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MOTIVATION FOR WORK ACROSS AGE GROUPS IN ITALY

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INTRODUCTION

Nelson (1999, p.265) wrote, “Employee motivation may represent one of the last frontiers for organizational leverage”. In fact, employees are the core engine of companies and are definitely of crucial importance for their success. Thus, it is important to keep employees' motivation high, if a company wants to enhance employees working performance in order to remain competitive and efficient.

By looking at Italian demography it is significant to notice how population is aging. In fact, Italy with 21.37 % of the population being 65 years and over is the oldest country in Europe after Germany with 21.76 % (CIA, Age Structure 2016). And birth rate estimate in 2016 was 8.7 births/1,000 population, meaning 1.43 children born/woman (CIA, The World Factbook, 2016). This fact, will in future trigger the stability of the Italian pension system, which is already facing budgetary problems, and very likely retirement age will be further postponed as it has already been recently done from 65 to 67 years old. Because of this, companies are facing the challenge to keep their employees motivated, especially in their older age. Therefore, it is of crucial importance to understand which factors can enhance employees' motivation at various time points during their life-span by leveraging on appropriate and effective motivation factors. Therefore, young working generation is affected by pessimism due to the unstable economic situation that makes it difficult to be employed in a stable position and plan for the future. Yet, stagnant Economy affects also older workers, that face the problem of losing (the so called) permanent job, postponing their retirement and losing energy to work.

In addition to such a situation, a literature review of 33 papers made by Kooij (2008), discovered that the majority of age-related factors (i.e. chronological age, biological age, subjective age, and life span age) negatively affect motivation to continue to work. By looking at different age groups of employees, it is noticeable that motivation is an evolving process, which changes according to life stages and personal needs. Kovach (1987) explained the dynamic nature of motivation by the following example “as employees' money increase, money ceases to be a motivational factor; and as employees become older, interesting work becomes a motivational factor”.

Most conducted studies used chronological age, because it facilitates translation of findings to the organizational environment (Kooij, De Lange, Jansen, Kanfer & Dijkers, 2008). Furthermore, the motivational theory of life span development (hereafter MTL; Heckhausen, 2010) suggests there is an age-associated change in control strategies, meaning, a reduction in utilization of primary control strategies (i.e. bringing the environment in line with one's wishes) focused toward actions that alter external conditions. Hence, older people are less dependent on the external world for the satisfaction of extrinsic causes, and, so, extrinsic motivation is expected to diminish with chronological age. MTL also suggests

that people in their young adulthood depend more on externally primary control strategies (e.g. persistence in goal striving) that bring out extrinsic outcomes, while in later adulthood, people seem to depend more on secondary control strategies (i.e. bringing oneself in line with environmental factors) (e.g. positive reappraisal) that implicate self-oriented cognitive processing, and hence accentuate intrinsic outcomes.

What is clear is that, in order to motivate different age-groups of employees, facing this critical situation in Italy, it is fundamental to understand what motivation factors would help them in such conditions and enhance motivation to work, thus enhancing company's general productivity. Therefore, the exploration of the attitudes that employees hold about factors that motivate them to work is important, because it helps to understand what type of environment would foster employee motivation. In this case, a useful research tool are employee attitude surveys, because they enable to compare the efficacy of management and act as a feedback, which helps to create effective training programs. As Bellows (1949) reported, attitude surveys represent an important direct method to grasp what employees recognize as job-related motivation factor.

One author that specially followed the evolution of employees' motivation to work was Kovach (1980, 1986, 1987, 1992), focusing on the question, "Why do employees work?". Later on, there were also other similar studies that repeated such survey to compare (Wiley, 1997) Kovach's results through time. Behind the question, there was the realization that knowing what motivates an employee to work enables a company to be in a better position to motivate him/her to perform well (Kovach, 1987, p.58). The significant issue is that society is very diverse, so according to different life stages, culture, individual needs and personal characteristics (education, personality etc.), a manager needs to implement different strategies.

Hence, since there is a motivational dichotomy between younger and older employees outlined by literature, which emphasize that according to different life stages (focusing on chronological age) there are different motivational factors (intrinsic and extrinsic) that are more or less effective depending (also) on the person's age, it would be interesting to find out also in Italy which motivation factors are more appealing to young employees and which to older ones.

The purpose of the research conducted in this master thesis is to better understand motivation of Italian workers across life stages and thus enable better management of employees of all ages. The specific objectives are: to investigate which are the factors (based on Kovach's 10 motivating factors) that employees retain more important in motivating them to work, and to identify which are the most important motivating factors according to each of the age groups among Italian employees.

In regards to gathering and handling the actual data, the research will take advantage of quantitative methods of primary data collection, namely a questionnaire strategy. The reason why a questionnaire strategy will be applied is because it is the most appropriate way to collect and analyze quantitative data while using descriptive and inferential statistics (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2012).

The first chapter of this thesis presents and introduces the topic itself. The second chapter will provide in-depth understanding about the motivation theories through which different approaches are taken when analyzing motivation according to the field of research and purpose. This chapter will give to the reader a historical background that will make him/her understand the evolution of motivation theories through time.

Third chapter will deal with the manager's role in motivating employees and the management principles that result more effective in enhancing motivation. Distinction will be made to what practices seem to lead to positive results and those that do not yield to an increase in employees' motivation.

The fourth and fifth chapters outline the research methodology that has been used in the thesis. Moreover, the research model which has been used in this research and the results are presented in this section. In the fifth chapter I will discuss findings and implications of the results obtained from the research. The chapter also features the discussion on limitations that have occurred within this research as well as suggestions for future research.

1 MOTIVATION ORIGINS AND DEFINITION

1.1 Origins of motivation

An important premise is that up to now no theory has been broadly recognized as the end-all theory of what motivates human beings. In fact, there is a broad literature regarding motivation theory. Over the years, many definitions and perspectives concerning motivation have been postulated. The concept of motivation was already considered by ancient Greeks, Socrates, Plato and Aristotle ages. Dating back to Plato (around 300 B.C.), who already tried to explain human motivation and believed in a hierarchy organized such as dietary component, the emotional and the rational (Grosser & Spafford, 1995, p.143).

Similarly, Aristotle for long time affirmed the spiritual hierarchy as regulator of motivation. However, he believed in those dietary and emotional components that are relevant to body and take part to the concept of motivation (Behnaz, 2013). These components can regulate sensors like growth, physical comfort (food) and some sensory experiences such as pain and pleasure (emotional). The two components together represented the basis of irrational motivation force (Behnaz, 2013). The logic section included all rational aspect of the soul

such as intellectual concept and some voluntary elements (Behnaz, 2013). The ancient Greeks postulated three components, the body's desires, pleasures and pains (senses and efforts of will and spirit) in a hierarchical arrangement which for them represented the first theoretical explanation of the motivational activities (Behnaz, 2013).

In the modern era after the Renaissance, René Descartes distinguished between inactive and active aspects of motivation (Behnaz, 2013). Descartes considered the body as the inactive factor of motivation, while will as the active factor of motivation. In his beliefs the body had a physical and mechanical nature with nutrition desires, that answer to those requirements by senses and physiological reflects to external environment (Behnaz, 2013). So, for understanding the physical motivations, physiological analysis had to be applied. On the other hand, he associated the mind to mental, moral and intellectual nature that had resolution will (Behnaz, 2013). So, for understanding targeted motivations, will analysis had to be applied. Hence, will was seen as the force of motivation and Descartes was the first to allocated motivation exclusively to the will of man.

Going less back in the history, starting from Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory (1943), we have one of the first important definitions, suggesting, that every individual has a specific need according to different life stages. The knowledge of motivational processes is one of the key issues in the field of human resources management and in the understanding of the organizational behavior of firms.

The most frequent questions, that are posed by this disciplinary field can be condensed into a generic question such as: "why people do what they do?" The first answer that comes to mind is that human behavior is driven by goals, i.e. to behave in a certain way in order to achieve some desired results. The motives, that seem to guide the behavior, are the reasons, while results, that the behavior intends to achieve, are goals (Ferrari, 2010). This idea of motivation is yet so simple and straightforward as incomplete.

