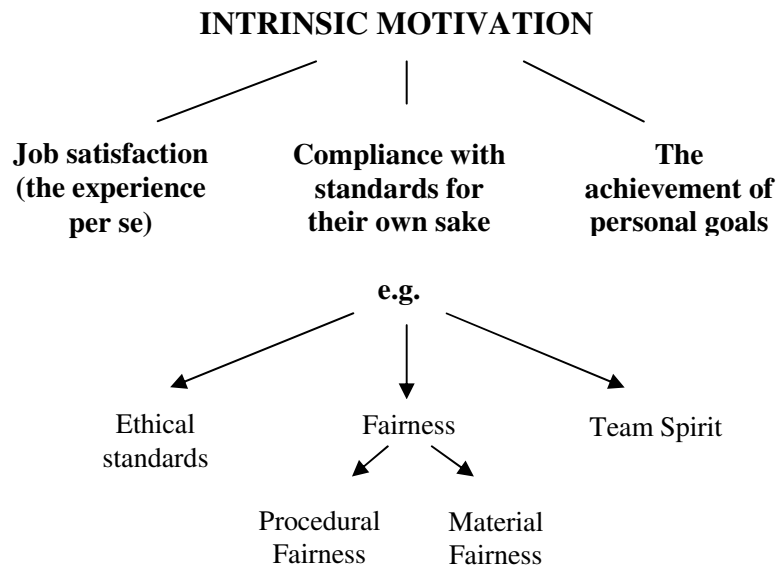


Figure 3.1 Intrinsic Motivation

Source: Successful Management by Motivation: Balancing Intrinsic and Extrinsic Incentives (pp. 9) by Bruno and Osterloh, 2001.

Intrinsically motivated people are eager to learn, perform, take action, succeed, and/or work for the “*fun and challenge entailed to the activity*” (Ryan and Deci, 2000a; 56) and for the “*internal feeling of satisfaction*” (Greene *et al.*, 2005; 4).

Bruno and Osterloh, in their book (2001), introduced three forms of intrinsic motivation as shown in Figure 3.1. In the first form, “*the activity itself satisfies the individual with an enjoyable experience*” (Bruno and Osterloh, 2001; 8). The individual does this activity just because he/she enjoys doing it, not for an end goal. People doing their hobbies can be examples for this form of intrinsic motivation.

In the second form, “*it is a matter of meeting standards for their own sake*” (Bruno and Osterloh, 2001; 8) of which the ethical standards, such as professional codes of practice, can be an example.

In the third form, it is “*achieving a goal which one has set oneself, even if the process itself is anything but enjoyable*” for which writing an examination paper or climbing a mountain can be examples (Bruno and Osterloh, 2001; 8).

Whilst Ryan and Deci (2000a) make a clear distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation based on the different reasons or goals that give rise to an action, Bruno and Osterloh (2001) claim that making a clear distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is not possible. According to Bruno and Osterloh, when a person does something for pleasure, there is almost always an extrinsic motivation such as being recognized by other people.

Another interesting point about intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is that the early studies found that tangible extrinsic rewards undermined intrinsic motivation whereas verbal rewards as intangible extrinsic rewards enhanced it (Gagne and Deci, 2005; 332). This is also mentioned by Salaman *et al.*, (2005; 178) as “*excessive emphasis on extrinsic motivation in the form of pay can result in damage to intrinsic motivation, which comes from pride in work.*”

3.2 Motivation Theories

Motivation is a complex phenomenon, and considered as one of the most important areas of study in the field of organizational behavior (Kern *et al.*, 2001). The studies in the field of motivation have an old history which goes back to Taylor’s managerial approach called “The Principles of Scientific Management”. From the time of Taylor, several theories have attempted in order to explain how human motivation works, and what motivates people.

The term “motivation theory” signifies the processes which describe why and how human behavior is activated and directed (Burton and Thakur, 1995; Pattayanak, 2005). Although

motivation theories are categorized in various ways, it can be said that there are two main categories; content theories and process theories.

Content theories, which are also known as need theories, assume that individual's motivation is driven by common and fundamental needs, and try to explain what motivates employees. Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Alderfer's ERG theory, McClelland's three basic needs, and Herzberg's motivators and hygiene factors are well-known examples of this category. Process theories such as Vroom's expectancy theory and Hackman and Oldham's study on job design are concerned with directing worker actions appropriately by focusing on how to motivate employees (Kern *et al.*, 2001; 89; Pinnington and Edwards, 2000; 123).

Since there are a considerable number of theories, in the following paragraphs we are going to give a place to a limited number of motivation theories which will enable us to gain useful insights and allow for a better analysis of the case under research.

3.2.1 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

In the first half of the twentieth century, one of the most important representatives of humanistic psychology, Abraham Maslow (1943) developed his major study which had a big influence among other psychologists and researchers in the field. In his well-known hierarchy of needs theory, he propounds that human beings have a hierarchy of five needs, which begins with the basic physiological needs and climbs up to realization of one's potential (Pattanayak, 2005; 174). These needs are physiological, safety, social belonging, esteem and self-actualization (Huizinga, 1970; Maslow, 1943; Pinnington and Edwards, 2000). The needs construct higher and lower levels of his hierarchical pyramid in which physiological and safety/security needs are described as lower-order needs; while higher-order needs comprise love, esteem and self-actualization (Pattanayak, 2005; Pinnington and Edwards, 2000).

“The physiological needs serve to sustain the organism; the needs for food, water, sleep, sex, shelter, etc” (Maslow, 1943; Huizinga, 1970; 21). For instance, a hungered man firstly tends to find food to fulfill this basic need to survive without any thoughts of the others. If one has been gratified his/her physiological needs, and then he/she may look for satisfaction for safety (security) needs. These are needs for self-preservation and assurance for tomorrow

(Pattanayak, 2005; 175). Job security and various kinds of insurance can be given as examples of this category. If these two lower-order needs are fairly well satisfied, the social needs; love, belongingness and affiliation will be emerged. That means;

“a man will feel keenly, as never before, the absence of friends, sweetheart, or wife and children, so in a sense he will hunger for social needs and strive for fulfillment of these needs” (Maslow, 1943; Huizinga, 1970; 22).

Esteem needs can be categorized into;

“(1) internal esteem needs such as self-respect, achievement, autonomy which can be seen as needs for high self-evaluation, and (2) external esteem needs such as status, recognition and attention” (Pattanayak, 2005; 176).

If these needs are satisfied, the person feels self-confident, powerful and useful. The highest level of Maslow’s pyramid, self-actualization, signifies the desire for personal development and accomplishment. Since development and growth is personal, it differs from person to person. In other words, every individual experiences and feels self-actualization in different ways such as writing a novel or sculpturing. One can express his/her self actualization by being an academic, while another may desire to help people in need.

Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory has two main principles:

“(1) the deficit principle signifies that a relatively well satisfied need is not a strong motivator of behavior, and (2) progression principle signifies that once a need is fairly well satisfied, behavior is dominated by the next level of hierarchy” (Burton and Thakur, 1995; 50).

Maslow (1943) argues that lower level needs have to be gratified before the higher level needs will arise and determine a person's behavior. Hence, in this hierarchy of importance, physiological needs represent the starting point and the prime motivator of human behavior. However once these needs are fulfilled, the need is no longer perceived as a need by the person. The individual will seek a higher level of need. Thus, safety needs become the prime driver for motivation.

Maslow's theory about human motivation is easily applied to many situations. For instance, Figure 3.2 exhibits some organizational examples which draw up some motivators in the work situation.

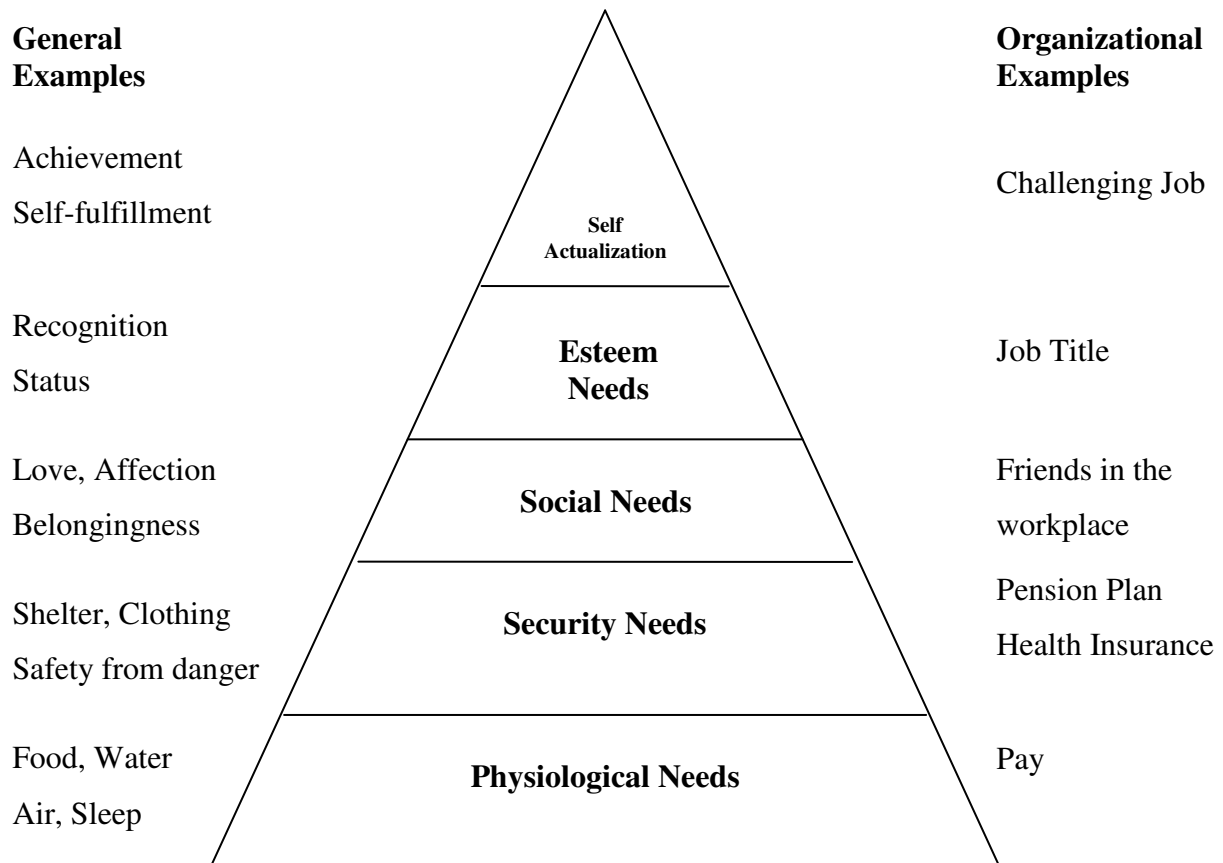


Figure 3.2 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Source: Human Resource Management (Figure 12.4, p.175) by Biswajeet Pattanayak, 2005.

