

DEVELOPMENT OF MOTIVATION STUDIES: THE CHRONICLES

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Abstract

Most of the articles regarding Motivation studies are focusing on contributions of researches and results. Comparatively, there are fewer papers in discussing how this field of studies is established. By chronologically covers remarkable statements and researches contributed by various behavioral scientists and philosophers on the field of Motivation studies, this didactic paper has presented the development of Motivation studies in fulfilling the knowledge gap. Findings from this article have reveals the expansion of Motivation studies which starts from behavioral science to Human Cognitions.

Keywords: Chronicle, Development of Motivation Studies. Motivation, Industrial Revolution, Twentieth Century

INTRODUCTION

Motivation is one of the most important factors in affecting human attitudes and behaviours, thus result in different levels of performance. It involves a series of modifying and directing human behaviours into desired patterns of work (Griffin, 2013). From the very fundamental point of view, a motivated individual is simply as being impelled to do something (Ryan & Deci, 2009). The factor of motivation in human behaviour arise in variety of activities such as Sports, process of Teaching and Learning, participating in Decision Making, and of course, Workplace behaviour. No doubt that the topic of Motivation has being discusses for more than centuries. In

order to further understand the formation of human Motivation, this article provides didactical review on the historical development of motivation studies.

BEFORE THE CENTURY

If from perspective of Motivation is to cause changes of behaviour, then one the earliest study of Motivation is found from an ancient Greek philosopher Aristotle (384-322 B. C.) (Deckers, 2010). In Aristotle's view, a person will simulated by something that person believe is " real or apparent good" of some anticipated consequence, or image of "what is to come" derived in "reference to what is present," thus pursue it or avoid it. The philosophy is built upon four types of causes: Efficient, Final, Formal, and Material. The cause of Efficiency refers to triggers of behaviour, which are human current motives and incentives. Second causes of Final refer to the purpose of motivated behaviour. Third causes of Formal refer to integrating the concept of motivation into models, hypothesis, or theories of behaviour. Last causes of Material refer to the material of which things are made (Hennig, 2009). For example, a person saw his favourite dessert and he has being triggered by himself to eat it. The behaviour of triggering himself is reason by his fond on sweet foods. Such behaviour is the event of brain that contributes to the desire for something. Although this concept is developed centuries ago, however, it is still relevant for studies of psychology and sources of motivation nowadays.

Another study in Motivation before centuries that still effect theoretical development nowadays is known as Hedonism. Ancient philosophers defines Hedonism as a theory of value that all and only pleasure for both physical and mental phenomena is intrinsically valuable and all and only pain is intrinsically not valuable. As one of the promoter of Hedonism, the great Greek philosopher Socrates (470-399 B. C.) claimed that human should follow courses of actions that will bring them pleasure that exceeded pain. Another point of view was provided by another contemporary philosophy Democritus (460-370 B. C.), where Hedonism is born naturally and people should follow these courses of actions. A century after, the ideas of moderation was further added into the philosophy by Epicurus (341-271 B. C.). It carries meaning where a person may forgo certain pleasure if he or she noticed that greater magnitude of pain will be the subsequence. For instance, a student may forgo a party for the reason of having examination in the next day, as he know that attending the party will give him short term of pleasure, but the feeling of doing bad in the following examination will suffer him for longer time (see Decker, 2010; Stanford Encyclopaedia of Philosophy, 2004; Sobel, 2002).

Motivation before centuries was taken as human behaviours that are mainly influence by their instincts for survival and happiness. Definitions of motivation are roughly straightforward, where causes for action was mainly depend on human pre-conscious that they accumulated throughout their lives. In fact, Ancient Greek philosophies are focus on the role of reason and

inquiry. As defined by Aristotle (384-322 B. C.) and Socrates (470-399 B. C.), behaviour will occur when individual aware consequences of their particular behaviour may results in positive or negative experience, thus actualise or halt their behaviour to attain or avoid the consequences (Latham, 2007).

If comparing the interpretation on motivation from ancient Greece philosophies with modern definitions, definitely it is too simple and straightforward in explaining human behaviour nowadays. Issues of diversity in terms of gender, cultural background or even educational experiences were ignored by the time as monarchy system is wholly implemented on every citizen. Social stratum were barely simple, citizens' status are divided into ruler (the King), conformers (citizens), and slaves. Ruler of ancient Greece set rules and provide military protections to conformers, conformers pay tax to the ruler. Conformers buy slaves on slavery market or adopt abandoned infant and raise them up, thus give them daily meals in exchange for their fatigue duties (Pomeroy & Sarah, 1999).

EARLIER OF 19TH CENTURY

The earliest records for management field of studies were found in nineteenth century, where agricultural activities are taken by industrial operations by that time. Businesses that growing in rapid speed were benefited from the inventions of new machines and tools in fasten productions, while expands of businesses provided more job opportunities that subsequently increased communities' standard of living and populations. The upshot of population thus place higher demand for products that eventually resulted in domino effect in blooming overall industrial growth. Moreover, the introduction of new technologies in replacing conventional manpower has enable mass production. Concepts of an organized work-force using technology to enable mass production were further introduced.