Etymologically, the term "motivation" derives from the Latin word *motus or movere*, which indicates a movement, interpreted as a subject heading towards a desired object or purpose (Tomasi, 2004). The dynamics of desire involve a boost, which can be interpreted as a need or compulsion to accomplish something, or in a deeper sense, as a tension supported by expectations, goals and emotions. Motivation is what provokes us to move from monotony to curiosity and interest. It can be compared to the steering wheel of a car that leads our actions. Motivation represents those psychological processes that cause the arousal, direction, and persistence of voluntary activities that are goal oriented (Mitchell, 1982).

Bartol and Martin (1998) define motivation as a force that energizes behavior, gives direction to behavior, and underlies the tendency to persist. The just cited definition identifies that in order to reach objectives, people have to be appropriately stimulated and enthusiastic, need to have a clear vision on the goals, and have to be willing to commit their

force and energy for the time necessary to accomplish their purpose. Indeed, people provide to companies their skills, experience, knowledge, abilities etc. Therefore, given the fact that a principal task of management includes influencing others to perform in the direction of organizational goals, motivation is a key part of that function. Van Niekerk (1987) supported the idea that the role of motivation should be emphasized as a decisive element, that contributes to company's productivity.

Already by the obtained definition, from an etymological perspective, a theoretical complexity emerges in the issue of motivation. This can be defined as a multifactorial construct, since different aspects come into play, that are interrelated and interacting with each other, i.e.: emotional, cognitive aspect, biological, psychological, contextual, etc. There exist many different motivational models that are highly influenced by different orientations. Theoretical reflection on what drives the action in organized contexts has ancient origins.

As mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, the dominant doctrine present since the time of Plato and Aristotle, throughout the middle ages, and even today reinterpreted in a modern way, asserts that the subject controls the behavior, and that humans are free to choose what to do (Avallone, 1994). Although decisions can be influenced by external stimuli and internal needs and desires, the actions are controlled by human reason (Avallone, 1994).

The Hedonistic philosophy also suggests us, that the purpose of these actions is the pursuit of states that provide pleasure and satisfaction. This concept is known as the doctrine of the "free will" and takes part in motivational models, where the motivation is seen as a free will (Biggio, 2007).

On the other hand, already at the time of Plato, there were people opposed to the idea of the "free will". The Greek philosopher Democritus argued, for example that in nature all events arise from inflexible concatenations and if all laws of cause and effect were known, it would be possible to predict the behavior of people (Biggio, 2007).

In the Genetic Determinism a very known theory is the "Origin of the species" written by Charles Darwin (1861). According to Darwin, if humans and animals have the same origin from a genetic point of view (and thus, are biologically closely related), it seems reasonable to assume that human behavior and animal behavior, are subject to the same laws of cause and effect. This stream of thought relegates the motivation to a simple "organic State of need", which tends towards a state of restoration of homeostasis, implying consequently the stimulation stopping (Bonazzi, 2002).

So, the motivational process, which guides the individual to act, would originate from an inner state of non-equilibrium. This condition comes from the person's awareness of having to meet a need, which is evidenced by manifestations of tension or expectation. Hence, there

follows an activation of behaviors and appropriate means that aim at satisfying the need, and the latter, if fully satisfied, reestablishes a state of balance (Bonazzi, 2002).

From the point of view of the socio-anthropological models, motivation is the result of the cultural and social actions understood as reactions to the environment, that are learned during person's evolution as part of his/her inner "basic personality" (Rueda, Moll, Luis, 1994). For example, according to Behaviorism, emphasized by B. F. Skinner (1969), once specified how the environment determines the behavior, there is everything that has to be said about motivation.

Finally, the psycho-social models developed a concept of motivation, which is defined as the need to feel in harmony with the reference group (Tomasi, 2004). This concept refers to different giving and receiving signals that confirm the belonging to a specific group (Tomasi, 2004). The importance of these approaches comes from having introduced, among other things, the influence of the group, the learning effect and reinforcement action on motivation.

In this snapshot, it is evident, how every stream of theories focuses on a different aspect of the problem concerning motivation proposing different origins of meaning, that seem difficult to reaggregate into a shared view. Thus, the definition remains relentlessly partial.

It can be said that every methodology has provided a non-exhaustive interpretation of the phenomenon of motivation. The models do not adapt to explain all motivations founded and the variety and the quality of human reasons to action (Perrone, 2005).

1.2 Work motivation

In the case of work motivation, the analysis extends to a multitude of factors, not exclusively internal to a person, that are capable to explain dynamics inherent in the deployment of psychophysical energies to a professional activity (Ferrari, 2010). It is fundamental to know and to understand the motivational structure of individuals and the related behavioral mechanisms in order to have an informed management organizational system. The reason why motivation is amply valued is perhaps due to its consequence: it produces.

What must be investigated is the process through which the individual focuses his/her energy with the aim to meet certain needs and thus, be productive. Great leaders know that people are intrinsically motivated when they understand why they are doing something, and the best leaders put the correct conditions in place to ensure people gain this deeper connection (Forbes, 2015).

As already noticed, motivation can be analyzed from many perspectives and work motivation is the one that deals specifically with the workforce and with this research. For

the goal of this research, the definition given by VandenBos (2007) will be applied: the desire or willingness to make an effort in one's work. Motivating factors may include salary and other benefits, desire for status and recognition, a sense of achievement, relationships with colleagues, and a feeling that one's work is useful or important (p. 1003). This definition is being used for this research for several reasons. Due to the fact that it is a straightforward and succinct definition of work motivation and matches with a number of Kovach's (1995) ten job reward factors making it more pertinent to this research.

In the following chapters I will examine the most representative theories of human motivation that apply within a company context. Each approach is both an expression and a product of its time that examine the organization from different perspectives that lead in turn to accentuate specific problems.

2 MOTIVATION THEORIES

Many scientists tried to explain and clarify employee's behavior in the work environment, each of them has focused on different perspectives and has researched different aspects of motivation. This suggests us, that there is not just one possible way to look at motivation, but many. In order to have a more complete view of what is motivation and how it influences people and more specifically employees, I decided to take into account various theories that explore it by taking into account different elements that are part of the complex phenomenon that defines it. This chapter and the following one will present theories that go from the psycho-anthropologic explanation of people's behavior and motivation to theories that are more economical in nature and try to develop methods and behaviors that are useful to trigger motivation in an employee, maintain it and exploit it for company's benefit. The logic behind this order of theories is that, it is first important to take into consideration how motivation arises in a person and develops itself and just then it is possible to better understand theories that give suggestions on how to manage it and exploit it in a person.

According to literature, there are four basic philosophies that highlight the numerous perspectives of work motivation. Schein (2006, p. 188) categorized these four perspectives in rational-economic man, social man, self-actualization man and complex man.

- The rational-economic man perspective assumes that employees are motivated by economic matters, therefore the decision-making process of these employees is founded on the rational-economic. Salary and external rewards seem to derive from this perspective of motivation.
- Social man considers that employees are mainly motivated by social needs. So, this perspective stresses the importance of establishing an environment contributing to satisfying social relationships in the workplace.

- Concerning the self-actualizing man, the assumption is that employees are intrinsically motivated and obtain satisfaction from their personal realization. A characteristic of this attitude is that reward systems are highly performance-oriented.
- In the case of the complex man perspective, there is the assumption that employees are motivated by a mixture of factors and that these motives change over time. Exponents of this approach recommend that workplace should be characterized by great level of decision-making autonomy and highly personalized reward systems.

These mentioned perspectives stimulated a number of researchers for the creation of new motivation models. Schultz (1998) explained motivation as a combination of personal and workplace features that clarify employee's behavior in the work environment.

Supporters intrinsically oriented stated that motivation is an internal state that causes an individual to involve in a certain behavior (Spector, 2003, p. 200). According to this, Roos & van Eeden (2008) affirmed that motivation can be presented as a phenomenon that comes from a person's wills and needs to achieve a particular goal.