While Maslow's theory has had a big impact and influence in the field, it is also criticized by many scholars. It is argued that the hierarchy of needs may not be the same for everyone and people may seek to satisfy more than one need at the same time. For instance, people in Iraq have different order of needs than people in Sweden. The Iraqi people have to strive for survival where the conditions are completely different since the country has been at war. Besides these shortcomings, some researchers suggest different categorization of needs, while others criticize its static and rigid nature. However it must be remembered that Maslow (1943) emphasizes in his study that the theory has a dynamic nature which means that there is

a dynamic relation between the basic needs, and there is always room for flexibility in practice. He argues that there are always exceptional circumstances. Therefore, he claims that issues such as degree of relative satisfaction, cultural specificity, multiple determinations and motivations of behavior should be considered to give a more accurate analysis of human behavior.

3.2.2 Alderfer’s ERG Theory

Building on the Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory, Clayton Alderfer developed the ERG theory in 1972. According to him, human needs can be divided into three:

“(1) Existence needs are the needs for physical well-being, (2) relatedness needs point out the need for satisfactory relationships with others, and (3) growth needs signify the development of human potential and the desire for personal growth” (Burton and Thakur, 1995; 270).

<i>ALDERFER’S NEEDS</i>	<i>MASLOW’S NEEDS</i>
(1) Existence	Physiological Needs Safety Needs
(2) Relatedness	Social Needs Internal Esteem Needs
(3) Growth	External Esteem Needs Self- Actualization

Figure 3.3 Comparisons between Needs of Alderfer and Maslow

Source: Illustrated from Human Resource Management by Biswajeet Pattanayak, 2005.

“Alderfer with his theory condenses Maslow’s five categories of needs into three broader categories” (Kern *et al.*, 2001; 96). Existence needs of Alderfer include Maslow’s physiological and safety needs, his relatedness needs relate to Maslow’s social needs, and finally growth needs consist of esteem and self-actualization needs of Maslow (Burton and Thakur, 1995; Pattanayak, 2005).

The ERG model is similar to Maslow's theory in which the needs in both are in a hierarchical structure, and there is also the same assumption that people climb up a hierarchical step at a time. However, Alderfer distinguishes his model by claiming that more than one need may be activated simultaneously.

As Maslow, Alderfer also suggests "*...the satisfaction-progression principle which argues that after satisfying one level of need, people progress to the next higher level*" (Burton and Thakur, 1995; 270).

However, Alderfer also emphasizes flexibility and complexity matters in his model by taking into account the frustration-regression principle. When a high order need is frustrated, the individual's desire to increase a lower need takes place. For instance, inability to gratify social interaction might increase the need for more money. "*Hence, the frustration may lead to a regression to lower needs*" (Pattanayak, 2005; 179).

3.2.3 Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

This section focuses on the studies of Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman's (1966). In these studies, Herzberg interviewed hundreds of engineers and accountants in Pittsburg in order to examine what effects them at work in terms of satisfaction and dissatisfaction. All interviewees were asked to describe positive and negative job events that they had experienced. Furthermore, they were asked why they had felt this way. With these questions, Herzberg *et al.* were trying to understand if there was a connection between individuals' feelings towards their job and their performance, and also between their job and their relationship with others at work. In other words, he looked at the causes of job satisfaction/dissatisfaction as trying to understand what motivates employees at the workplace. At the end of this research, they deduced that environment has an impact on dissatisfaction; whereas bad environment causes dissatisfaction, good environment has almost no effect on satisfaction (Herzberg *et al.*, 1966; Pinnington *et al.*, 2000; Beardwell *et al.*, 2004; Miner, 2005).

With these studies, Herzberg proposed his *Two-Factor Theory* and categorized motivation into two factors: *motivators* -job factor- and *hygiene* -extra-job factors (Tietjen and Myers, 1998).

As Herzberg (1966) stated that the first group, *hygiene*, is involved in these kinds of situations:

“When feelings of unhappiness were reported, they were not associated with the job itself but with conditions that surround the doing of the job. These events suggest to the individual that the context in which he performs his work unfair or disorganized and as such represents to him an unhealthy psychological work environment”(pp. 113).

Hygiene is not restorative, it is more preventive. In other words, *hygiene factors* do not motivate employees; however, improvements of these factors will eradicate the obstacle that causes bad environment, and consequently dissatisfaction (Hezberg *et al.*, 1966). That means when these factors become worse than a level which employees think is as acceptable standard, then dissatisfaction will be experienced. However, in the optimal job environment, there is neither dissatisfaction nor satisfaction by employees. These factors which are also called extrinsic factors include salary, supervision, interpersonal relations, job security, physical working conditions, company policy and administration, status, benefits and etc. (Hezberg *et al.*, 1966; Tietjen and Myers, 1998; Beardwell *et al.*, 2004; Miner, 2005).

Employees can not be satisfied by environmental factors, because these factors do not have this potential (Hezberg *et al.*, 1966). The factors that provide positive job attitudes are called *motivators*. The reasons for the positive attitudes triggered by *motivators* are that these factors satisfy employees' self-actualization at work. They can get the pleasure as a reward only from performing the task which leads to satisfaction. *Motivators* which are also called intrinsic factors include recognition, a sense of achievement, possibility of growth, advancement, having responsibility and work itself (Hezberg *et al.*, 1966; Tietjen and Myers, 1998; Beardwell *et al.*, 2004; Miner, 2005).

It is clear that both factors are totally different from each other even though both are related within an employment context. *Hygiene factors*, which effect work environment and lead employees to dissatisfaction at work, provide individuals better conditions and avoid

unpleasant situations. On the other hand, *motivators* create satisfaction at work by gratifying individual's needs for growth and self-actualization. The moral of the story is that even though both are trying to meet the needs of individuals, factors which lead to dissatisfaction at work are totally different from the factors which lead to satisfaction. With all these arguments and results, Herzberg *et al.* (1966) concluded that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not opposite of each other since they are influenced by different factors. Consequently, the opposite of dissatisfaction is not satisfaction; it is just lack of dissatisfaction. In the same way, the opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction; it is just lack of satisfaction (Tietjen and Myers, 1998; Beardwell *et al.*, 2004; Miner, 2005).

Herzberg *et al.* (1966) reached the answer of the main question: *is there a connection between individuals' feelings towards their job and their job performance?* They argued that individuals' feelings towards their job have a noteworthy impact on their job performance. Enhanced attitudes towards their job lead individuals to better performance, whereas poor attitudes towards the job lead individuals to poor performance. But avoiding of dissatisfaction does not lead individuals to a better performance; it just results in performing their duties in the normal way. In other words, just positive attitudes have effect on performance improvement.

There are a lot of critiques against two-factor theory. First of all, Herzberg's view of individual's nature in terms of splitting it between psychological and biological is criticized. It is proposed that the mind and body are closely related to each other. Secondly, there is critique about lack of parallel relationship between *hygiene* and *motivator* factors. For instance, with new company policies (*hygiene factors*) an individual could like his/her work (*motivator factor*) more than before. It is also argued that even though individuals have similar needs, everyone has different values. Values have significant impact on individuals in terms of attitudes towards their jobs. For this reason, not everybody puts the same value on money, recognition or promotion and etc. (Tietjen and Myers, 1998).

In *Two-Factor Theory*, Herzberg (1966) continued Maslow's need of hierarchy. It is argued that *motivators* are seen as Maslow's higher needs and therefore *hygiene factors* can be considered as the lowest level needs in the Maslow hierarchy pyramid (Gee and Burke, 2001). The most important issue here is, in order to motivate an individual, both factors should be considered.

3.2.4 McClelland's Theory of Needs

David McClelland's motivation theory (1961) which is also known as "Three-Need Theory" or "Learned Need Theory" consists of three main needs for human motivation, and consequently human behavior.

The reason for referring McClelland's theory as "Learned Need Theory" is McClelland's perspective that the individuals' needs are gained and shaped over time by their experiences, their demographic information, the culture of the society, and etc. These three needs that individuals can learn over time are classified as; need for achievement (nAch), need for affiliation (nAff), and need for power (nPow) (McClelland, 1961). N Ach is "*the desire to do something better or more efficiently, solve problems, or master complex tasks*" (Schermerhorn *et al.*, 1994; 172). N Aff is "*a need for love, belongingness and relatedness; a person who seeks jobs high in social interaction shows this need*" (Gordon, 1991; 139). N Pow is "*the desire to be influential to lead and control people, and change the situations*" (Pattayanak, 2005; 180).

Unlike Maslow, McClelland did not differentiate between any certain transitions among the needs. He indicates that some people have higher levels of one need than others, but doesn't make an order of these needs. Since these needs can be modified over time in McClelland's theory, it seems that it is possible to shape one's need profile through some training programs or some change programs within the organization of which the individual is a member.

McClelland was so interested by the results of some tests that he has applied on people (McClelland's Theory of Needs; www.netmba.com) by which he saw that some people have very strong needs to achieve whilst the majority of people are not motivated in this way. Thus, he mainly focused on the need for achievement in his research (Motivational Needs, www.arrod.co.uk). N Ach is defined as "*the drive which some people have to pursue and attain goals*" (Pattanayak, 2005; 179).