Therefore, increased in number of workers in supporting mass production have created more complications in workplace and eventually needs for both behavioural scientists and business owners in uniting thus controlling the workforce (Griffin, 2010). Intentions for human behaviour before the Industrial Revolution were relatively simple. Sources of their behaviours were mainly whatever activities to sustain their life. Clear source of motivation by that time of agricultural background such as food and physical safety has become inapplicable compare to standards of living in time of revolution as these two factors are not sufficient to make them 'happy' after the revolution (More, 2000; Griffin, 2010).

The Industrial Revolution, which took place from about 1760s to sometime between 1820s and 1840s, was a period during which predominantly agrarian, rural societies in Europe and America transformed into industrial and urban within a few decades. Before the Industrial Revolution started from Britain in eighteen century, most people from generation to generation

were live in small communities where their source of income were from agriculture activities. Most small manufacturing was carried out in homes or rural shops that used hand tools or simple machines. Several factors contributed to Britain's role as the birthplace of the Industrial Revolution. First, Britain had great deposits of coal and iron ore, which gave the industries necessary energy and resources in inventing new machines and tools. Political wise, , Britain maintained a politically stable society, as well as the world's leading colonial power that could serve as a source for raw materials, as well as a marketplace for manufactured goods. In particular, average income and population began to benefit from sustained growth started from primary sectors in mining ores and coals, following in secondary sectors in industrialization, finally tertiary sectors where banks and financial institutes joined in the expansions (Stanley, 2011).

Started from early of 19th century, philosophies have recognizes the role of stimuli, thus moving forward in searching for the linchpins to turn desired human behaviours on. Obviously, desired human behaviours defined by Industrial and Organizational psychologists by the time are more towards workers' direct quantitative performance (task performance), rather than indirect contributions towards overall organizational wellness and working environment (contextual performance) nowadays. Business owners are concentrating on workers monotony behaviour as their tasks were arranged into specialised forms of operations. As results, most of the Industrial Organizational psychologists by that time were focused on workers' behavioural studies.

In the beginning of 19th century, Hugo Munsterberg as the key figure has started the discussions in employees' behavioural issues in industrial applications. His works on *Vocation and Learning (1912)* and *Psychology and Industrial Efficiency (1913)* were considered as the beginning of industrial psychology (Hergenhahn, 2000). His books addressed numbers of topics that are very important to the field of industrial psychology nowadays. Most of the topics discussing about hiring workers whose personalities and mental abilities are able to fit in certain types of vocations as the best way to increase motivation, performance, and other industrial behaviours. On general issues of labour management, Munsterberg was admitted towards Taylor's belief that management need scientific observation and measurement; at the same time, Munsterberg severely criticized Scientific Management was imperfect in terms of absent in considerations on psychological characteristics of the worker. In Munsterberg's view, a successful scientific industrial psychology should further consider the mental structure of workers as seriously as it took the mechanics of work. Only in this way would negative workplace attitudes such as mental dissatisfaction, mental depression and discouragement replaced by job satisfactions and workplace harmony (Munsterberg, 1913). In his paper *Psychology and the Market (1909)*, Munsterberg further suggested that psychology could be

used in many different industrial applications including management, job performance, and employee motivation. He proposed three points of view that he believes are of particular importance to industrial psychology. These three questions include; how to find people with mental qualities are best fitted for the work which they have to do; what psychological conditions will secure the workers' greatest and most satisfactory output; and finally, how to produce most completely influences on human minds which are desired in the interest of business. In short, Munsterberg has raised the issues of human behavioural in facing organizational environment by discussing how to find the best possible man, how to produce the best possible work, and how to secure the best possible effects. For Munsterberg, positives changes in behaviour in terms of increased productivity will occur in two conditions. First is when a person has tasks that fit with his correct skill set and given correct position. Second are the effects of psychological conditions such as monotony tasks that will secure employees' output in terms of both quantity and quality (Munsterberg, 1913).