According to the behaviorist perspective, rewarding employee's behavior will induce him/her to repeat it, whereas unrewarded or punished behavior will tend to vanish. From this point of view, Beach (1980) explained intrinsic motivation as a job-related content, that happens when employee perform a task from which they obtain satisfaction.

On the other hand, extrinsic motivation is more connected to the job environment that provides a reward to employees after a job well done.

Finally, work motivation can be described as a set of internal and external forces that induct work-related behavior and determine its form, direction, intensity and duration (Pinder, 1998, p.11).

2.1 Human Relationship Approach Theory

The unsolved problems regarding the Tayloristic period, particularly the alienation in the workplace, inspired several researches in the field of industrial psychology and sociology of work. Given the exhausting schedules and rhythms imposed by the "Tayloristic factory", studies focused on the analysis of fatigue (from a physical and a psychological point of view), and on the impact, that the monotony of work could have on motivation.

A group of researchers, that boosted the development of these themes found that the boredom at work is greatest when people must do a very repetitive task, which furthermore does not allow distractions (Fontana, 1993). Then some innovations were proposed to managers with the aim to eliminate this boredom and reduce monotony. These innovations were the

followings: rotation of activities among employees, non-isolation of the individual employee in the workplace, introduction of breaks in the work shift and a day salary instead of piecework (Fontana, 1993). These recommendations and suggestions, as can be noticed, were in contrast with the Taylor's model and especially with the Ford model of assembly line. These suggestions focalize on motivation with a greater human-oriented approach toward the working environmental and labor relationships, and not just on economic incentives.

During the 50's, the attention to these themes was further developed due to the diffusion of the School of Human Relationships and theories of Elton Mayo, who enjoyed great success and influence. Studies conducted by a team of researchers lead by Elton Mayo (Fontana, 1993), were preceded by a process of analysis and experimentation started by the management of the Western Electric Company, experimenting the relationship between brightness and employee's productivity. The assumption was that, productivity had to grow by increasing the light intensity. The test was made with an experimental group and a control group. At the end of the experiment it turned out, that production increased in both groups, those subject to changes in light intensity and those, where light intensity had been left unchanged. Later, the light was reduced, but production continued to increase, even if slightly. The results confused the company's managers, that sensed that there were important human factors in such a behavior that had to be evaluated, and therefore they decided it was requested an external scientific advice.

From that moment, Mayo came into play with his group of researchers. Various modifications were made to test the effect of some environmental changes on employee's production. These changes can be summarized in: reduction of overall working hours, introduction of a break and then a second break, reintroduction of the starting conditions, introduction of breaks different from the first ones and the possibility to have a quick breakfast (Fontana, 1993). The researchers immediately noted, that the production increased from the beginning and continued growing through time. The authors of the research, and in particular the assistants of Mayo, Reethlisberger and Dickson, said that the increase of the productivity was primarily due to the establishment of friendly and positive relationships among employees. These good results appeared after breaks (the production always increased after a short break), while the economic incentive resulted irrelevant (Fontana, 1993).

Advancement in technology, introduction of automation and computer forced employers to progressively increase the cooperation with their employees. Moreover, the employee, got rid of many routine jobs and especially of many tough jobs, and became more technical. So, it happened that, the work became more engaging and intrinsically motivating, because it was richer of content, research and meaning, that in turn enabled to overcome the Tayloristic phase. So, the new starting phase had a new element: technology, which became the main driving force of transformations. Another author, who provided additional important

considerations on the human factor present in the work organization, is the sociologist Barnard (Fontana, 1993). He outlined the functions of the modern industrial manager, introducing his/her figure in a broader theoretical concept, that he called "cooperative system". This referred to a company, where the collaboration among managers, directors, department heads and workers was no longer left to chance and goodwill but was seen as a necessary integral and structural part of the company itself (Fontana, 1993). Moreover, Barnard's deep conviction was that in the working sector, material incentives (like wage, bonuses etc.) were not the only important things, but rather there were equally important non-material incentives (like prestige, moral satisfaction, honor, promotions etc.) (Fontana, 1993).

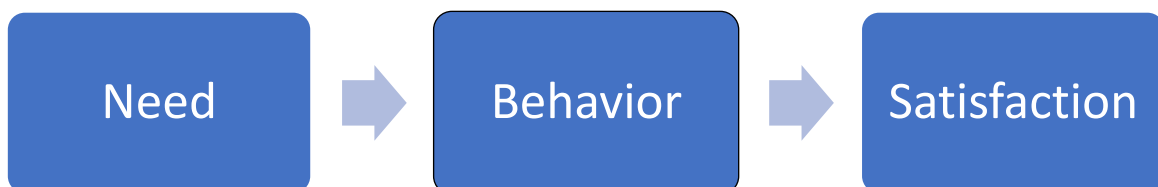
The step ahead Barnard made with respect to Mayo concerned the formalization of informal relationships present in small groups within a company, because Barnard believed it was important to incentivize them and make them explicit as much as possible. In his opinion, in order to make it possible, the company daily life had to be established on the base of formal applied norms and not on paternalistic aspects (Fontana, 1993). Indeed, persuasion and moral incentives was not a concession or a random tribute tied to the goodness of the owner or manager, but rather, a persistent pursuit of consensus and incentivization, using each time both economic and moral incentives (Fontana,1993).

2.2 The theory of need: Maslow's Pyramid of Needs

Motivation can be said to be a theoretical construct that is applied to explain behavior. Motivation denotes the causes for people's actions, wills, and needs. Thus, motivation can be also explained as person's direction to a certain conduct or what makes a person to desire to replicate a behavior and vice versa (Kyles Coffeelosophies, Motivation 2015).

Generally, the basic scheme of motivation looks like this:

Figure 1: Basic motivation scheme



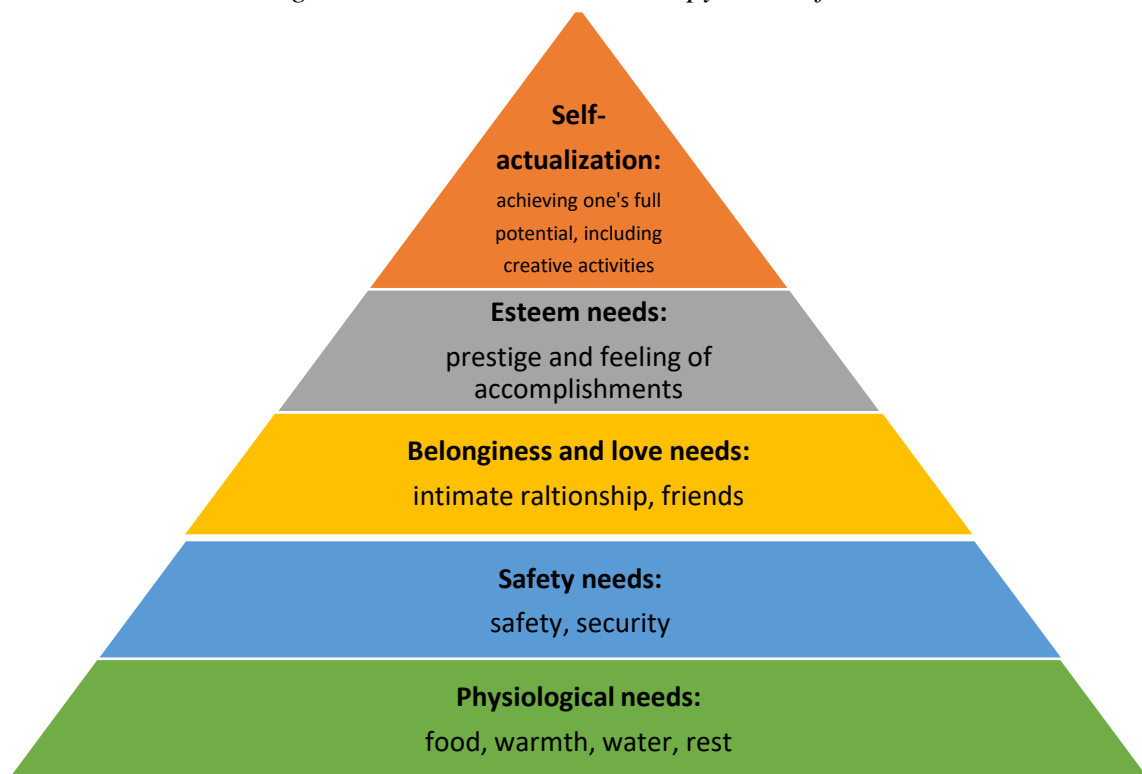
Source: Kyles Coffeelosophies. Motivation . Motivation Theories, 2015.