An achievement motivated person perceives the achievement of his/her goals –we can say intrinsic motivators- as the main reward, which is more satisfying for him/her than extrinsic motivators such as money, title, status, and etc. (Salaman *et al.*, 2005). They usually set

challenging but realistic goals for themselves instead of putting either a little challenging goal with low risk or a highly challenging goal with high risk. They prefer to put as much effort as they can in order to reach their goals as long as they see it as an achievable goal, because which in the end will contribute to their personal development. Therefore, anything that limits the high achievers' autonomy and prevents them from achieving their goals results in demotivation.

Another distinctive characteristic of high achievers is that they need continuous feedback and information about their performance (Achievement Motivation; www.accel-team.com). They are not interested in comments about their personalities but their job-related performance. This characteristic of achievement motivated people can be the most salient one that distinguishes them from affiliation motivated and power motivated people. Affiliation motivated people look for good relationships with their colleagues, they seek approval and individual liking of others, they need to feel accepted in a cooperative environment, and they enjoy receiving feedback about their social skills contrary to achievement motivated people. In this sense, the need for affiliation is similar to Maslow's social needs.

Then, power motivated people have strong needs to lead and manage people, they care about their prestige and status, and they do not pay that much attention to people's thoughts around them. This sounds like an appropriate profile to be a manager and/or a leader.

3.2.5 Vroom's Expectancy Theory

The expectancy theory is originally developed by Vroom (1964). He stated that individuals make decisions on various alternatives in terms of their beliefs, values, perception, attitudes and goals. In other words, it is a function that an individual's perception about their environment in which he/she is and the expectations that he/she forms in regards to this perception (Fudge and Schlacter, 1999). Expectancy theory is described by three components; *expectancy*, *instrumentality* and *valence* (Vroom, 1964).

(1) *Expectancy* is the probability that effort will lead the individual to successful performance. The range of expectancy is zero to one; zero expectancy means that there is no possible outcome for individual at the end of the action. On the other hand, an expectancy of one

means that an individual's effort will certainly lead him/her to successful performance. Experiences, skills and self-confidence can be seen as effects on individual's performance (Vroom, 1964; Chiang and Jang, 2007; Lee, 2007). This component is also called E-P (effort-performance) expectancy (Vroom, 1964; Isaac *et al.* 2001; Fudge and Schlacter, 1999). Individuals with high E-P expectancy are more motivated than the individuals with low E-P expectancy. It is so clear that the person who has more experiences and self-confidence will perform better than the person who has not so much experiences and self-confidence.

(2) *Instrumentality* is the individual's perception of probability that good performance will lead to desired outcome (Lee, 2007; 790). In other words, the reward that individual will get depends on his/her performance level that he/she performs. Trust, control over individual and policies have impact on individual's perception towards instrumentality. This component is also called P-O (performance-outcome) expectancy (Isaac *et al.* 2001; Fudge and Schlacter, 1999). It is obvious that the person who performs better than the others will reach better outcomes.

(3) *Valence* is "*affective orientations toward particular outcomes*" (Vroom, 1964; 15). According to Vroom (1964),

"an outcome is positively valent when the person prefers attaining it to not attaining it" (pp. 15).

In other words, *valence* is the value that individual puts on the reward. It is possible to see the difference between the desired satisfaction from an outcome (*valence*) and the real satisfaction from an outcome (*value*) (Lee, 2007; 789). Preferences, needs, goals and desires have impact on how much value the individual puts on the reward. If the reward is important for the individual, then he/she will be more motivated than normal in order to get this reward.

Expectancy theory is presented as follows by Vroom (1964);

Motivation Force = Expectancy x Instrumentality x Valence

This formula can be shown as following figure in an enhanced way;

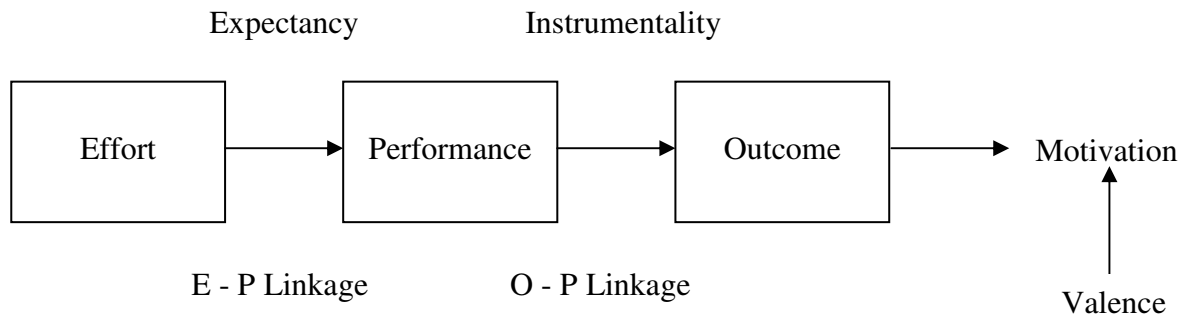


Figure 3.4 The Expectancy Theory Model

Source: Motivating Employees to Act Ethically: An Expectancy Theory Approach by Fudge, Schlacter, 1999.

Vroom (1964) clearly declares that an individual will be motivated if all the three components are present. First of all, individuals should put some value on an outcome; no one wants to put in any effort for something that is worthless. Secondly, individuals should believe that correct behavior leads them to the valent outcome; thus, in order to attain specific outcome, you have to follow the right path. Lastly, individuals should have the capability of doing the task which leads them to the desired outcome. Without the capability of doing the task, we cannot talk about expectancy of reaching the valent reward.

3.2.6 Self-Determination Theory

Self-determination theory is based on four theories; Cognitive Evaluation Theory, Organismic Integration Theory, Causality Orientations Theory, and Basic Needs Theory (Deci and Ryan, 1985). These theories respectively emphasize the social context on intrinsic motivation, internalization with respect to extrinsic motivation, individual differences about people's behavior in regards to support their self-determination, and people's tendency to achieve psychological health and well-being (Self-Determination Theory, www.psych.rochester.edu). Since the theory is such a broad one; in our research, we are going to focus only on the parts that are relevant to our case.

According to self-determination theory; there are human needs for self-determination, distinct from needs arising from tissue deficits such as hunger and thirst, which also constitute the first level of Maslow's pyramid. The theory maintains that an understanding of human

motivation requires a consideration of innate psychological needs for competence, autonomy, and relatedness while emphasizing that these needs specify the necessary conditions for psychological growth, integrity, and well-being (Miller, 1998; 253). These needs appear:

“to be essential for facilitating optimal functioning of the natural propensities for growth and integration, as well as for constructive social development and personal well-being” (Ryan and Deci, 2000b; 68).

Another issue that the theory highlights is that, intrinsic motivation is the motivation to meet these needs, and when people are intrinsically motivated, they experience themselves as self-determining and they perceive their behavior as being caused by their own choice (Miller, 1998; 253).

In the theory, what is meant by competence is the pleasure in being effective; autonomy is the self-regulation and self-organization; and relatedness is the tendency to cohere with one's group, to feel connection and caring, to internalize group needs and values in order to coordinate with others (Deci and Ryan, 2000b).

3.2.7 The Job Characteristics Model

The job characteristics model (JCM) is one of the most well-known and comprehensive theories which deals with both the work system and the worker's individual preferences (Burton and Thakur 1995; Torraco, 2005). Hackman and Oldham developed and identified five core job characteristics likely to motivate and satisfy employees (Pinnington and Edwards, 2000; Parker and Wall, 1998).

The authors recommend three basic conditions for internal motivation. First, the individual must have knowledge of the results of his/her work; in other words, if the individual does not know how well he/she performs the job, naturally he/she will not have any feeling about that. Secondly, the individual must experience responsibility for the results of work. For example, if the individual feels his/her performance has merely a marginal effect on the total quality of the work outcome, he/she will not produce any feeling such as pride. Thirdly, the individual must experience work as meaningful. Hence, if the individual does not perceive his/her work

as important and valuable, he/she will not be motivated internally. Hackman and Oldham claim that all these three factors are essential to create and sustain a strong internal work motivation (Pinnington and Edwards, 2000; 132).

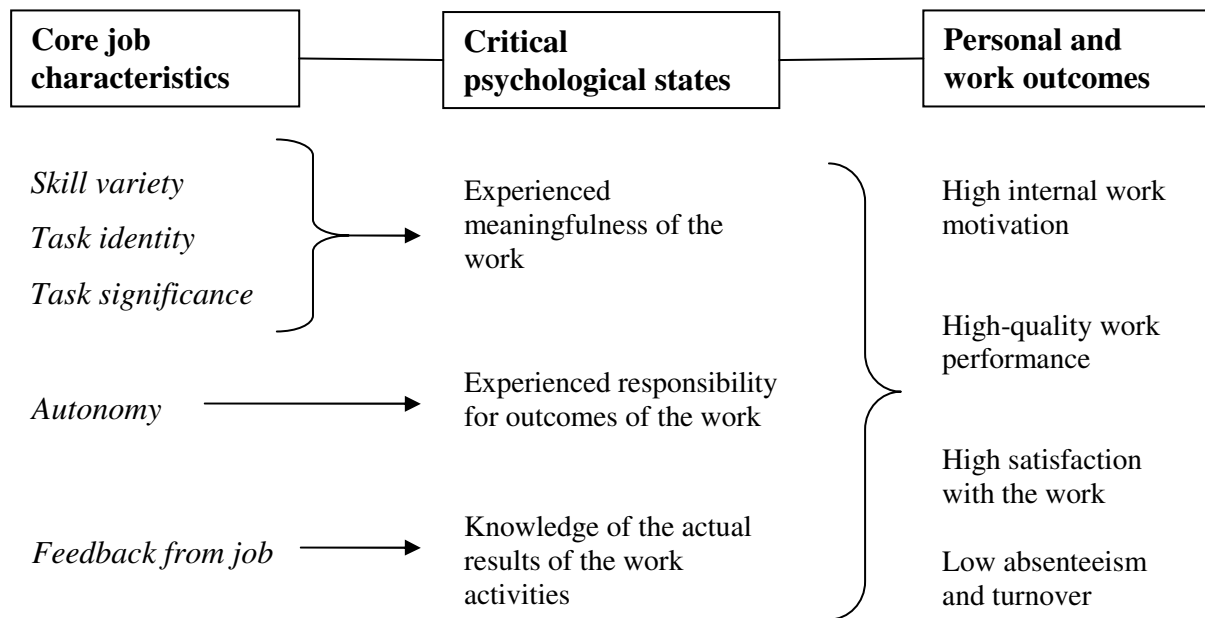


Figure 3.5 Hackman and Oldham’s Job Characteristics Approach

Source: *Management Today: Principles and Practice* (Figure 6.6 p.167) by Gene Burton, Manab Thakur, 1995.