Later in a comprehensive textbook written by Robert Sessions Woodworth (1918, as cited from Tunnell, 1962) on *Dynamic Psychology*, human behaviour was defined as interaction between Mechanisms and Drives. Mechanism, according to Woodworth, refers to how people do something. It is a behavioural activity where people are really conducting physical activities. Whereas Drive refers to what induced people to do it. When the mechanisms accomplished, drives that induced mechanisms will satisfy, thus behaviour stop. Even if the Mechanism is absent, the tendencies for Drive will still available in individuals. Unless the Drive is satisfied, individuals will continue performing or looking for Mechanism to perform (Deckers, 2010). To define in simple way, an example of individual repairing a vehicle is use to elaborate this theory. A foreman is repairing a vehicle of his customer in order to earn his income. The behaviour of repairing vehicle is defined as Mechanism; while purpose of repairing vehicle of others for the return of income is define as Drive. In some circumstance where the particular foreman has no vehicle to repair, but the tendency for him to repair vehicles in order to earn income will still exist. Until the foreman earned enough income as he expected, he will not stop his intentions to repair vehicles. In another famous psychological works, Woodworth (192, as cited from Tunnell, 1962) has introduced the theory of S-O-R (Stimulus-Organism-Response) in studying human behaviour. Stimulus, according to Woodworth (1929, as cited from Tunnell, 1962), was explained as anything that will stimulate individuals' action; Organism was individuals' personal variances; and Response was the behaviour acted in answering the stimulus. According to the last edition in 1934, Woodworth further improved his theory by adding in infections of environmental variables that named as World (W), thus the his theory was elaborated as environments acting on individual by stimuli, and the individual acting on the environment by his responses. Strong predictions thus are available for observers in forecasting individuals'

behaviours in conditioned that the observers well known the particular individual's personal and environmental variables. However, the drawback of such explanations on behavioural reactions towards stimulus were limited on the conditions where motives, interests, and purposes are absent from the stimulus-response program. In simple words, the theory suggested that human reactions from stimulus are always not being consciously polished, behaviours is a pure reflexions of stimulus that are intermediated by individuals variances. Human intentional aspects, as results, fail to comply with such theory (Dewey, 1896). Together with the concept of Mechanism-Drive and theory of S-O-R, Woodworth further elaborate Motivation as physiological processes, bodily movements, unconditioned and conditioned reflexes activities with observably goal-directed actions (Woodworth, 1925, as cited from Tunnell, 1962).

In another textbook *Principles of Employment Psychology* written by Burt (1926), the term Motivation was defined as behaviour of effectiveness and efficiency. In fact, rather than understanding factors for human motivation in organizational setting, famous studies and philosophies conducted between 1890s to 1925s are more focusing in explaining human behaviour that later become footstones for studies of motivations in 20th century (McDougall, 1930). This trend has maintained until nearly fifty years after. The studies for Motivation in this time frame were distinct in three perspectives that are Biology, Behaviour, and Money (Latham, 2007).

As one of the most influential philosophers in late nineteenth century in United States, William James is the first educator in offering psychology courses in United States. One of the earliest textbooks on psychology written by him in *Principles of Psychology* (1890) has recorded his concern with description and explanation of state of biological consciousness. Behaviour, as argued by James, is resulted from biological or physiological variables that the particular individual's experienced in their early life and become habits when they grow up. At the core of his psychology theory on behaviour was a system of "instincts". These human instincts were more complicating than animals could be overridden by individuals' living experiences. Each instinct developed within individuals will also conflict with other instincts (Buss, 2008). Although his research has received discordance where employee behaviour was excluded, but the ideology in defining human behaviour has successfully set up a starting point where behavioural scientists later have expanded their own theories based on his concepts on instincts (Buss, 2008).

As one of the greatest psychologist, Sigmund Freud proposed that human motivation is a function of their biological unconscious for sexual activities. Such definition was developed from his observation from people that are in difficulties in their personal lives, rather than confronted in workplace. Later in 1920, Freud further declared his conception of sex-drive is not sufficient in determining human motivation. In his last work for the rest of his life, has centred his

theory of drives on life and death. This theory that received huge disputations at that time is sought to explain the diversity of human psychical life as interplay of and conflict between extremeness life drive and death drive. According to Freud in his book *Beyond the Pleasure Principle* in 1920, life drive cause individual strives to lengthen life and make connections to objects; while death drive leads individual to inanimate state and does not strive to enter into object relationship (Latham, 2007). The ideology has formally adapted in another well-known Psychoanalysis Theories that formally designed by Sigmund Freud and Josef Breuer in 1895s and expanded by his students and colleagues. Psychoanalysis Theories claimed that reflection of either Life or Death drives towards objects are mainly shape by individuals' childhood experiences and their own inherited constitution of personality (Schacter, 2011). Motivation is viewed as unconscious rather than subconscious or preconscious. Under this circumstance, either Life drive or death drive chosen by a person as behaviour in responding for objects will not be rational, as that particular person will depends on his unconscious attitude, mannerism, experience, and thought that developed from his or her childhood experiences to reflect either drives towards the objects.

From another perspective of Behaviour, John Watson (1913) as the founder of Behaviourism has advocated the effect of environmental stimuli towards behaviour. He disagreed with William James of biological consciousness, arguing that consciousness has no causal efficacy. In fact, until 1970s, behaviourists at the time were found more focuses on learning rather than motivation, thus resulted in ignorance on cognitive or intentional and interested in the prediction and influencing of responses that are results of automatic or reflexive to stimulus (Latham, 2007). Such belief was developed from the fundamental of behavioural studies where cause-and-effect are the central of human behaviour. Every effective stimulus will result in immediate responses, thus enable behaviourists to predict the responses from knowing stimulus or identify stimulus to predict responses.