In other words, people have several needs or wills that induces them to execute certain actions (behavior) that fulfill those needs (satisfaction). Since people have many needs, this process will firstly satisfy those needs/wants that the person perceives as primary. An alteration on this scheme, principally suitable from a manager's point of view, would be to insert a rectangle named "reward" between "behavior" and "satisfaction". Thus, individuals (or employees), who have certain needs do certain things (behavior), which then bring them rewards established by the manager, which satisfy their needs (Kyles Coffeelosophies, Motivation, 2015).

The challenge lays in the fact that people seem to have various needs, so in order to identify those that are the most important a classification of needs must be done to be able to understand how to design an organization that works well by maximizing the potential of people involved and thus to maximize people's satisfaction, motivation and productivity. A helpful theory to achieve such optimization suggests a hierarchy of needs, where the needs at the bottom are the most urgent and have to be satisfied before focusing on the others that lay in upper levels.

Maslow's pyramid of needs (Figure 2), is probably the best-known personality-based perspective of motivational theory, which provides a categorization of the main human needs, arranging them in a hierarchical structure, from the most primitive and immature needs to those more mature and typical of advanced civilization.

Figure 2: Maslow's hierarchical pyramid of needs



Source: Studios Guy. Human Resource. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs: Theory, Needs, Pyramid, 1943.

The model supposes that individuals meet their needs in ascending direction and that needs of each level must be met, at least partially, so that higher level needs can manifest. The hierarchical order of these needs also determines the priority order of their satisfaction to be reached. The practical implication of this conception is that a given element can help motivate an individual, just if, it satisfies an unsatisfied level in the hierarchy of individual's needs.

An important aspect stressed by Maslow (1970) is that a satisfied need, makes a person less susceptible to additional stimuli of the same kind. Indeed, the individual tries to meet needs of higher level. This indicates the necessity to adapt the objective and incentive definition within an organization, based on the need of the considered person in that specific phase that has to be satisfied. So, from this point of view the main strength of Maslow's theory derives from the identification of individual's needs in order to understand employee's motivational behavior. Once detected employee's unsatisfied needs, managers may influence performance by trying to boost employee's motivation by leveraging on incentives that aim at fulfilling his/her need.

By looking at the pyramid structure, it can be noticed that it is erected by five levels, starting from the bottom layer there are: physiological needs (need for drink, sleep, food), safety needs (security of body, employment, resources, health, safety), belongingness and love needs (intimate relationships, family, friends), esteem needs (prestige, and accomplishment feeling, confidence) and self-actualization (creativity, morality, spontaneity, acceptance of facts, problem solving, lack of prejudice). These five levels can be seen in three macro groups of needs called basic needs, that comprises the first two levels (physiological needs and safety need), psychological needs concerning the third and the fourth level (belongingness and love needs and esteem need), and the last one self-fulfillment needs with the top level (self-actualization need). In the attempt to achieve the highest level of the pyramid there is not a one-directional way, but instead, an individual may fluctuate between levels, going back and forth among different kind of needs (Maslow, 1970). This is due to the fact that life occurrences such as divorce or loss of a job make an individual drop from a higher hierarchical level to a lower one, and vice versa with positive events. According to Maslow only one in a hundred individuals achieves full self-actualization.

The beginning of humanistic psychology, institutionalized by Maslow in 1962 through the foundation of the American Association for Humanistic Psychology, provides some tendencies. The common element of such tendencies is the realization tendency present in each individual, which refers to employee's ability to protect his/her-self, fulfil his/her basic needs, and achieve his/her-self-development through satisfaction of needs of higher order. Indeed, in Maslow's analysis it is included the concept of evolutionary change.

2.2.1 Maslow's theory general criticisms

By applying the theory to company's organizational contexts, there are present some inconsistencies. First, potential elements that may be in contrast with employee's evolutionary process and company's context must be identified.

First of all, the model is strongly centered on the individual self-determination mechanism, tracing motivational forces exclusively to internal factors (Perry, Barnowski, & Parcel, 1990). In such a way, it is ignored one of the basic and universally (not only by psychologists) recognized principle, i.e. the full understanding of behavior, which is determined from the interaction among an individual (with his/her own particularities), his/her thought patterns, and the environmental characteristics (Perry, Barnowski, & Parcel, 1990). Moreover, not necessarily people meet their needs, especially those of higher level, through their job or occupation. Indeed, this could happen through a hobby, or finalizing his/her own personal project, etc.

Therefore, a manager, who wants to apply the hierarchical model of needs should then be a skilled psychologist, or alternatively he/she should collect information about all existence areas, where people search for satisfying their needs at different levels, and this is quite impractical and unworkable.

Another aspect that can be criticized is the fact that an individual can follow a different path with respect to that implied by Maslow (ascending direction) to realize his/her needs. Furthermore, it is not necessary that a person stays in the same level until the related need is satisfied. So, if it is true, that some needs are perceived as more undeniable than others (a person, who has to spend most of his/her time in procuring food and water will not be writing music or reading a book), but it is also equally true, that motivation in self-actualizing can temporarily overtake the basic person's needs, such as sleeping (Perry, Barnowski, & Parcel, 1990). For instance, an employee, who works very hard, isolates him/herself and renounces to have any kind of social relationship, despite explicit disapproval from colleagues, just in order to gain a career advancement.

Based on these criticisms, it is deductible that the analysis of the motivational scheme of an individual has to focus on the satisfaction of various categories of needs identified by Maslow but cannot have neither a hierarchical structure a priori nor a predictable realization path (ascending direction).

These simple observations, easily inferable by monitoring the mutable human behavior, drastically reduce the applicability of Maslow's approach both in terms of predictive value and especially on its applicability. The theory is difficult to put into practice, since it does not offer specific management tools to be applied on employees. This is partly due to the fact that the same need may be satisfied in different ways, depending on the individual. For

example, the esteem need for someone can be satisfied with a formal recognition, for someone other with a career advancement and for a third one with a more informal appreciation or benefit and so on.

2.2.2 Alderfer's re-elaborated version of Maslow's theory

Based on Maslow's theory, the psychologist Alderfer (1969) created his own modification of it and developed his theory called ERG (i.e. Existence, Relatedness, Growth), which merges Maslow's five levels of needs in three levels defined as "existential", "relational" and "growth".

The first, "need for existence" coincides with the first two levels of Maslow's pyramid, that refer to the satisfaction of needs required to survive both in physical and psychological terms (food, water, shelter, safety). The second, "need for relatedness" relates to people's need to gather with others, to be loved and respected, and it coincides with the third and fourth category of Maslow's pyramid (Alderfer, 1969). The third, "need for growth" focus on people's needs to grow and develop personally and in the professional sphere in order to demonstrate his/her own potential.

Unlike Maslow's idea, saying that access to higher levels of the pyramid requires first lower level needs to be satisfied, Alderfer's ERG are simultaneous needs. According to ERG theory, if the focus is solely on a need at a time, a person cannot be motivated effectively (Alderfer, 1969). In fact, ERG theory recognizes, that the order of importance of the three categories can vary from person to person. So, the main novelty lies in the idea of a continuum among levels, as opposite to Maslow's hierarchy.

In addition, ERG theory recognizes that, if a need for high level remains unfulfilled, the person may regress toward lower-level needs that are easier to meet. This is known as the principle of frustration-regression (Prati, 2011). Such principle has an effect on motivation in the workplace. For instance, if employers do not offer development opportunities to employees, they may regress toward relationship needs (Prati, 2011). The Alderfer's theoretical framework has a concept, which is especially useful in understanding nowadays typical working situation, i.e. a working environment characterized by high flexibility, instability and indeterminacy (Prati, 2011). The concept refers to the fact, that a person can move from one state (category) to another in a continuum and not necessarily in the direction (ascendant) defined by Maslow (Prati, 2011).