The three mentioned conditions for internal motivation are facilitated by five core job characteristics which are skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback from the job (Burton and Thakur, 1995; Parker and Wall, 1998; Kleinbeck, 1990).

“(1) Skill variety is the degree to which the job requires different skills. (2)Task identity signifies the degree to which the job involves completing a whole, identifiable piece of work rather than simply a part. (3)Task significance is the extent to which the job has an impact on other people, inside or outside the organization. (4)Autonomy is defined by the authors as the extent to which the job allows jobholders to exercise choice and discretion in their work. (5)Feedback from the job represents the extent to which the job itself provides jobholders with information on their performance” (Parker and Wall, 1998; 11-12).

“The first three characteristics lead to experiencing work as meaningful; the fourth leads to experiencing responsibility for outcomes of the work; and the fifth leads to knowing the actual results of the work” (Pinnington and Edwards, 2000; 132).

As Herzberg, Hackman and Oldham concentrate on changeable aspects of the job in order to increase employee motivation. The theory focuses on designing jobs in order to enhance high work motivation, satisfaction and performance; and in a sense, it can be seen as a useful version of expectancy theory because of its prescribed five specific areas and easy measurability in practice (Parker and Wall, 1998; Pinnington and Edwards, 2000).

3.3 Closing Remarks on Motivation Theories

Content and process theories of motivation can help practitioners understand how to motivate employees. They enable employers to gain a better insight into what motivates their employees.

Content theories of motivation describe what motivates human beings. Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, Herzberg’s two-factor theory, Alderfer’s ERG theory and McClelland’s need theory were discussed within this part of the research. All these content theories represent individualist conception of motivation, and highlight the importance of individual achievement by underestimating social contribution (Pinnington and Edwards, 2000; 127).

“These theories have also been criticized for propounding a male-dominant perspective on motivation. They have been described as being too specific to national culture in which they were developed and for promoting a gender-specific view of reality that favors men by prioritizing motivation in the workplace above motivation in other contexts such as home and family” (Pinnington and Edwards, 2000; 127).

Process theories of motivation, which primarily seek answers for how to motivate people, have the advantage over content theories by explaining the ‘how’ dimension, instead of ‘what’. However, practitioners have found it difficult to implement such as expectancy theory in their organization and they have often questioned the benefits from doing so. Maybe that is why Hackman and Oldham’s theory of job design is seen as a useful version of expectancy

theory. It prescribes five specific areas of work organization to which practitioners can attend in practice (Pinnington and Edwards, 2000; 134).

Maslow's hierarchy of needs	Alderfer's ERG theory	Herzberg's two factor theory	McClelland's theory of needs	Hackman's and Oldham's JCM
Self Actualization	Growth	Motivators	Need for achievement	Job characteristics
Esteem			Need for power	
Love	Relatedness		Need for affiliation	Work context
Safety	Existence	Hygiene factors		
Physiological				

Figure 3.5 Linking Motivation Theories

Source: Illustrated from Organizational Behavior: A Management Challenge by Kern, Langlands, Stroh, Northcraft, Neale, 2001.

Consequently, process and content theories of motivation are useful and they help to secure better understanding of the subject. However, there are various critiques for the limited applicability of their principles in practice, for being biased towards Western individualistic culture, for drawing up a universalistic view, for presenting often implicitly male-dominant view of work and family, and for too much focus on individual differences of motivation without any emphasis of the role of group and environmental factors (Pinnington and Edwards, 2000; 135).

4. THE CASE INTRODUCTION

In the following chapter, we will introduce readers to the university as a workplace and the selected institution that we have collaborated with in order to enable readers to view a broader work context. The participants of the story will also be introduced in the final part of the chapter.

4.1 University as a Workplace

All higher education in Sweden is offered at state-run universities, university colleges and institutions of higher education or by independent program providers who have a contract with the state. Their operations are governed by the statutes and regulations that apply in the field of higher education. They are also regulated by the framework and resources determined by the Riksdag and the Government. Within this framework of regulations and parameters, the higher education institutions enjoy a great deal of freedom. The institutions themselves decide how to plan their operations, utilize their resources, organize their own programs and decide on salaries for all employees (except for the Vice-Chancellor or President).

The higher education institutions in Sweden have three main tasks. Besides teaching and research, they are required to interact with the surrounding community and to provide information about their activities. The Swedish National Agency for Higher Education is the agency that supervises higher education institutions in Sweden. This means that it ensures their compliance with the laws and regulations that apply to higher education. It also checks whether the higher education institutions fulfill their obligations correctly.

The operations of higher education institutions are funded to a great extent by state allocations. They receive funding for undergraduate programs based on the number of enrolments and student performance. They also receive funding to be used for postgraduate programs and research. The higher education institutions may also receive external funding from research councils, foundations, local authorities, county councils and commercial companies.

Source: Swedish National Agency for Higher Education, www.hsv.se.

4.2 The Selected Institution

Lund University is respected as one of the best universities in Scandinavia. The university is located in the city of Lund, which lies in Southern Sweden close to Malmö, Denmark and northern Germany. It also has a softer climate compared to other regions of Sweden. The region is internationally recognized for research and the atmosphere at the university –as a place to work- is vibrant and stimulating.

There is a very strong international aspect to both the teaching and the research conducted at Lund University. Research has a strong international element with many international researchers choosing to work at Lund.

The university is a member of Universitas 21, an international network of 16 other leading research intensive universities from around the world; a member of League of European Research Universities (LERU), an association of research intensive universities; a member of Öresund University, a network of 12 universities in Southern Sweden; and the university also collaborates with other universities in southern Sweden. All these networks facilitate collaboration and research for the university.

In the Lund University School of Economic and Management (LUSEM), of which our participants are members, the research environment is characterized by an aspiration towards excellence, and one of their basic goals is to pursue research on a high international level.

2.1 billion Swedish Kronor goes to the training of new researchers which results in approximately 500 doctoral dissertations each year. Also the externally funded research projects are extensive and the activities within the Institute of Economic Research are completely funded by private grants. All of the university's eight faculties have active research programs with opportunities for Ph.D.s.

As of 2007, there are 1314 (27% women) professors, lecturers and others with a Doctor's Degree at the university, 905 (40% women) other teachers and researchers, 1052 (46% women) Post Graduate Fellowships, and 1764 (65% women) technical and administrative employees working at Lund University.

Source: Lund University, www.lu.se; School of Economics and Management, www.fek.lu.se.

4.3 The Participants of the Story

A of individuals will appear throughout our story and give their opinions on various issues about the research topic. Therefore, in the following paragraphs, we will briefly introduce the participants in order to give the reader an idea about who they are.

John Parker is a 41 year old associate professor at Lund University. Besides being an academic, he also has an admin role at the department that sometimes bores him due to routines and standardized practices. He is married, and has a 6 years old child. His academic background is based on Lund University, both a Master degree and a PhD. He defines himself as a curious person which is seen as the main driver to choose this occupation. He is very self-confident, and has an inspirational style.

James Sawyer is a very charismatic associate professor and, in terms of age, is the most senior person among all the participants. Besides his academic work, he has also several intensive managerial roles in the university which he thinks are very heavy and limit his time for research. He is married but no child. He took his bachelor in politics, philosophy, and economics at the University of Oxford, UK. He moved to Sweden to have an academic career abroad. After obtaining his PhD degree, he worked for the National Institute in Stockholm. He was very happy with what he was doing there, but after his wife got a job in Malmö, he chose to work at Lund University where the colleagues were very attractive to work with.

Tina Allen is one of the most interesting participants interviewed in terms of background and the perspective of being an academic. She is 35 years old and a PhD student at the university. She is married and has a child. After she worked as a nurse for 7 years in Uppsala, she moved to Malmö due to her husband's new job. Now as a PhD student, she tries to combine her former work practices into the research; budget controls in health care systems. Allen describes herself as an analytical person and likes to read and look deeper into things. After a practical occupation, she enjoys to work for a research project that is fully granted by the government. As a doctoral student, she is not aware of many issues around academic life yet.

Jack Shepherd is a 36 year old associate professor. He is married but no kids. Shepherd took his bachelor, master and PhD degrees at Lund University. He studied psychology and sociology in the beginning but he ended up studying business in order to find a job. He

actually hated business administration, because he thought that it was not an academic work at all. But then he met with critical theory, which was the thing he wanted to do. This was the main driver for him to be an academic. He loves reading and writing even in his leisure time.

Mary Brown is in her thirties and a doctor at the institution. She describes herself as a curious and stubborn person. She has work experience in a consultancy firm before choosing an academic career. Mary is an extrovert person, and gives attention to social relations with her colleagues. She likes to learn new things and challenges which brought about the decision to be a researcher. She gave a very energetic and positive impression during the entire interview.

Sebastian Carol is from the south of Sweden, is at the age of 50, married, and has 2 kids. He took his bachelor, master, and PhD degree in Lund University and has been living in Lund for about 35 years now. Carol is an associate professor at the department but he usually sees himself as a researcher. He has published books and many articles about leadership and identity. As is common among the participants, Carol also likes reading and writing a lot and studying in his chambers, but he likes doing empirical works in the field as well. It was one of the most fruitful interviews thanks to his supreme knowledge of the professional area that we investigate, and his understanding towards interview questions and giving satisfying answers for them.