Among various behavioural studies at the time, E. Thorndike has become the most famous psychologists by his discovery of *Law of Effect*. As Thorndike found in his famous experiments with hungry cats in puzzle boxes. The cat was placed in a box that could be opened if the cat pressed a lever or pulled a loop. During the first few trials, the cat responded in many ineffective ways, finally freeing itself with the press or pull. With each successive trial, it took the cat, on average, less and less time to escape (Thorndike, 1911). Developed from his experiment, Thorndike thus argued that the greater satisfactions resulted from particular behaviour, the greater such behaviour will recur. Vice versa, the greater discomfort resulted from particular behaviour, the lesser such behaviour will recur. Later, Thorndike (1917) conducted another empirical study on satisfactions with work. The results indicated that quality and quantity of experimental target remained the same, however, their satisfactions towards

their assigned experimental tasks reduced steadily. This experiment has later become the groundwork of modern studies in job satisfactions and performance.

The last perspective of Money in early studies for Motivation was first proposed by Frederick Winslow Taylor (1911) in his *Scientific Management*. As the theory is developed upon a give-and-take basic, where employers are encourage to deliver something extra to employees; whereas employees are encourage to responds with extra initiative to their employers, such theory is believed by Taylor that will change both employers and employees' mentality towards each other. The ideology was experience from his observation by the time where some workers were forced to perform repetitive tasks that resulted in slowest rate that secure them from punishments. Besides, there are also no scientific standards in measuring performance by the time. From the observation, Taylor believed, and thus proposed his scientific management theory where employees should be paid substantial bonuses for their tasks completed. He further introduced Time and Motion Study to fix performance standards for Time, Cost, and Quality of Work for the purpose of Uniformity of Work. This ideology that builds upon performance leads to rewards and further leads to satisfaction has later become another fundamental for modern Motivation studies.

The perspective of Money that developed upon employee' productivity and monetary return has received doubts by Viletes in 1953s. After World War 2, Viletes has updated his monumental book *Industrial Psychology* published in 1932s that established him as a figurehead in the field. From an original 15 pages in discussing Motivation in Industry, he ended up with issued another new volume of 500 pages *Motivation and Morale in Industry*. Despite using financial incentives in stimulating employees' productivity, argue by Viletes in his new volume, it will be harmful towards economic condition and jeopardize relationship between managements and workers. Viletes further highlighted the need in studying for workers' motive-to-work for the purpose of understanding their attitudes and correspondent behaviour. By contrarily with Freud's concept of unconscious drives for human behaviour, Viletes further commented that the two life and death drives will pass through human preconscious to determine correspondent actions. As results, he recommended that employees' feelings and experience should be focused. Unfortunately, until the end of 20th century, the 'feeling' highlighted by Viletes was being neglected and replaced by emphasises in research in individuals' attitudes to determine sources of workplace motivation (Latham, 2007).

In second quarter of 19th century, a research that Elton Mayo participated in year 1924 and 1932 that is later well known as Hawthorne Study, employees' requirements for higher performance have being discovered with more than just incentives. In fact, Mayo's participation in Hawthorne study was to help the person in charge of the experiment to interpret the findings, rather than involve in neither data collection nor hypothesis development (Roethlisberger, 1977,

as cited from Latham, 2008). The story was started from subsequent summon for Mayo and his colleagues to involve with a series of studies of employees' productivity conducted in Hawthorne plant of the Western Electric Company. The studies illuminated the productivity, satisfactions, and motivations of workers are interrelated. From the study where six girls are separate in a working room without their knowledge of this experiment, an observer was replaced from role of supervisory among them for the purpose of securing their relationship. Four factors were observed in the end of experiment. First, factor of working condition was concluded with more than simple correlation. Second factor of supervisory has enabled them to work freely without anxiety. Third factor of social development among the girls has developed a mutual agreement among them in increasing overall productivity. As one of the six girls has reasonably tired and leave the production line, the other five girls will mutually work faster to replace her productivity. Last factor was sense of leadership where the group has developed for their purpose of high productivity (Homans, 1941/1977). In conclusion, Hawthorne study has demonstrated the importance of workers' perceptions and complexity of behavioural variables, as well as opportunities are given to express their preferences and opinions, are free of overly supervision, and being given goals that take into account their ability, they will increase their productivity (Ryan & Smith, 1954).