2.2.3 Herzberg's review and adaptation of Maslow's needs

Maslow's intuition relating to the presence of basic factors and truly motivating factors, inspired a reworking known as Two Factor theory written by the clinical psychologist Frederick Herzberg, who conducted a survey on 200 accountants and technicians from

Pittsburgh in the United States. Herzberger used an open type interview method, that enabled him to gather significant results (if compared to results normally obtained) with the conventional closed (yes/no) or multiple-choice questionnaires. The research results showed that factors contributing more to satisfaction (called from Herzberger factors for satisfaction), were those more inherent to the working activity itself, while factors of dissatisfaction (called hygiene factors) were correlated to the working environment and the salary (Hackman, 1976). So, this theory challenges a radical idea regarding how satisfaction level influences performance and motivation. In fact, according to this idea, if a person is unsatisfied with an aspect of his/her job (for example, the salary), such an aspect must be changed (for example, through an increase in the salary) in order to reach a satisfaction level (Wiley, 1997). Thus, increasing also motivation and performance. Indeed, often happens that a company adopts modifications to enhance the internal climate, like office ergonomic improvement, rationalization of holidays, or even economic efforts like increase in salary, but without obtaining any effect in motivation terms.

Herzberger's theory demonstrates that everything associated with working environment cannot yield to an effective satisfaction. These related improvements can just bring to a reduction of dissatisfaction and will not transform into a positive satisfaction (Wiley, 1997). To have a positive satisfaction it is necessary to act on other factors related to the nature of the job and the employee's subjective motivation implied in executing the task. Satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not positive and negative values placed on one dimension, (i.e. they are the opposite of each other), but rather, they give rise to two separate dimensions, which run on two parallel planes (Ostinelli, 2005). So basically, if hygiene factors are absent, they create dissatisfaction or discontent, but, if they are present, they reduce the level of dissatisfaction without increasing the level of motivation.

On the other hand, motivating factors actually improve performance, because they change the nature of the work, making it more challenging and intrinsically rewarding (Ostinelli, 2005). These elements satisfy higher needs and lead the employee to be more productive. Their absence does not create dissatisfaction but does not make that "extra step" to the employee in terms of motivation. Therefore, the motivation can just be found in the work itself, or better in the intrinsic satisfaction at work (Ostinelli, 2005).

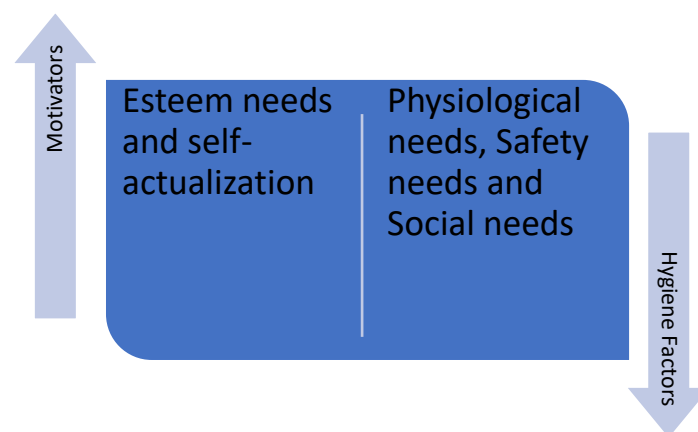
2.3 Herzberg's Two Factor Theory

The analysis of motivation to work focusing on needs' analysis has been extensively discussed and as mentioned some important theories have been developed through years. In this section I will focus on Herzberger's Two Factor theory. The American psychologist was one of the most influential names in the field of business management. His theory, known as Two Factor Theory, had large circulation and was often used to study and understand motivational dynamics within business contexts.

The research started by Herzberg in 1957 had as its object the analysis of the factors that give rise to feelings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction to work. He set the assumption, that people's attitudes towards their work are determined by a number of factors: some tend to produce satisfaction, while others, substantially different from the previous ones, (if present) tend to produce, a state of dissatisfaction (Bassett-Jones, & Lloyd, 2005). In order to test this hypothesis, he and a group of his collaborators conducted a research for about 12 years, consisting of semi-structured interviews to a sample of technicians and accountants in the Pittsburgh area. The interviewees were asked to recount events regarding their professional life that led to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The data collected and processed highlighted a number of factors correlated to attitudes of employees, i.e. factors linked with significant frequency and positive attitudes such as: success, recognition, work content, responsibility and career opportunities, and factors linked with significant frequency and negative attitudes, which are: organization's policies and procedures, control mechanisms, interpersonal relationships with colleagues, personal relationship with the boss, physical working conditions, status and remuneration.

The former factors are called motivating (or intrinsic) factors, because their presence causes an increase in satisfaction and, consequently, greater motivation, while their absence does not produce dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 1987). The latter ones are called hygiene (or extrinsic) factors and their presence is needed to avoid dissatisfaction, but it is not enough to ensure greater motivation (Herzberg, 1987). In the first case, a person does not seek work only for economic well-being, safety and comfort related to the physical environment or the pleasantness of colleagues, but rather the person is looking especially for intrinsic satisfaction at work, that will bring him/her the joy of a "psychological growth" (House, Baruch, & Lawrence, 1967). While as concerns the "hygiene researchers", they are sensitive only to external incentives at work, like the remuneration, the environment, etc. According to Herzberg, just the first category of individuals has a propensity towards a psychological maturity that leads to personal fulfillment and self-realization described by Maslow.

Figure 3: The relationship between the Motivation-Hygiene Theory and Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs



Source: Hersey and Blanchard. *Management of Organizational Behavior Utilizing Human Resource*, 1982.

The elements related to the motivating factors are those that Maslow called need for self-actualization and need for esteem; i.e. those needs that relate to the psychological growth of the individual. Such motivation is subordinated to the existence of certain conditions.

The first condition is represented by the growth of knowledge, meaning that the work should result as a constant stimulus to acquire new skills, both theoretical and practical ones (House, Baruch, & Lawrence, 1967). The increase in knowledge must then lead to an expansion of relationships. It must result in a standalone tool capable to get further knowledge and be an intelligent interpret of reality. Therefore, it must be able to discover logical connections/links between different aspects of what is known. The third condition is represented by the creativity. The fourth condition is the effectiveness under uncertainty circumstances, consisting in the ability of an individual to decide for him/her-self in case of unforeseen conditions relative to the prefixed behavioral patterns (House, Baruch, & Lawrence, 1967). This basically consists in strengthening responsibility and empowerment. The fifth condition is defined by Herzberg (1959) as real growth, meaning that psychological growth must relate to actions taken by the person itself, and not by another individual with whom the person identifies him/her-self due to emotional or ideological reasons. Finally, the sixth condition, is the principle of individuation, meaning that the psychological growth must deal with the individual itself, defined as a responsible, autonomous and conscious person, and not as a member of an organization (Herzberg, 1959). A person, who finds his/her human dimension only at work, does not have a real psychological growth, since the work, to be truly rewarding, must give to the employee an enrichment, that goes beyond the working sphere.

According to Herzberg (1959), in order to meet needs of a higher order, job enrichment must be used as a tool that consists in the enhancement of work through the unification of tasks of different content and responsibilities. In this way, it is possible to increase creative and innovative aspects of tasks that become more specific and challenging. Thus, according to Herzberger (1959) there is a more effective learning, which consequently increases the satisfaction of those people that are oriented towards motivation objectives.

The hygiene or extrinsic factors, are unsatisfactory and are linked to the environment in which employees do their work and it concerns: company's politics, supervision, remuneration, relationship among colleagues, security and working conditions (Herzberg, 1959). Intrinsic (motivational) factors include: self-actualization, recognition, responsibility, advancement, and the work itself. Satisfactory factors dominate the global satisfaction at work, but if dissatisfactory factors outweigh factors of satisfaction, then, there may be a general dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 1959).