Having introduced the participants, now we will move on to the analysis part of the research in the next chapter.

5. FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

This part of thesis aims to make sense of the results of empirical materials which are obtained through several interviews in the selected institution. The empirical findings are analyzed in a reflexive way through theoretical background in order to evaluate and understand participants' perceptions towards their work context, job characteristics and the main drivers for motivation in academia.

5.1 Is Maslow Really Out of Date? If So, Who Is the Best?

It is clear that, our motivational level affects our attitudes towards our job and furthermore it affects our performance and relationship with our colleagues in the end. If something bad happened or is happening around us, even though it is not our problem, it makes us frustrated, which might change all our good opinions and attitudes towards our job. The environment which we are part of; in other words, work context, which is also defined as *hygiene* factors by Herzberg (1966), has a big impact on dissatisfaction at work. We are spending more time at work than at home, usually more than 40 hours a week. Since individuals spend the most of their lives in the workplace, work context becomes really important. There are a lot of studies regarding the importance of the environment and other factors which affect people's motivation stated in literature such as Herzberg (1966), Maslow (1943), Hackman and Oldham and etc.

When Abraham Maslow developed a foundational theory on motivation in 1943, probably he did not expect his study to attain such fame and an influence on future contributions in the field. But, what was the main reason behind this success? Why did many scholars discuss the theory after him? Why did they build their theories on Maslow? Why is it still the most well-known motivation theory among the practitioners today? It is hard to know the answers for these questions; maybe it was because of pioneering, maybe just popularity or maybe something else. The theory can be seen as conventional or out of date in today's conditions; however, we strongly believe that its contributions are still valuable for the field of organizational behavior and the case under investigation.

Maslow (1943), as discussed deeply in the frames of the reference part of the study, defined basic needs of human being and organized these needs into five categories in ascending order; physiological, safety, social belonging, esteem and self-actualization (Brenner, 1999). He constructed a hierarchical pyramid in which individuals climb up a higher level when they gratify a lower order need. At this point, we have chosen the movies about lonely island as a dramatic and interesting example in order to try to illustrate the main principles of the theory and to help readers gain a different perspective as well.

Think about Robinson Crusoe...When he fell on the lonely island, first he tries to find food, and then he builds shelter. Now he is ready for going up one more step in Maslow's Pyramid. He meets with a character named Friday. Robinson satisfies not only his social needs but also his self-esteem needs by entering Friday into his life. He reinforces his self respect by teaching Friday his own language. On the other hand, the main character in the movie "Castaway" is not as lucky as Robinson. His socialization needs come out without building a shelter. The hero draws a face on a ball, gives him a name, and speaks with him. In order to reveal their self-actualization, our heroes discover new horizons. They make rafts and expand their homes. This originates from not only the necessity of escaping from the island but also the needs of creating something to actualize their potential.

What about our story? Is the picture in "*World of Knowledge*" different than the lonely island draws? What about our heroes? How do "*Knowledge Workers*" climb up these steps? What motivates them at work? Is Maslow out of date in order to answer these questions? If so, which motivational theory is more useful for better explanation of the case? Is Herzberg, Hackman and Oldham, McClelland or someone else better? We think no one has the absolute truths and no one is the best to explain the situation under investigation. Hence, instead of putting them in order according to their validity or importance, we strongly believe that reflexive analysis of the obtained empirical material in the light of interrelated motivational theories will facilitate to answer these kinds of questions in mind.

5.2 Does Money Talk in Secured Academia?

Knowledge workers are seen as high value-added and well-paid elite of a workforce (Brelade and Harman, 2007). It is so clear that, wherever they are working, irrespective of the country

and the size of the company, they are well-paid workers comparing to other kind of employees.

In our case, the picture does not change; academics have no need to worry about their physiological, security or safety needs like most knowledge workers. These lower-order needs are no longer motivators because of the fact that they have very good conditions in terms of income level and a secured working atmosphere. They have other priorities than money such as autonomy, personal development and self-actualization. We got almost the same answers from our interviewees for one of the main questions: “*What motivates you in the workplace?*”

“Salary is not one of the motivators. I mean you earn quite well at university which actually makes me not think about it basically.” (Shepherd)

“Money does not motivate me.” (Sawyer)

Parker, who is a part of salary arrangement mechanism due to his admin role at the department, gave us more detailed information about the issue.

“...Everybody is paid pretty much the same anyway. There are few people who put emphasis on this but not the majority!”

It is obvious that there is an environment where all knowledge workers get enough, maybe more than enough, salary in the institution. Hence, paying more money to them does not change their satisfaction or motivation and performance level. They already have fulfilled this need so it is not perceived as a motivation factor anymore. But if they were paid less money than they needed or wanted, it would cause dissatisfaction or de-motivation, and then they should be paid more until they are satisfied.

Salary is a bit of a tricky subject here. During our interviews, all participants generally declared “*salary is not important.*” But, it must be remembered that each participant also accepted the enjoyment of luxury of getting paid for what they like to do.

“I know it sounds silly but I find it luxury that the state pays me for doing what I have done.” (Shepherd)

“Salary is important. I think it goes in this as well. You get paid for this and I get paid what I like to do.” (Carol)

“...I have the opportunity to really do what I find fun and interesting and I get paid for it so it is such a privileged job.” (Brown)

However, such statements do not prove that salary is the prime motivator for their actions. That is for sure, they do this job because they like doing it; the job itself is enough to motivate them intrinsically, and salary has nothing to do with it.

“...I would say that the salary has nothing to do with academic persons. If people here interested in to get high pay, they would leave this place instantly because I do not pay my colleagues that much. So it is not the reason they stay here. They could easily earn more by doing some other things...” (Parker)

Luxury, as a word, maybe a little bit exaggerated to describe the situation but the word signifies getting paid for something that one likes to do which is vital for motivation. This is almost everybody’s dream due to the fact that they are doing something that they like, as a hobby, and someone pays for it. The biggest motivator here is definitely the thing one does; in other words, work itself is seen as a hobby not as a duty given by someone else. Thus, under this circumstance people do not have to focus on earning money for living; they just focus on what they are doing.

Money is naturally not seen as a motivator in a place where individuals perform the job they like; however, you have to have income, and of course it is nicer to have more than less income.

“Money is a motivator when they [academics] see that they will be paid twice as much as they are paid while they are doing the same job.” (Parker)

Therefore, salary becomes something that some might start to think about because still we are who we are, doing the same things, but earning more money. There is no reason to not to accept it. But the question comes out; is it a motivator factor (Herzberg, 1966)? Definitely

not! Because none of the academics think about more money until someone offers them. But does it affect their performance? Not at all! As it is mentioned previously, they are trying to do their best not because of extrinsic factors such as salary; but because of the feeling of achievement, winning the competition of publishing, possibility of growth, self-actualization and advancement (Herzberg, 1966).

According to Maslow, academics have fulfilled this basic need; they are no more interested in salary and they do not perceive money as a motivator. When it comes to job security, it is clearly seen that there is no worry for that issue either. Universities in Sweden are highly regulated foundations by laws that distinguish them from a traditional knowledge-intensive environment. A university is a quite secured workplace due to the fact that everything in the system is defined clearly and guaranteed by regulations. This may be interpreted as the main source to feel secured at work. However, *Brown*, who is doctor at the department, to some extent talked controversially:

“The reason for me to quit my job at Lund University would probably be that it would be difficult to get an employment because at the moment I am only employed until December. It would be very unsafe future in terms of employment or salary...But at the moment there is no reason to worry.”

Security can also be interpreted in a different way; may be the feelings derive from self-confidence. If an individual is self-confident and believes in his/her capabilities and skills, he/she feels secured inevitably. The degree of self-confidence is naturally higher among knowledge workers, who have intellectual capacity and highly skillful tasks at work. Therefore, academics highly believe that they are really good and they can easily find something else if they quit their job. *Carol* supported this argument by saying that;

“I would identify myself as being the same person independent of if I work here or somewhere else. I do research whenever I can. It would be the same for me.”

According to our findings, knowledge workers in academic life seek something other than money and security. If so, what motivates them at work? We will try to discuss and find an answer to the question in the following parts of the chapter.

5.3 Everybody Loves ME!

Everyone needs to be loved, to belong and to be accepted, and collegial relations can be seen as the main source in order to fulfill these social needs at work.

“I think we have a quite good work environment. Daniel is always doing his after work beer. I mean it is not just to work, social environment also motivates me...And some of these colleagues become close friends.” (Brown)

“...I think I might be de-motivated with some bad relationships with the people in the research or within teaching group in the program, actually that would be really de-motivating. But thankfully, that was not the case...” (Sawyer)

As is seen, many participants gave much attention to social relations, and emphasized its importance for their motivation at work; whilst, some participants highlighted the solitary side of the academic work. As mentioned in McClelland's theory (1961); people in need for achievement usually work alone or with other achievement-motivated people, which is something that has also been derived from our research. So, in this sense; is the university like a lonely island? *Shepherd* and *Parker* attended the discussion as below:

“I think academic work is a solitary work in a sense. I feel sometimes alone. Yes it is social, people work together but it is solitary that you are always on your own...”

“...we have researchers here only do research on their own, never actually collaborate with anyone. And they are perfectly fine with that...The rest of the organization is not that important.”

For some participants, satisfying social needs is quite different than what motivational theories pointed out. For instance, the emphasis which some academics put on a good collegial relationship is to some extent different than McClelland's emphasis on the need for affiliation or Deci & Ryan's emphasis on the need for relatedness. We inferred from some interviews that talking with colleagues in order to share the common interests such as research topics, projects and etc. can be even enough to fulfill social needs at work.

“...If I just take the time, I can learn a lot about different research projects just by listening during the lunches and so on. So it is sort of collegial relations where people are curious.” (Brown)

Since they are all achievement-motivated people with similar backgrounds, they have common subjects to talk about. Many of them are thankful for the opportunity of talking about their articles, giving feedbacks to each other, sharing their knowledge about the subjects which are interesting for all of them. In this sense, can we say that beneficial acceptance by peers undermines innocence of being loved? Or do not academics have the opportunity to satisfy the love need in academia?