The developments of Motivation that are not solely relying on incentives have received much fundamental supports by that time. As the first person in proposing job performance is the results of interaction between motivation and ability ($\text{Performance} = \text{Ability} \times \text{Motivation}$) in 1955s, Maier (1946) has concluded that poor organizational performance is the consequences of low management of labour power. It has being further elaborated by Ghiselli and Brown (1948) that industrial psychology should place more emphasis on maximizing productivity consistent with the ability, energies, interests and motives of workers. In the same way, Stagner (1950) also proposed that rather than monotonous incentives, industries will only enjoy harmony when democratic self-assertion between executives and workers are actualised.

A few years after the results of the Hawthorne Studies were published; Henry Murray (1938) also came out with his classic work known as "*Explorations in Personality*". In the research, he uncovered the concepts of primary needs and secondary needs. Unlike previous philosophers that studying human drives for behaviour, Murray stressed on the factor of human needs in explaining motivations. In fact, drives was often viewed as the result of deprivation of some incentives; whereas needs was considered to be an inherent characteristic of human (Deckers, 2010). In his book, Murray formalised that human needs are major sources of motivations, thus recognized that each person will have a different preference set among those needs. Once the needs are instigated, individuals will experience feelings of desire and follow with behaviours to obtain the needs. Vice versa, behaviour will stop appearing from individuals

when the needs that urge such behaviour have been obtained (Deckers, 2010). He also theorized that it's when these individual needs are not met; people will develop 'psychological pain' or disengage in their workplace. The earlier Hawthorne studies made huge progress in recognizing that people had different motivations and could not be treated like supplements of the machines they operated. Murray further fine-tuned the conclusion where employee was different with their own unique set of needs. The theory of Murray has eventually found high likeness with Maslow's theory of motivation.

Although Murray's studies was the first one in opening the topics of motivations from perspectives of human needs, however, in terms of famousness, Maslow's hierarchy of needs that also concentrate on human needs has grab more attentions more than him. In fact, there were no records in showing actual nexus between Murray's studies and Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Abraham Maslow (1943) theory of human motivation is designed from his observation of individuals who came to him for their assistance in personal lives during the years of Great Depression. The cutting edge of Maslow theory is the hierarchy of human satisfactions in five levels of basic need. Unlike other experimental psychologists that studying animals behavioural patterns, he argued that human are more complicating in terms of mental-activity, thus further takes a new direction in explaining human behaviour is arrive from their sense of achieving their five levels of needs, rather than affected by their attitudes towards objects to display their consequences behaviour. The centre-point of his theory is the five hierarchical human needs (Psychological, Safety, Love, Esteem, and Self-Actualization) is when the current need will diminished when it has being fulfilled, and the next need in the higher hierarchy will become stronger in driving human behaviour (Maslow, 1954). Maslow positioned his theory as supplement for Freud's philosophy in human unconscious reaction towards situation or objects, thus further complete the picture by proposing human conscious behaviour towards obtaining objects (Daniels, 1983). Humanistic Psychology of self-actualization was thus developed together with Carl Roger upon such ideology to emphasize the positive potential of human being (Daniel et. al., 2010). Unlike Freud's Psychoanalysis Theories, Maslow and Roger's Humanistic Psychology that rooted from Socrates' Hedonism view human behaviour as consciousness in achieving self-actualization and creativity (Colman, 2010). Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs thus became one among approaches in developing individuals' senses of actualizations. By emphasize on the hierarchy of needs, individuals were counselled by acknowledging their choice and existence in current level of hierarchy, thus helping them in setting up self-directions and understand their developments (Clay, 2002).

The breakeven theory proposed by Maslow has become the foundation for most of the theories afterwards where cognitive-cultural economy started to replace older work approaches (Aanstoos, Serlin, & Greening, 2000). McGregor (1960) as one among other behavioural

scientists that benefited from Maslow and Herzberg has proposed Theory X and Theory Y. His assumption was based on categorisation of human into two groups according to their behavioural traits, thus concluded that human motivation in the workplace should be variety in order to meet two distinct groups of workers. Conclusions drawn from his theory proposed that workers should be given adequate satisfactions in needs that are accordance with their behavioural traits.

The theory of Maslow was further adapted as framework by Lyman Porter (1961) in his survey in three companies for the purpose of understanding the patterns of needs satisfaction among managers. According to the surveys that conducted six times nationwide among managers, Porter (1963c) finalised that the levels of managers and size of organizations have mostly effect the managers to turn up large extents of different on satisfactions base on the five hierarchical needs. Although Porter himself explained his intention in using Maslow's theory is not to test the applicability, however, the results and conclusion has obviously against the setting of Hierarchy needs. Various critiques at that time were also questioning the validity of Maslow theory. For another example, Hall and Nougaim (1968) that used Maslow's hierarchy of need to interview managers at AT&T also failed to display the theory applicability in their research. As results, the theory was narrowed down into three need name Existence, Relatedness, and Growth by Alderfer (1972). Unlike Maslow that proposed every human have a same needs in sequence, Alderfer point of views towards their proposed combination of human needs is Alderfer's three needs that re-categorised from Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs will not follow the sequence of satisfactions towards the needs, but the three needs have different extents of effects in motivating people in accordance with their values.