Table 1: Motivating Factors and Hygiene Factors - Schematic representation

MOTIVATING FACTORS	HYGENE FACTORS
Achievement of significant results	Business policies and procedures
Recognition of achieved outcomes	Supervision
Promotion opportunities and professional advancement	Remuneration level
Responsibility level	Working environment, physical space
	Security and physical condition of the workforce
	Status
Labor contents	Interpersonal relationship with colleagues, superiors, subordinates

Source: Maidani, E., Public Personnel Management. 20(4), p.441, 1991.

By measuring the overall satisfaction, it is possible to determine whether employees believe their work is enjoyable and interesting or not. So, given that motivating and hygiene factors are a separate continuum, it is the global/overall satisfaction at work that determines whether or not employees will remain in their working role (Herzberg, 1959).

2.4 Self-determination theory of motivation

People's motivation distinguishes not only by different amounts, but also by different types of motivation, meaning that it varies both in level (i.e., how much motivation), and in the orientation (i.e., what type of motivation) (Richard, R. and E. Deci, 2000). Orientation of motivation concerns the underlying attitudes and goals that give rise to action—that is, it has to do with the why of actions (Richard, R. and E. Deci, 2000).

Intrinsic motivation refers to doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable. It has to do with the psychological rewards an employee gets from his/her job. So, it is the degree to which the tasks performed at work are seen as interesting and enjoyable, providing their own inherent reward. When a person is intrinsically motivated, genuinely cares about his/her work, looks for better ways to accomplish it, and is energized and fulfilled by doing it well (Thomas, 2002, p. 132). This suggests that intrinsic motivation is more related to long-term satisfaction that one has with him/her-self and his/her job.

Moreover, research indicates that intrinsic motivation is superior for task where quality, understanding, learning, development and creativity are important (Thomas, 2002, p. 132). Thomas (2002) also defined drivers of intrinsic motivation in four key steps that should be considered by managers: choice, competence, meaning and development and progress. He suggests that managers have to delegate tasks to employees and trust them in order to give them a feeling of empowerment and responsibility. Information sharing should be encouraged among superiors and employees as well. Competence to employees must be recognized through positive feedbacks, recognition of skills and abilities. The manager must be engaged in giving employees a meaning and encourage them through identification of the shared passions and visions. Meanwhile, managers are also responsible to develop a cooperative climate where progress can be met through set milestones followed by the celebration of the success. Hereafter, there are summarized the drivers of intrinsic motivation that managers should take into account when trying to building it.

Table 2: Drivers of intrinsic motivation.

<p>Choice</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Delegation of authority -Trust in employees -Employees understand the main purposes and goals -Widespread sharing of information 	<p>Competence</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Positive feedback -Recognition of skills and abilities -Challenges -High quality standards
<p>Meaning</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -A non-cynical climate -Identification of shared passion -An exiting vision -Relevant work tasks -Complete or whole tasks 	<p>Development and progress</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -A cooperative climate -Milestones -Celebration of progress and success -Access to customers or clients/end users

Source: Thomas, K. W., Intrinsic Motivation at Work: Building Energy and Commitment. pp.132, 2002.

Self-Determination Theory (SDT), that focuses on determining the type of motivation that is involved in a certain moment from the person, deepened research on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Studies conducted until now, mention three important basic needs that have to be accomplished in order to foster individual well-being and people's positive social growth. These needs are: competence (Harter, 1978; White, 1963), relatedness (Reis 1994; Baumeister & Leary, 1995), and autonomy (deCharms, 1968; Deci, 1975). Harter (1978), defined intrinsic motivation as something that is present since we are born, and it can be associated to the basic instincts that move the first steps of a child. It has to do with the

internal tendency to explore, learn, try new things and seek challenges to improve oneself (Harter, 1978). All this, without being externally motivated by receiving any kind of reward.

If compared to Maslow hierarchy of needs, it is interesting to notice that intrinsic motivators tend to stay on the upper part of the Maslow's pyramid. Deci and Ryan (1985) said that there is variability in intrinsic motivation. Basically, they stated that social and environmental matters, can promote versus weaken intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and studies conducted showed that intrinsic motivation is facilitated in an environment featured by a secure relational base. Extrinsic motivation refers to an external incentive that is given for motivating a person, not as in the case of intrinsic motivation, where the satisfaction of performing an activity is integral with the person (deCharms, 1968). Things like rewards, money, gifts etc. are provided, because the task alone does not give to that person a satisfaction itself. There exist, different levels of extrinsic motivation ranging from amotivation, to passive compliance, to active personal commitment, and according to SDT are due to the degree of internalization and integration of the task-given, that a person is able to assimilate (Deci & Ryan, 1985). The more a person internalizes the regulation the more he/she feels personally involved in the activity he/she is asked to perform. SDT discloses the processes through which it is possible to make an extrinsically motivated behaviour become self-determined and analyses effects of the social environment that has on it.

The variability in autonomy determines the degree of extrinsic motivation (Ryan and Connell, 1989; Vallerand, 1997). A clear example is given by Heider (1958): students doing their homework, because they believe will help them in their future (career, life) versus students that do them just because of parent's threats, are both motivated by an external factor, but these two cases have different degrees in autonomy. Indeed, the former shows more self-encouragement and personal involvement, whereas the latter represents more an obedience to the imposed instruction. Deci and Ryan (1985) described the various types of extrinsic motivation.

On one extreme there is amotivation, that results from not valuing an activity (Ryan, 1995), not feeling capable to do the activity (Bandura, 1986), or not believing it can yield to a desired outcome (Seligman, 1975). Non-motivated people act either without interest or not at all. On the other extreme there is intrinsic motivation, which represents the prototypic example of self-determination. In between them, there is extrinsic motivation, which splits according to the level of regulation perceived: external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation and integrated regulation.

Proceeding by order, external regulation is perceived, when something is performed to fulfill an external obligation or get a reward. We refer to introjected regulation, when a person takes in a regulation but does not accept it as his/her own (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 72). Usually a person completes the task in order to avoid anxiety, sense of guilt or to search pride (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 72).

Concerning identified regulation, the motivation perceived is more autonomous (self-determined) and the person views the action to be performed as more personal/internal. The regulation through integration is a step before intrinsic regulation. It happens when external regulations are fully integrated into the self. This latter one is almost the same as intrinsic motivation with the exception that the action is not done for personal pleasure (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 73).

Finally, internalization has a critical role when talking about extrinsic motivation. The most difficult part consists in finding out the best way to nurture and promote it. As discovered in a test made by Ryan, Stiller and Lynch (1994) children at school that had internalized more the regulations related to school tasks, were those who had a safer and a tighter relationship with parents and teachers. Therefore, this study suggests that social circumstances can influence the degree of internalization. According to Harter (1978), the employee by receiving positive reinforcements, is able to internalize a system of self-gratification, which in turn allows him/her to better master strategies aimed at achieving certain goals. It is like "injecting" him/her-self rewards that are nothing more than positive feelings for having accomplished a task, from which emerges a sense of autonomy and personal/internal growth (Harter, 1978). Basically, by reinforcing this process consequently decreases the need for external gratification/rewards, and motivation increases thanks to the perception of feeling competent and having control over the environment.

To sum up, if contexts support autonomy there is a higher chance they can yield to autonomous regulation, which in turn enable the individual to feel capable, connected and autonomous (Ryan & Deci, 2001).

2.5 Freud's explanation of human motivation

At this point, I consider important to provide some contributions from psychology theory which, while enlarging the perspective of analysis, allows also to sketch out a more complete picture of the motivational phenomenon within the perspective from which I started, the business organization. For this purpose, I will get through psychological theories used to understand the elements that characterize motivation of individuals.

Psychological theories focused on satisfaction of needs captured some aspects. By taking a look at the psycho-analytical and instinct-based theories developed by Sigmund Freud, who identified instinctual and emotional regulation processes present in humans, nowadays we have a partial explanation of human motivation.

For this purpose, an important distinction is made between conscious and unconscious motivations (or needs). In fact, according to Freud (1915) any behavior is motivated, even if the person is not always aware of it.