Brenner (1999) claims that people often try to fulfill needs which are not gratified in the workplace and vice versa. For example, someone who cannot find any challenge at work may try to fulfill his/her need for achievement by attending a master course after work. Another one may satisfy a social need thanks to friends outside the workplace or family as in the case of *Parker*:

“I tend to not socialize with colleagues here, what I prefer is that friends outside the academia... I tend to only go to events at the university, ones that I have to... I try to avoid that if I can; because I have a bad conscious that I am not spending too much time with my family.”

Therefore, what motivates us depends on who we are, as well as where we are in our lives. Every individual has a different personality, history, belief and attitude. In this sense, we can say that Maslow's theory draws a too definite line between each level of needs; but in fact, the line would be gray or blurred since sometimes we can achieve multiple levels of satisfaction from one step in the hierarchy (Brenner, 1999; 2), and sometimes we can jump into higher step(s) without satisfaction or fulfillment of the lower ones. For instance, some people can give more importance to self-esteem needs or self-actualization than social needs.

5.4 Academics as Politicians, When It Comes to Symbolic Meanings

Status, title and recognition can appear physically in the form of a private office with distinctive furniture, the size of work space, corner office with a nice view, business cards and

so forth. How much importance do these kinds of symbolic meanings have for the academics? Do these symbols really affect their motivational level? That seems a bit ambiguous and debatable since there are many different voices;

“This is not an issue that affects me personally but there are quite emotionally charged discussion and debates currently, because we have room moving and big changes going on at the moment. It is symbolic. Quite senior people, hardly ever here, doing consultant or doing research, never use their rooms. And should they have a room which they never use? And people are here all the time, doing teaching, why should they squeeze up and share with other people?” (Sawyer)

“...I do not care larger rooms or title at all. But I care people who care these kinds of things and this a bit de-motivates me.” (Shepherd)

Participants generally have the same assumption: *“The symbolic meanings such as room size, status and title do not affect my motivational level but that seems they are motivators for many other colleagues.”*

“I think this is a generation issue as well because when I look at my elder colleagues who have been here for 15-20 years and more, it is quite obvious for me that they are motivated more by the symbols; having the corner office and stuff like that...” (Parker)

From a critical perspective, we may question the sincerity of the answers. For instance, *Mary Brown* answered the related question as;

“I would love to have a room by myself and not be stuck with other two (Laughter). If I was a professor, I would get. That is symbolic actually but I do not really get affected.”

So does she really care it, or not? If she is not affected, why does she desire a larger room? Or would *Shepherd* be one of those people who care for this issue? Of course, you never know the answers of such critical questions but they are useful and helpful for the discovery of

interests and ideologies behind the expressive behavior. We think *Carol's* words are valuable here to end up this discussion.

“I think to some extent symbolic things affect people’s motivation level. I think they are important and we should not underestimate. You know we are human beings and it is the same in all societies. However, we should not exaggerate their significance for us too.”

Title as a symbolic meaning is also inevitably linked to motivation. Challenges on climbing up the hierarchical steps of academia are described as one of the most significant intrinsic motivational driver by many participants of our story.

“Challenge obviously motivates me. You challenge with yourself; what I can do, how far I can go...I think to climb in hierarchy within academic setting motivated me when I started up. Obviously, I tried to climb in that.” (Parker)

“I think you are eager to try to get a position and position is important...There is slight hierarchy within the system in which you try to somehow climb through these ladders...I guess that could be a kind of motivator; I am going to be a professor and work hard for that...”(Carol)

Every individual knows what it takes to get there thanks to clarity of the system. Rules are quite clear; protocols and regulations are there to define ambiguities regarding workspace, access to sources, and etc. That seems it helps to some extent resolving the problems around these symbolic issues.

5.5 Would You Ever Think About Gender Issues in Such a Professional Workplace?

Human beings, intrinsically, are complaining beings if there is something wrong; but on the other hand, if everything is perfect, we generally do nothing. In other words, when everything goes well, there is no need to complain or think about it. Frustration can bring about complaints and may cause de-motivation in the end. *Shepherd* mentioned gender issues which lead him to frustration;

“...I don’t like the gender problems within academia. It is hard to be a woman. I have not experienced myself, of course (Laughter), but my closest friends told me... Also I met some women who say that it is really hard to know that whether the compliment is for my text or is an invitation for bed.”

Being aware of the gender problem, even though he has not experienced himself, makes him frustrated. Although there are a lot of laws and regulations, gender issue is a debatable subject in today’s organizations because there is not a certain way to reveal this discrimination. All participants, except one, declared that they have not faced any gender issue within the institution. But then our two women participants added;

“I realized that there are many men at higher level” (Brown)

“I can see that there are few females in higher positions.”(Allen)

It is not hard to see that there are almost no females in higher positions. But does “they have no experience yet” mean that “they are not going to gain experience in the future”? Of course, nobody can answer this question, but it seems they have these kind of questions in their minds about the future that one day they may not go further up on the steps because of the gender issue.

During the interviews, participants always used the word “frustration” and always asked themselves if “do these factors de-motivate them?” They generally answered the question as “No!” It looks as if there is almost nothing that affects their motivation. That means there are a lot of things that frustrate them to some extent, but it never de-motivates them at work in a general sense. However, it must be remembered that the line between being frustrated and de-motivated is very blurred or gray. Therefore, if someone is very critical or suspicious to the answer “*It frustrates me but does not de-motivate*”; consequently, he/she can name frustration as de-motivation and it is possible to see many things as reasons for de-motivation within the institution. Yet, if a person is not so critical, it looks like there is almost no factor that leads academics to de-motivation within the university. So once again, would you ever think about gender issues as a source for frustration or “de-motivation” in such a professional work environment? We would not!

5.6 Fun of the Job Itself Strengthens Academics' Enormous Intrinsic Motivation

According to both self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and the contributions of our interviewees, individuals need more competence because it reinforces their intrinsic motivation and their self-confidence for learning new stuff, adapting to new challenges, and achieving their goals. When they are intrinsically motivated, they feel they are competent and they experience the enjoyment and fun of their jobs. Besides that, once this competence is combined with autonomy, they feel the self-consciousness and self-determination in their jobs, they accept everything as being caused by them; and accordingly they take responsibility.

Intrinsically motivated individuals have more interest, excitement, and confidence, which in turn enhance performance, persistence, and creativity. Autonomy and competence underlie intrinsic motivation (Deci and Gagne, 2005; 336) and these are the fundamental elements that support producing the variability in intrinsic motivation (Deci and Ryan, 2000; 69, 71). In our case, people are rather intrinsically motivated because they do their jobs for the fun and the challenge involved in it; the reward that they perceive is in the activity. Participants' answers to the question "*What motivates you in the workplace?*" enabled us to understand the surprisingly high intrinsic motivation that they have:

"...making research makes me feel good. I think one of the most important things that a person has to think about is whether you find the work that connects somehow what you want to do, or not..." (Carol)

"...it is the interest of learning a subject quite well and to be good at something."
(Allen)

"... all the fun of the work motivates me." (Brown)

5.7 Why are Academics Self-Actualized?

In light of McClelland's needs theory, our sample can be categorized as achievement-motivated people who have "*the desire to do something better or more efficiently, solve problems, or master complex tasks*" (Schermerhorn *et al.*, 1994; 172).

The main motivator for people in need for achievement would be allowing them to achieve their goals, and any obstacle that they face during this process would be a de-motivator. They have the ambition and passion to do something perfectly, to do research about complex concepts, and to concentrate on their goals –one of which can be being published for our sample. They perceive this goal as something achievable and challenging, but not easy at all. They take personal responsibility for what they write which also allows them to feel satisfied with their achievements. They perceive having larger responsibilities as their reward. They are aware that the articles which they write are the outcome of their own effort and own skills. They think that they have challenging tasks which is seen as a crucial source of intrinsic motivation by many achievement-motivated people. The most noteworthy statement that strengthens our definition for our sample as achievement-motivated people is *John Parker's* sentence;

“..I want to challenge myself, to see what I can do, how far I can go”

This argument is more convincing in combination with Brown and Sawyer's declaration:

“...when I started my education, I found it very difficult and hard, I was not very successful. But then I said “ok, how cannot be?”... I am very curious and very stubborn person -which is probably why I am here- because I want to learn new stuff and new challenges and so on.”

“...I am really ambitious as a knowledge worker or an academic... having the opportunity to explore new areas motivates me.”

Brown believes that she has the competence for this job, and she feels sure of herself being successful if she pushes harder. She knows that it is not easy, but not impossible either. She even finds it exciting and challenging to put in more effort in order to achieve this goal, which is one of the characteristics of achievement-motivated people as McClelland claims.

According to Maslow, self-actualization signifies a need for accomplishment and personal development. It also refers to the ability to self-actualize and reach individual potential. As it is inferred from our investigation, the needs for self-actualization and personal development are very crucial for work motivation in academia. For example, *Allen* from nursing and *Brown*

from consulting transferred to academic environment since they both strongly believe that academia is the right place to develop themselves and fulfill these needs to actualize what they look for; researching, writing, publishing and so forth. *Carol* also described how self-actualization is important for him by these words:

“For me research means coming back to being you, self-actualization ...I think I would leave here if I felt that it is impossible for self-actualizing; the things I am doing now are not the things I really want to do. This does not make me feel good any more.”

As it can be concluded from our interviews, academics are self-actualized and achievement-motivated people. They are realistically oriented, problem-centered -rather than self-centered-, autonomous, independent, and in need of integrity. Therefore, autonomy and flexibility are seen as sine qua non in their work context.

5.6 Autonomy; My Precious

As it has already been mentioned; knowledge workers like learning new things, developing themselves in their field, being productive, creative, autonomous, and innovative; whilst they do not like ambiguity and uncertainty. Being curious, creative, innovative, ambitious, self-confident, and being in need of high autonomy can be described as their identical characteristics. Freedom to decide when and where to work, and more control over their environment are the most crucial factors that affect knowledge workers' motivation level, as seen by our investigation.