In a published book named *A Theory of Cognitive Dissonance* written by Festinger in 1957, Cognitive Dissonance was explained as mental experience of discomfort when individuals simultaneously hold two or more conflicting cognitions such as ideas, beliefs, values or emotional reactions towards specific objects. In detail, cognitive dissonance is the distressing mental state that people feel when they find themselves doing things that don't fit with what they know, or having opinions that do not fit with other opinions they hold. A key assumption of Cognitive Dissonance is that individuals want their expectations match with facts, creating a sense of equilibrium. Vice versa, individuals will avoid situations or information sources that give rise to feelings of uneasiness, or dissonance (Eddie, 2002). When individuals enter state of dissonance, they may experience senses of "disequilibrium" such as frustration, hunger, dread, guilt, anger, embarrassment, anxiety, The theory of cognitive dissonance in social psychology further proposes that people have a motivational drive to reduce dissonance resulted from original cognitions towards object. Such reduction of dissonance can be achieved through modifying existing cognitions, adding new ones to create a consistent belief system, or

alternatively by reducing the importance of any one of the dissonant elements towards particular objects (Festinger, 1985). Introduction of Cognitive Dissonance has in detailed explained Munsterberg's ideology on industrial psychology. According to Munsterberg, to increase a person's productivity, the person should have has tasks that fit with his correct skill set and given correct position. Hence, theory of Cognitive Dissonance explained the reason of well-match between the person's cognitions and actual tasked assigned that in turn reduce dissonance and ultimately increase productivity. The theory of Cognitive dissonance subsequently became one of the most influential and extensively studied theories in social psychology and the crucial basic knowledge in understanding human motivations.

As another Industrial and Organizational psychologists, Herzberg (1959) has adapted Maslow and McGregor's theory of Motivation and view them from a different perspective. Rather than concentrate on what need will motivate workers, Herzberg taken another step deeper into figuring how the characteristics of their job will facilitate or hinder their satisfactions of needs. No doubt Herzberg's theory is similar to Maslow Hierarchy of needs, where the contextual factors are similar to Maslow's physiological and safety needs; and the job content factors are also similar with Maslow's love, esteem, and actualization needs. According to his theory of Job enrichment, or Two-factor Theory, by changing the characteristic of the working environment, employees' needs can be satisfied, hence their satisfactions will involve change in their behaviour. His points of view have received endorsements from several famous psychologists. For example, McGregor (1960) has quoted Herzberg's study in sources of job satisfactions and dissatisfaction, thus comply on his theoretical framework where sources are divided into two groups that will determine workers' feelings of satisfactions- dissatisfactions as well as motivation. On the other hand, Vroom and Maier (1961) also agreed with Herzberg in highlighting the importance of motivational effect of the nature of the tasks performed by workers.

Reviews of employees' satisfactions for their needs have received much contribution from various researchers. However, Equity Theory developed by Adams (1963) as one among minority group that studied results of dissatisfactions has further enhanced integrity of motivation studies. The theory has adapted Festinger's Cognitive Dissonance theory where motivation is results from extent of discrepancy between a person belief and behaviour. Equity theory further proposed that people will constantly examine the ratio of their output relative to their input relative to comparison of others. Inequity experienced from people perspective will turn up either distortions of input or simply change comparison (Adams, 1965). The theory has later received criticizes in regarding its weak precisions in proposing solutions for inequity that resulted from individual differences. However, equity theory has successfully fortified its role in

warning public and organizations the nature of input-output comparison and ways of their development and changes.

Unlike other researcher who are concentrating in searching for human needs that will have motivational effect, Vroom (1964) also take a similar perspective as Adams in identifying process of human motivation. The theory is developed on individuals' expectancies, valences, choice, and instrumentalities. Although both theories assume human actions are mostly affected by their perceptions and beliefs; however, unlike Equity theory that only focus on outcome of human perceptions of fairness towards comparisons, Expectancy theory take a further move in covering all work related behaviour on the job. This cutting edge theory has subsequently been recognised as the first cognitive broad range theory of motivation. The framework of Expectancy theory has further adapted by Lawler and Porter (1967) in adding more in depth point of views in enhancing overall relationship between satisfaction and performance. Rather than employees' satisfactions are causes of performance that most researchers much believing, according to Lawler and Porter, performance itself will also determine employees' satisfactions (Latham, 2007).

The theory that Vroom promoted has responded with revisiting behavioural theories decades ago. Skinner (1974) as the most famous researcher in determining environmental-behavioural has earned his pride with his theory of Reinforcements. Skinner's theory is focusing on explaining workplace environments that will shape workers' behaviour. In detail, Reinforcement theory advocate human behaviour is a function by reinforcements. According to Skinner (1974), motives and purposes are under control of human themselves that will infected by reinforcements from their environments, hence showing out their embellished behaviours to answer the reinforcements. In short, people will constantly modulate their behaviour according to their past behaviour and the subsequent environmental outcome they experienced. This theory was viewed as a model that simplifies motivation theories proposed by Maslow, Herzberg, and McGregor by demonstrating how human needs have modify their behaviours (Latham, 2007).