Each individual being in contact with the environment, perceives through impulses biological instinctual needs (i.e. the famous State of the Ego), which often cannot be satisfied in a socially acceptable way (Boundless Psychology. Freudian Psychoanalytic Theory of Personality). However, not always the individual is able to identify what are the real reasons that lead him/her to perceive a certain need and consequently to act in a way to satisfy it (Strachey & Freud, 1915). This is due to the fact, that actions are the result of a complex behavior, namely an inner elaboration gained through the balance of socially acceptable instincts (Super-Ego) (Boundless Psychology, Freudian Psychoanalytic Theory of Personality).

So, it is necessary to be aware, that if a manager wants to orientate an employee toward a certain behavior or a way of being, in order for this to happen, he/she needs to provide a socially or ethically acceptable rationalization in terms of behavior (Biggio, 2007). For instance, to get an employee to work overtime by promising him/her greater tolerance on the entry time at work, will not be efficient, if he/she works in a context, where there is a rigorous respect of working hours, and punctuality is a very important value (Biggio, 2007).

2.6 Motivation according to Arousal Theory

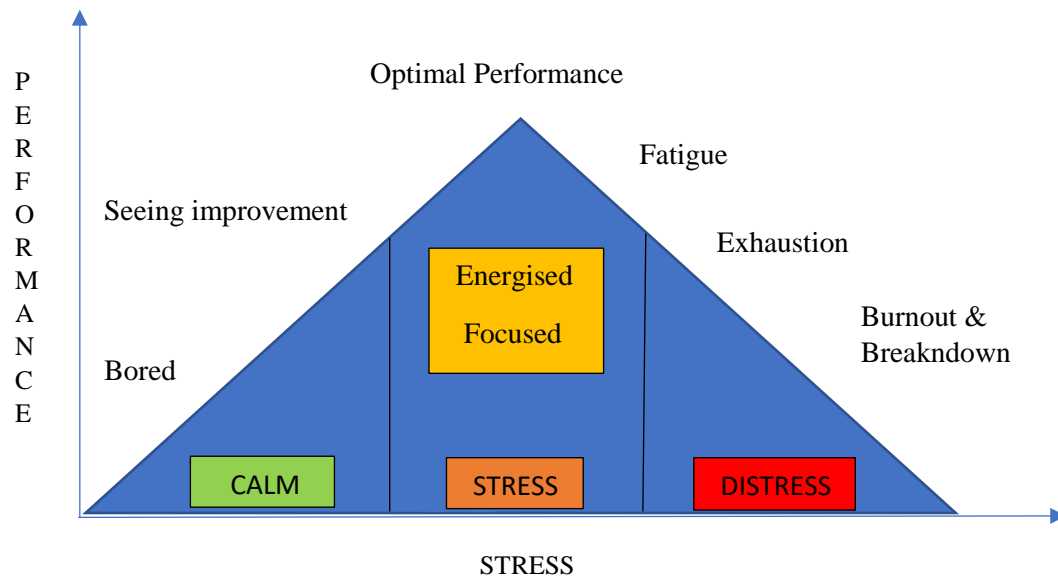
Other cognitive theories like Constructivism enable to analyze individual mechanisms of the active participation in the creation of reality, and therefore also of the working experience. Related theories highlight conscious component of human motivation, having as object of study the inner regulation systems that regulate person's research, elaboration and generation of information and of meanings that are useful to achieve certain goals and satisfy needs (Biggio, 2007). Among theories that embrace this view, the most known is so called Arousal Theory.

This theory deems that motivation is supported not only by a need to maintain a quiet situation of harmony, but also by a need to break it and restore it again (Biggio, 2007). Unlike defined in the Instinct-Based theories, in the Arousal theory the brain is physiologically inert and its natural activity consists in a process of self-generated motivation (Biggio, 2007). Motivation is seen as an energy that originates from a conflict and is set free when the conflict is resolved, that is when the goals are achieved.

The motivation is identified as the resolution of the conflict, i.e. a state of relaxation of the system, which cannot last too long (Coon & Mitterer, 2007). Each time a need is satisfied,

another conflict arises, which leads again to tensions in the system and conducts to the desire to release energy and to perform the action, and so to motivation (Coon & Mitterer, 2007).

Figure 4. Human performance representation



Source: Hook AP Psychology 4B. Theories of motivation by Aliya Tucker. IV. Arousal theory, 1908.

The Arousal theory point out how individual wellbeing, which is the only motivation engine, comes from two sources: the comfort-oriented pleasure correlated to the reduction of tensions, and the pleasure arising from stimuli that fight boredom thanks to (anti-homeostatic) factors such as novelty, change, uncertainty, risk etc. (Coon & Mitterer, 2007). According to the theory, a person takes necessary steps to increase or decrease the stimulation, i.e. if the stimulation is low, the person indulges in activities that can incite him/her, and when the stimulation is too high the person deviates to activity like meditation to reduce the stimulation. The increased or decreased condition of arousal depends on the person, whose aim is to get to the optimum level. The law states that performance increases with physiological or mental arousal, but only up to the optimal point. After this point the levels of arousal turn out to be too high and performance suffers due to an increase in the levels of anxiety.

From the management point of view, these concepts may have a dual interpretation. According to Arousal theory, an employee's task in order to provide an adequate level of motivation, must have both features: comfort and novelty. Second, the incentive mode and pay systems must take into account both needs (comfort and novelty). For example, the salary should be composed of a constant retribution basis in order to meet employee's comfort need, and of a variable part, which is performance-related to satisfy the need for risk (Coon & Mitterer, 2007).

2.7 The importance of coherence in motivation

On other problematic themes dealing with perceptual issues, there is the motivation analysis that constructs the Cognitive Dissonance Theory (1962). This theory was developed by the American social psychologist Leon Festinger, who asserted that when in a person there is a discrepancy between beliefs and actions, he/she will act to solve conflicts that may arise from these discrepancies.

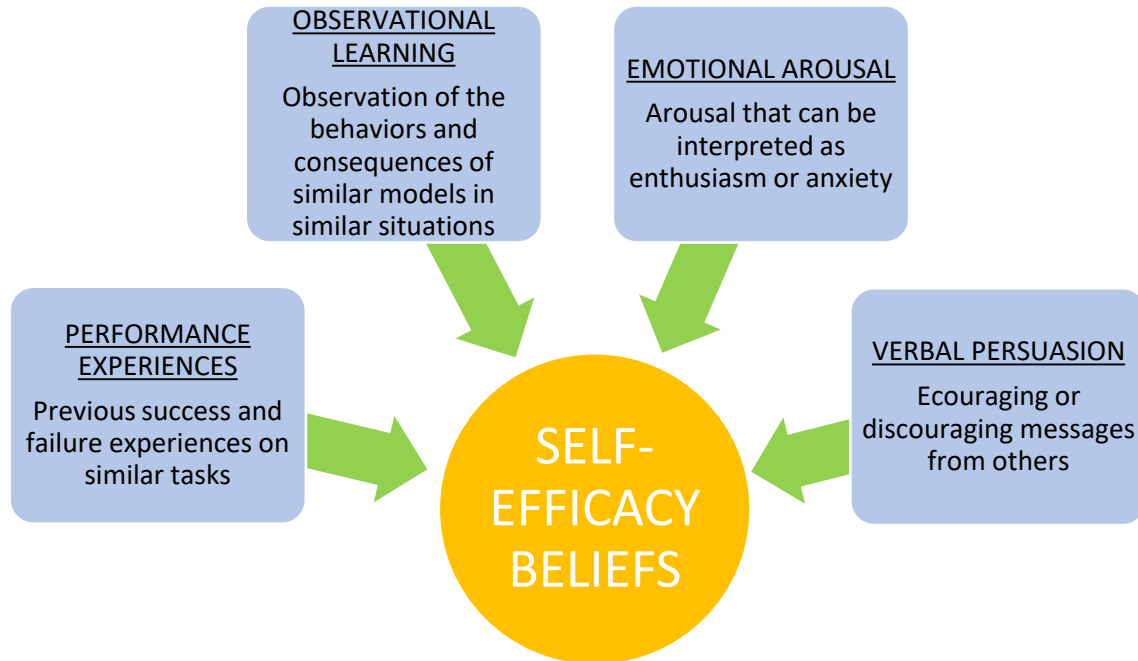
This is accomplished through a process of selective abstraction executed by the subject (Festinger, 1962). It is a kind of partial elimination of a person's experience in order to be able to focus on what seems to confirm person's world model. This process is then followed by another one called arbitrary inference, which is a completely personal conclusion, an assumption, a postulate that is taken for granted and is used to maintain consistency with someone-self, thereby eliminating the discomfort and embarrassment (Festinger, 1962). For instance, if an employee, who is firmly convinced to not be able to achieve results, suddenly gets an unexpected positive outcome, instead of yielding him/her happiness and joy, it can cause him/her perceptual dysfunctions and reduce his/her motivation, because he/she feels that something strange is going on, and therefore faces, paradoxically, an uncomfortable situation (Festinger, 1962). Said it differently, the motivation also depends on the coherence need detectable in the majority of people. This may be constructed between the employer and the employee through the so called psychological contract that reflects expectations of the two interested parties. If a person, for example, invests a lot of energy at work, but his effort is not adequately valued, definitely he/she will be hiding his/her latent intentions for change in order to maintaining his/her professional approach toward work (Festinger, 1962). The person will probably meditate to leave job, or will engage in projects which, though less compelling, he/she will not run the risk of feeling his/her efforts vain.