“...What motivates me is the privileged job; really control and decide your own schedule. There is no one who says ‘do that’...There is enormous freedom. ” (Brown)

“Space and freedom to think and write really motivates me.” (Shepherd)

Academics put emphasis on autonomy and flexibility within the university, and they are really satisfied with this element of their job. As Hackman and Oldham claim, five core job characteristics - skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback from the

job- are essential to create and sustain a strong internal work motivation (Burton and Thakur, 1995, Parker and Wall, 1998, Kleinbeck, 1990). According to authors, autonomy signifies that *“the extent to which the job allows jobholders to exercise choice and discretion in their work”* (Pinnington and Edwards, 2000; 132).

As it is emphasized, autonomy is vital for strong intrinsic motivation for academics and any limitation on the subject of their autonomy is perceived as aggression towards their freedom at work. *Carol* contributed to the argument with these words:

“I think there are three tendencies in university today; centralization, standardization and transparency, which I do not like at all...That brings about paper-based work, documentation, reporting and stuff like that... I have less time to do research because my time is becoming regulated by managerial monitory...That frustrates and demotivates me.”

For instance, the autonomy to control their time is one of the most important aspects for academics. They need time due to the fact that they are not just sitting and writing an article; instead, they do research, read, think, re-think and they take their time to feel ready to write. In this context, they complained about the more standardized roles, reporting, administrative tasks like booking rooms, sending information e-mails to students, etc.

“...increasing administrative pressure steals my research time...They are all small tasks of course, but taking together they can consume half a work day. And four hours is quite a long time. I can write a chapter in four hours.” (*Shepherd*)

“...managerial things are sometimes natural but annoying me. I want to be left alone from them. To some extent it reduces my autonomy about what I could do with my time.” (*Carol*)

Almost all of the interviewees expressed and emphasized these kinds of complaints as examples of limitations to their autonomy. Another issue that they perceive as a limitation to their autonomy is the hierarchical structure within the organization. They think that the hierarchical structure disrupts their autonomy -their greatest motivator at work. One of our interviewees exemplified this hierarchical structure within the organization as below:

“...There are different disciplines in business administration such as organization, marketing, accounting, strategy, entrepreneurship, international economy, finance, and so on. They consist of researchers and teachers. Then one level above, they are run by so called troika; three people as the leader of that discipline...I am a bit uncertain what they do actually. For instance, when I constructed a course in marketing for next autumn, I wrote the whole course, the books, and everything like that. Then all of a sudden I heard about “well you haven’t asked the troika about the choice of the books.” I have been working for 10 years. Do I need to? It’s my course. I decide. You don’t decide. I decide! I am the expert. You need to pass the troika. The troika means blessing of basically the course. Is that a catholic church or something? I was really annoyed. It was almost like an argument to appear. This was something I didn’t understand, I still don’t understand; the troika. I have no clue...”

The interviewee explains his discomfort about the situation in such a way that enables us to observe his de-motivation. So how did he handle this problem? When this question was asked to him, he said;

“I didn’t care basically. I sent the file in anyway. I got annoyed. Then I just said “this is my course, so what do you want?””

It is clearly seen that he found this situation as an attack on his autonomy, and such an experience strongly affects his motivation level. It can be inferred from his way of handling the situation, he has confidence with what he is doing, he likes to take responsibility, and he believes that he has the relevant competence. Thus, he prefers to be the one who decides what he does and does not do.

Knowledge workers highly need autonomy to plan their working hours and to make their own decisions about their jobs in order to work in the most efficient way with a high level of motivation. Some of our interviewees defined autonomy as “*practical freedom*”; whilst others defined it as “*delivery of freedom*” or “*relative freedom of thought and expression*”. Whatever it is called, it is clearly seen that the outcomes of the interviews display a highly positive and strong relationship between the autonomy that they have and their motivation

level. *Jack Shepherd's* statement in the following lines is the evidence revealing the importance of autonomy for them;

"...if people tell me that I can not critique the department, the state, the king, the professor, I would stop directly and just leave the institution. If I lose that freedom, the game is over basically, and then I can do something else."

As participants pointed out, any attacks to their castle of freedom might easily de-motivate them; therefore, it is obvious that more space for self-actualization is the most essential factor in academia for strong internal work motivation.

5.7 My profession: Saving the World

In their job characteristics model, beside autonomy Hackman and Oldham also point out the significance of a meaningful job for strong internal work motivation. If the individual does not perceive his/her work as important and valuable, he/she will not be motivated internally. Skill variety, task identity and task significance are the job characteristics which enable jobholders to experience work as meaningful. As authors claim, it is not necessary to experience these three factors together; one or two may satisfy a jobholder, and he/she may feel and experience his/her work as meaningful. As pointed out previously, knowledge workers have highly skillful tasks to perform their job. Hence, skill variety is one of the main characteristics of their work, and this situation is the same in academia as well.

In addition to skill variety, there is a focus on task significance; *"the extent to which the job has an impact on other people, inside or outside the organization"* (Pinnington and Edwards, 2000; 132). Significant tasks are seen as one of the prime motivators for internal motivation among our participants. Their definitions of their jobs and the tasks they are responsible for are worth mentioning:

"As an academic, my task is to give to society; to give to part of society where there is interest. My thoughts and my studies which are regardless done and which can be combined with everybody else contribute to develop knowledge within the society."
(Parker)

How many people in the world can describe their job in the way *John Parker* does? How many of them can emphasize their job significance similarly? As is clearly seen, the task is very significant for *Parker* and many of his colleagues, and this naturally brings about strong internal motivation at work. However, it must be remembered that job characteristics are defined by jobholders through their own perception. Thus, individuals construct their own meanings about their work by themselves. If *John Parker* views his job as significant, it is just because of his own perception. In this sense, what about a manager's role? Can they affect their workers' attitudes, beliefs or perceptions toward what they do at work? For instance, let us consider a telephone operator who manages telephone traffic in an organization. He/she comes to work every day to do the same job. It is likely he will experience his/her job as meaningless and view him/herself as a useless person. What about his/her motivation? Without intrinsic motivation how far can he/she go? Also, what should a manager do to change this situation?

Another issue is the reality that every individual has different perceptions and put different values on what they do, even though they do the same things. The nice story of three stoneworkers is very appropriate here: One asks "What are you doing here?" to three stoneworkers who work for the same construction site. The first mason answers, "I am working in the hotness of a hell to build this house". The second one says "I am working hard but I hope it is going to be a nice house in the end." The last worker says "I am building a masterpiece!" Although they do the same job, they have three different perceptions on what they do. Presumably, this makes life harder for managers. How can a manager alter and develop their workers' perceptions and attitudes? Is this so damn easy? Can people's perceptions be changed so easily? How can he/she motivate his/her employees? What is the managerial role in affecting people's motivation? We will try to answer these kinds of questions in the succeeding paragraphs.

5.8 We Are Looking for Self-Motivated People to Work with

Every individual has different beliefs, attitudes and understandings and naturally everyone has different perceptions on work motivation. Everyone is unique; therefore, motivation formulas should be customized. Personalized forms of sincere recognition and constructive feedback

helps managers build powerful intrinsic motivation in the workplace (Cleveland, 2007; Keough, 2007), and a lack of these intrinsic rewards may cause de-motivation. For instance, this kind of simple sentences which are said sincerely by managers can be enough to motivate the telephone operator that is mentioned in the previous part: “You and what you do at this workplace are really valuable for us. Without you, we cannot manage it. Thank you so much for your contributions to the organization.” We strongly believe that appreciation and recognition for the effort that he/she puts in is crucial to retain him/her in the organization. What about highly skillful and autonomous knowledge workers? Do they need to be recognized? Is such a feedback system required in academia?

Although their jobs are very meaningful and privileged in academia, it seems also academics need recognition and feedback from the job and the peers; as it was pointed out by *Brown*:

“Sometimes I feel that we do not really recognize each other’s successes. That is something that I think could be better. So that is not really motivator because it does not really exist... I have been at this department for almost six years now and I have never ever had a development talk as an employee...That is something I really need for.”

When we analyzed the interviews as a whole, we found that a lack of feedback is one of the main sources for ambiguity and confusion in the workplace. Since feedback is such a crucial motivator for achievement-motivated people, as McClelland mentions, lack of feedback is perceived as a source of frustration for knowledge workers at the department. They are all open for both positive and negative feedback; however, there is neither a systematized feedback nor recognition system within the organization.

“...sometimes the barrier between the work life and leisure time is sort of vanished, not really that clear...Freedom can sometimes be sort of creating anxiety because you feel that you have all this freedom and what are you going to do?” (Brown)

As it is interpreted reflexively, many participants declared that it would be nice if they had had an efficient feedback system within the university. As *Brown* pointed out, at least announcing the names of those whose articles were published could a management method for motivating them at work.

To be honest, such a result from the interviews was not surprising for us because as McClelland explains, achievement-motivated people always seek feedback which represents an essential input for their personal growth and development. As we have mentioned previously, it appears that the academics have several similarities with McClelland's achievement-motivated people. The one contradiction to McClelland's theory could be the recognition concept, which is mentioned by some of our interviewees as something that would make them feel better. However, according to his theory of needs, achievement-motivated people are not supposed to be in need of recognition since the achievement of the task itself is their reward. This contrast should not be interpreted as an immense difference because academics' achievement of their tasks is still the most crucial issue for them; while recognition is something that can make them feel more motivated.

When it comes to the managerial role in motivation in academia, it is not easy to answer the question "*what is the dean and/or the head of department doing in regards to employee motivation?*" In our case, it is clearly seen that they do not put too much effort into it. For instance, feedback as a managerial tool is something almost nonexistent in the selected institution. Not having development talks during six year employment is only one of the examples which reveals a lack of managerial effort in the institution. Sawyer, who has an administrative role in the department, agrees with us and he added these words to display his conviction that the current situation has to be changed:

"I think, we are supposed to have an interview every year. We have a new proposal for new administrative structure starting from the autumn and an idea has might be solved. So in a sense, it is kinds of feedback mechanism we are talking about were very badly."