The rise of cognitive-cultural economy started in 1970 and reach its peak in 1980 has created a whole new workers' requirement in conducting their tasked delegated (Scott, 2012; Aanstoos, Serlin, & Greening, 2000). With a new mainstreams of microelectronic technologies invented and new standardized forms of work requirements for conducting tasks, values of workers were shifted from physical ability to intelligence brightness. Routine labour and standardized machines were substituted from expansions of inventions and technologies in the industrial transformation of Cognitive-cultural economy (Levy & Murnane, 2004). Human capital based on the cognitive and cultural assets of the labour force hence became the focus point of industries in order to catch up the development of industrial technology (Scott, 2012). Such

workplace evolution has urged the first work redesign in human history to cope with whole new set of expectations and requirements from workers. As resulted from the new environment setting, Job Characteristic Theory designed by Greg R. Oldham and J. Richard Hackman in 1975 has answered the call. Original version of the Job Characteristic Theory was based on earlier work by Turner and Lawrence, and Hackman and Lawler. In detail, Turner and Lawrence (1965) contributed foundations of objective characteristics of jobs in work design; while Hackman and Lawler (1971) indicated the direct effect of job characteristics on employee's work related attitudes and behaviours and, more importantly, the individual differences on needs of development, which called Growth Need Strength in the Job Characteristics Theory. Five years after the first version of the theory, in the book *Work Redesign*, Hackman and Oldham (1980) further presented another edited Job Characteristic Theory. The centre concept of the edited theory is the three psychological states that are: experienced meaningfulness of the work; experienced responsibility for the outcomes of the work and; knowledge of the results of work activities. These psychological states are theorized to mediate the relationship between job characteristics and work-related outcomes. According to the theory, these three critical psychological states are non-compensatory conditions, meaning jobholders have to experience all three critical psychological states to achieve the outcomes proposed in the model (Hackman & Oldham, 2005). According to the theory, the core of every job characteristics should responsible for workers' psychological state. Skill Variety, Task Identity, and Task Significance will able to supply workers will work meaningfulness; Autonomy will encourage workers' sense of responsibility, and Feedback will contribute workers to understand the performance of their work. A well-designed job that has perfectly covered the five core characteristics hence will increase workers' work motivations.

The rise of cognitive-cultural economy has also enlightened the birth of Social Cognitive Theory developed by Albert Bandura. The theory heavily contributed to the influences of cognition and situational factors in human behavioural studies (Bandura, 1978). Developed upon Social Learning Theory, Social Cognitive Theory views individuals as self-organising, proactive, self-reflecting, and self-regulating. Human behaviour under such circumstance is not resulted from a single factor of neither internal forces nor external stimuli. Rather, it is the outcome of interactions among behaviour, personal and environmental factors (Nevid, 2013). The theory suggested that individual's cognition is an active force that constructs external reality, encodes information, performs behaviour on the basis of internal values and expectations, and imposes structure on its own actions (Jones, 1989). In short, Social Cognitive Theory support human actions are driven by intrinsic and extrinsic stimulus. The behaviour in terms of a triadic, dynamic and reciprocal interaction of environment, personal factors, and behaviour is termed as Reciprocal Determinism. This reciprocal interaction implies

that all sources of influence will not exist in of equal strength. The interaction between the three factors will differ based on the individual, the particular behaviours being examined, and the specific situation in which the behaviours occurs (Bandura, 1989).

From the belief of human function is the result of the dynamic and reciprocal interaction among behavioural, personal and environmental factors, Social Cognitive Theory thus explaining human motivation and behaviour are produced from interaction between these three factors (Crothers, Hughes, & Morine, 2008). Essentially, Bandura believes that an individual's behaviour is influenced by both the social world and personal characteristics, whilst behaviour itself is something that may or may not be self-reinforced at any given time or situation (Nevid, 2013). In case of human motivation, Bandura (1986) view that to imitate behaviour, an individual must have some motivating factor that is strong in terms of desirous to activate such behaviour. As another motivation theory that adapted behavioural studies, Edwin Locke and Gary Latham (1990) have proposed the Goal-Setting theory in determining employees' working behaviour. The core of the theory is groundwork by Ryan and Smith (1954) ideology where behaviours are regulated by intentions of needs, beliefs, and attitudes. Similar to Lawler and Porter (1967), this theory also viewed satisfactions as results of performance. Goals developed for individuals have effects on their behaviours in the ways of directing attention and actions, mobilizing and prolong efforts over time, and motivating individuals to develop strategies to attain their goals (Locke, Shaw, Saari & Latham, 1981).

RECENT DECADES

In earlier century, motivation is widely explained as the willingness of an individual to do something and conditioned by actions to satisfy needs. When the studies continue in twenty century, motivation has being further conceptualised. Various researcher and philosophers nowadays have contributed even richer explanations according to their studies and understanding on field of Motivation. According to Pinder (1998), Motivation is defined as a psychological process that give behaviour purpose and direction, a predisposition to behave in a purposive manner to achieve specific unmet needs, an unsatisfied need, and the will to achieve, respectively. It can be simplify as individuals are motivated to conduct specific behaviour to satisfy their needs that will resulted from their specific behaviour. Wregner et. al. (2003) described motivation as something that energized individuals to take action and which is concerned with the choices the individual makes as part of his or her goal-oriented behaviour.

In an academic textbook written by Greenberg and Baron (2009), Motivation is distinct in three main parts. The first part focuses at arousal that deals with the drive or energy behind individuals' action. Drives or energy is explained as the purposes that activate individuals' behaviour. The second part referring to the choice people make and the direction their

behaviour takes. It involves with individuals' cognitive evaluation on what behaviour they chosen to act in order to match with their drive or energy. The last part deals with maintaining behaviour. It defines how long people have to persist at attempting to meet their goals.

Following the recent definition contributed by Fuller *et.al.* (2008), motivation is a person's intensity, direction and persistence of efforts to attain a specific objective. From the statement provided, intensity as further elaborated as how hard an individual tries to attain the specific objective while direction is the channel of intensity towards the objective; whereas persistence refers to how long someone maintains an effort to attain the specific objective.

Furthermore, motivation is defined by Saraswathi (2011) as the willingness to exert high levels of effort, toward organizational goals, conditioned by the effort's ability to satisfy some individual need. Three key elements in the definition are further provided as effort, organization goal, and need. Moreover, Motivation defined by Yudhvir and Sunita (2013) as individuals' personal and internal feelings arise from desire in fulfilling needs. The stronger the desire will results in higher possibility of such desire turns into intensity, direction and persistence of efforts toward attaining goals. As known, human needs are unlimited. Fulfilment of one set of needs give rise to the other needs. Therefore, from their point of view, motivation is a continuous process (Anderfuhren, et al., 2010; Yudhvir and Sunita, 2013).

Definitions of motivation contributed by various researchers above are apparently in similar meaning as drive, energize and action. Researchers are agreeing on individuals' motivations start with recognition of a desire that is not present at the time the individual noticed, followed by mental desire to achieve something, thus following by physical actions to obtain the desire.

Motivation in twenty century is taken as one of the most important factors in affecting human behaviour and performance. The level of motivation an individual or team exerted in their work task can affect all aspects of organizational performance. As mentioned by Project Management Institute (2008), the overall success of the organizational project depends on the project team's commitment which is directly related to their level of motivation. As employees are the main resources for organizations' business activities, the issues of employees' motivation will critically decide organizations' success. However, in understanding that human needs and preferences will not be the same among each other's, one set of motivation package designed for an individual or groups may not turn up a same effect on others. With statement supported by Burke (2007), what makes individual do something is not necessary the same for another individual. Moreover, Saraswathi (2011) also commented individuals are showing discrepancies on their basic motivation drives. Bourgault *et al.* (2008) stated that organizations should obtain a clear understanding in employees' dissimilarities in needs and preferences for motivation factors to boost up their performance towards overall organization goal.

The studies of Motivation in twenty century also reveal discrepancy among individuals towards motivation factors. Numbers of empirical findings have supported that diverse groups of individuals have different preferences over motivation factors. Such diversity may accord their gender (Sadegh and Azadeh, 2012; Abdul Qayyum and Sukirno, 2012; Hamad, 2013), generation (Melissa et. al.,2008; Furnham and Eracleous, 2009; Lee, 2010; Marnewick, 2010), occupation (Adeyinka et. al., 2007; Tan and Amna, 2011; Carolyn et. al., 2011), demographic (Robert and Sammi, 2006; Fang, 2010; Abdul Qayyum and Sukirno, 2012), and other characteristics. As commented by various researchers, since motivation is arrived from individuals' need that to be fulfilled, hence the needs are influence by various complications that shape their diverse preferences over motivation factors (Melissa et. al., 2008; Marnewick, 2010; Sadegh and Azadeh, 2012; Abdul Qayyum and Sukirno, 2012).

CONCLUSION

Apart from historical reviews above, it is determinant that modern Motivation concepts and theories are mostly backboned by ancient philosophies. Although definition of Motivation provided by various researchers and philosopher are slightly difference from time to time, however, it is determinant that the definitions are still within the extent of human causes-and-actions since Ancient Greece. The discovery in this chronology thus contributes a summarised knowledge of how the studies of Motivation have eventually evolved.

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