One of our participants highlighted another aspect of the system which they are part of:

"...when we are talking about KIFs and KIOs with this knowledge work, I think much of the feedback system lies within people...If you do research, it is a very clear feedback system in terms of you send your things to journals and you get published or not. And that is a good feedback system." (Carol)

Therefore, when you look at the case from this angle, another question arises: “*do the dean and/or the head of department have to do anything in order to motivate employees?*” For instance, in the circumstance in which an employee has a quite good self-feedback system, why does he/she need any feedback from the management? It is open to question and almost none of the motivational theories can explain this accurately, but we believe that the answer underlies the concept of self-motivation.

Self-motivation is described as “*arising from realization of individual need which is primary factor in the accomplishment of any given goals*” (McClelland, 1974; 761). However, in our case, of course there are not any given goals, because there is no boss. However, it does not mean that they cannot set goals by themselves, such as writing and publishing an article or a book in a specific subject. Their goals are inevitably linked to their self-actualization, which has a large impact on their motivational level. The importance of writing and publishing articles or books is high and extremely rewarding; and the value they put on this intrinsically motivates them, which brings about higher performance (Vroom, 1964). In order to reach their self-actualization, they are putting in more effort; in other words, because of the *valence* of the goal that they set by themselves, the confidence and experiences they have and their freedom affects their motivation and performance. Owing to this, self-motivation is the effect of having and developing habits which will lead individual to desired goals (Lautzenheiser, 1990).

All participants confirmed that self-motivation plays a big role in remaining motivated. They all believe that their self-motivation is the main source to come to work with a smiling face and full of energy in each working day.

“...without self- motivation you are dead as an academic, you are intellectually dead.” (Shepherd)

“I think self- motivation is the main thing that you need in order to do a good job”
(Allen)

These are only two examples from the interviews which draw attention to how self-motivation is important for academics. They strongly believe that their self-motivation toward what they do is the most crucial factor to maintain their speed in a workplace where it is rare

to talk about a systematic and frequent feedback and reward system. Academics feel that they are alone in the system, and therefore, “*they have to be strong*” (Brown) since they themselves are the only mechanism that can motivate them at work.

6. CONCLUSION

The results of this research seem surprising in some ways, especially when compared to other knowledge workers in knowledge intensive firms. This study investigates all the factors that motivate academics as knowledge workers in Lund University. More broadly, we answer the question of “*What motivates academics at the work place?*” Normally, just one study, of course, cannot be generalized to other situations or does not allow us to say how it is on a general level. But academics’ identical priorities, specific characteristics, and their demand for being academics in order to be successful differentiate them from other knowledge workers. They are also distinct when it comes to motivation; they are motivated intrinsically by their job itself and their motivational level is rarely affected by external factors. Therefore, if this study was carried out in further detail throughout a number of universities, we strongly believe that the outcomes would be similar.

After doing this research, we can draw five main conclusions:

1. Salary and security are not motivators in academia since the academics already have job security and enough money.
2. Symbolic meanings such as status, title and office size should not be underestimated, but not be overestimated either.
3. Academics’ main motivators are autonomy, work itself, self-actualization, personal development and collegial relations.
4. Whereas self-motivation plays a big role in academics’ motivation, what is the role of management?
5. There is nothing named as a de-motivator, but there many things in the institution such as lack of a feedback system and gender issues that frustrate them.

(1) In our case, there is an environment where academics are well-paid by the state and salaries are highly regulated by law. Therefore, academics are focusing on their work instead of thinking about how to earn enough money for living and other needs. The important thing here is of course not getting paid a lot of money, but the luxury of getting paid for what they like to do. It means that salary is important since we need it for living, but after some level, an individual reaches the saturation point. After that point, work itself plays the biggest role for motivating the individual intrinsically. Our findings clearly display that money is not a motivator; no matter what they are offered, academics' performance will remain at the same level. When it comes to job security, it is clear that there is no worry for that issue either thanks to individuals' self-confidence and secured academic atmosphere.

(2) It seems symbolic meanings such as title, status and room sizes are not important for academics; consequently they do not have an impact on their motivation level. This report argues that the symbolic meanings within the academia should not be considered as a fundamental factor for academics' motivation level, but still should be discussed as an important factor. In a sense, we reached this conclusion about symbolic meanings by benefiting from critical approach. Most of the academics in our sample specify that they do not care about these symbolic meanings at all, but they also mention that it would be better if they had a larger or corner room. They say that they do not care about the status and title, but moving up in the career ladder is something that motivates them. So, from a critical approach, we interpret these findings as; symbolic meanings might not be de-motivating for academics, but rather motivating even though nobody prefers to verbalize it. The academics say they do not care about symbolic meanings, but maybe they just try not to care!

(3) There is one salient matter that does not indicate any variety among our interviewees; the autonomy –or should be expressed as the enormous autonomy- that they have. As long as they have job-related autonomy, almost nothing can de-motivate them. They decide on everything related with their job; their working hours, working style, workload, etc. It is impossible to talk about the authoritarian management in academia. They do not perceive any organizational goals which they have to work for; what they are supposed to do in their organization is something already in line with their personal goals such as being published, learning new things, and contributing to their personal development. In the institutions other than universities; it seems as if having this much autonomy may lead to some laziness and

insouciance, which leads to people postponing things until the last minute. But our investigation reveals this issue in an opposite way since it was observed that the academics work harder and perform better as long as they have autonomy because they perceive their tasks as their hobbies rather than obligations. Therefore, they do not care for slacking off; instead, they willingly and readily spend all their time with their job. That is the reason among why they are highly motivated and they appreciate the given autonomy. As a result, the autonomy was mentioned as the most crucial motivator in academia, whilst fun of the work itself was mentioned as the second one.

Another point that this report highlights is relating the academics with McClelland's need theory and defining them as achievement-motivated people. Hence, one of the things that they like about their job is discussed as the possibility of learning new things while doing their job, which helps them continually develop themselves. Thus, it was not surprising that they mentioned personal development as one of the main motivational factors. These job characteristics in academia are expressed to be the main motivators for academics because they satisfy self-actualization and achievement needs. When it comes to their social needs, they all mention their pleasure about their collegial relationships. Having good friendships with their colleagues motivates them in their workplace. Whilst some of the participants mention these relationships as a source of learning new things from their colleagues, some others mention spending good time while having a beer after work.

All the motivational factors mentioned above are the things coming from the job environment and the job itself. There is almost nothing left to do by management in order to keep their employees motivated. So, one could not stop thinking how lucky the management is, since there is such a group of employees who are almost impossible to de-motivate.

(4) The investigation points out that none of the motivational theories has the absolute truth in order to explain our sample's perceptions on motivation. Some issues may frustrate them but there is almost nothing that affects their motivational level extrinsically to very large extent. Moreover, there is nobody in boss role who sets some meaningful goals or gives feedback for their performance. In this sense, self-motivation has a big impact on academics' motivation; they are working on what they want to work on, setting their own goals and getting feedback from journals or magazines by being published or not. This situation reveals the question of "*What is the role of management?*" Our findings show that there is almost no room for

managerial roles in order to motivate academics, because everything is happening intrinsically.

Moreover, the surprising answers to the question of “*What makes you decide to quit your job?*” helps us reveal the issues of employee commitment and loyalty in academia. Accordingly, academics are heedless of where they work, which means in a sense there is no organizational commitment. For instance, two of our participants said that they could think about changing organizations due to personal reasons such as bad climate. But it must be kept in mind that academics can be called a mobile workforce, in other words, they can make research and perform their job anywhere in the world. Thus, academia draws a different picture than other knowledge-intensive firms do in terms of the managerial role in employee commitment and loyalty.

(5) Nothing de-motivates academics as long as they do what they like to do with an extreme autonomy. But again; they are all achievement-motivated knowledge workers, thus they also like receiving feedback about their job. However, it is rare to talk about frequented feedback system in academia and this lack of feedback could be mentioned as a de-motivating situation. But, as said before; nothing can de-motivate academics as long as they have autonomy. Therefore, this lack of feedback can be expressed as something frustrating, but not strong enough to de-motivate them. They sometimes feel ambiguity and confusion about what to do and/or when to do. They stand all alone while doing their solitary and challenging work. But it must be remembered that the reason why they sometimes have this feeling is not only the lack of feedback, but also the enormous autonomy they have. There is nobody who directs them, who guides them, or who puts a deadline for their tasks; which in turn causes some confusion in their minds about where they are in a particular project or how well they are performing.

The outcomes of this research are a door opener for critical (re-)thinking about motivation factors in a workplace. This study reflexively analyzes all the factors that motivate knowledge workers in the academia. The use of qualitative method, semi-structured face to face interviews, enables us to investigate the problem in more depth which enhances the quality and the reliability of the research, and its outcomes.

Finally, we strongly believe that the results of this thesis not only have value for the institution where we carried out the survey, but they also contribute to other researches in the field of motivation. The knowledge that is produced by this investigation can be used to motivate a group of people, who share similar job characteristics and work context, in a similar way.

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APPENDIX

Interview Questions

1. Could you introduce yourself in terms of personal information, educational background and life-style; values and beliefs?
2. Why did you choose an academic career? What was the main driver for this decision? What were your expectations about being an academic, and to what extent your current situation meets those expectations?
3. Why are you a member of, or why are you working at Lund University?
4. As a knowledge worker, how would you describe your work and the tasks you are responsible for?
5. How do you describe your working environment in terms of hierarchy, organizational structure and collegial relations?
6. What motivates you in the workplace? What are the most critical factors for motivation and how would you put in order your first three motivators?
7. Since the university is not a profit making institution, it might be rare to talk about reward and payment systems, managerial roles, and recognition. Could you talk about how these issues are handled in your organization? To what extent do they affect your motivational level?
8. What de-motivates you in the workplace? Do symbolic meanings such as title and room size affect your motivation level?
9. What would be the reason for you to decide to quit your job in this institution?