2.8 Self-motivation theory

The psychologist A. Bandura (1986) demonstrated that motivation is directly influenced by the individual's beliefs about his/her skills or competencies, objectives and expectations of success or failure, and the positive or negative feelings that come from self-assessment process. Furthermore, Bandura (1995) stated that it "refers to beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations" (p. 2). Said it differently, self-efficacy is what an individual believes he or she can accomplish using his or her skills under certain circumstances (Snyder & Lopez, 2007). Self-efficacy has been thought to be a task-specific version of self-esteem (Lunenburg, 2011). The basic assumption behind this theory is that people are more likely to engage in activities for which they have high self-efficacy and less likely to engage in those they do not (Van der Bijl & Shortridge-Baggett, 2002). According to Bandura (1986) the perception a person has of him/her-self is derived from four fonts: previous performances, the observation of the

implementation/execution done by another, the verbal persuasion and his/her own physiological and emotional reactions. Motivation is primarily influenced by self-efficacy factors, self-esteem and self-confidence (to believe in oneself).

Figure 5: The factors affecting individual's self-efficacy beliefs



Source: Redmond, B. F. & Slaughenhou, E. L., Self-Efficacy and Social Cognitive Theories, 2016.

Self-efficacy is generally measured by three scales: magnitude, strength, and generality.

- Self-efficacy magnitude measures the difficulty level (e.g. easy, moderate, and hard) that an individual feels it is required to perform a certain task (Van der Bijl & Shortridge-Baggett, 2002). How difficult is my class work? Are the quizzes easy or hard?
- Self-efficacy strength refers to the amount of conviction an individual has about performing successfully at diverse levels of difficulty (Van der Bijl & Shortridge-Baggett, 2002). How confident am I that I can excel at my work tasks? How sure am I that I can climb the ladder of success?
- Generality of self-efficacy refers to the "degree to which the expectation is generalized across situations (Lunenburg, 2011). How sure am I that what I have learned will apply to my new tasks?

Performances are socially defined in terms of behavior required or in terms of result (Bandura, 1977). The employee, according to Bandura (1977), uses a series of techniques for channeling its own self-motivation within these two dimensions. He/she regulates his/her

own sense of self-efficacy by directly experiencing the role and in turn creates successful models to achieve the expected results. Only in cases, when there is great stability in the working environment, the employee obtains this information by observing performing colleagues. Therefore, self-motivation derives from a perceived self-efficacy, that is, the tendency to perceive oneself as a person able to choose and implement, in front of certain situations, the most appropriate behavior among those available (Bandura, 1977). Indeed, the positive thinking at work is a fundamental component of self-motivation.

To make it clearer, an example will be provided. For instance, employee A has skills and a lot of experience in designing graphs, but he lacks confidence that he is able to create a high-quality graph for an important conference. Employee B has just average ability and only little experience in designing graphs, however has great belief that she can work hard to make an excellent graph for the same conference. Since employee A has low self-efficacy for graph creation, he is not enough motivated to make one for the conference and communicates to his superior he cannot fulfil the assignment. On the other side, employee B, thanks to her high self-efficacy, is very motivated, stays overtime to learn how to create a great graph, exhibits it at the conference, and gets a reward. So, self-efficacy influences individual's ability to learn, their motivation and their performance, as people will often attempt to learn and perform only those tasks for which they believe they will be successful (Lunenborg, 2011).

Albert Bandura (1963) with the term of reciprocal determinism, refers to the circumstance under which personal factors (such as expectations, intentions, perceptions and mental representations) and situational factors interact between them, resulting linked to each other, and it is interesting to know that the self-motivation is not affected, when people do not give value to a failure.

To sum up this theory, the basic idea behind the Self-Efficacy Theory is that performance and motivation are in part determined by how effective people believe they can be (Bandura, 1982).

Table 3: Summary table of motivational theories and nexus to the empirical elaboration of Kovach's motivational factors

Motivation Theories	Links to the Empirical Research
Maslow's Theory of Needs	Helps to better interpret the Kovach's factors obtained from my research by applying the description of Maslow's pyramid of needs to each single factor. In fact, I believe that the Kovach's factors will be ranked by employees according to their current needs.

Table continues

Table 3: Summary table of motivational theories and nexus to the empirical elaboration of Kovach's motivational factors (continued)

Motivation Theories	Links to the Empirical Research
Alderfer's ERG Theory	Alderfer's theoretical framework has a concept, which is especially useful in understanding nowadays typical working situation, i.e. a working environment characterized by high flexibility, instability and indeterminacy. It should remind me to interpret the results of the research by bearing in mind to treat employees as dynamic people with changing needs and not static ones.
Herzberger's Two Factor Theory	It helps me to define based on the rank of the Kovach's factors whether I am facing employees, that strive for "psychological growth" or are just "hygiene researchers", i.e. they are sensitive only to external incentives at work, like the remuneration, the environment, etc.
Self-Determination Theory	It helps me determining the type of motivation. Since it has to do with psychological rewards an employee gets from his job, "interesting work" as one of the Kovach's factors will help me to determine according to its rank whether employees are enjoying its work and hence are intrinsically motivated or not.
Arousal Theory	From interpretation point of view of the results of the research it is helpful to bear in mind the definition this theory provides, i.e. the adequate level of motivation, must have both features: comfort and novelty. For example, if the factor "good pay" would be highly ranked, then the pay system may be composed by a fixed part that gives security (comfort) and a variable part (novelty).
Cognitive Dissonance Theory	The coherence as important element of motivation may be established through the psychological contract, that reflects expectations of the two interested parties. If for instance the factor "appreciation for work done" will be high ranked then it may indicate that employees expect more recognition for the work done and this could consequently lead to demotivation and/or to leaving the job.

3 MANAGER'S ROLE IN EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION

In addition to the structure of the motivational process, describable by the psychological contract between the employee and the company, another key element of the motivational process is the set of objectives and incentives that cause the employee's action. The active role of the manager in order for this to happen is fundamental. One of the managers' role is to motivate their employees in order to stay competitive. As noticed, employees may find several elements to be motivating. Thus, it is central that managers first determine what motivates each person.

The following motivational theories are a similar to those mentioned in chapter two, however the selection was made on those, where manager is an active agent or management systems plays a focal role.

3.1 Types of management systems

Theoretical foundation to this process dimension of motivation can be found in Rensis Likert (1955), who stated that a higher performance depends solely on the degree of employees' own satisfaction and on their level of favorable attitude toward the company (Modaff, Butler, & DeWine, 2008). In certain working contexts, management principles are those making the difference, premising that they are established on a friendly leadership, i.e. a network of effective communication and exploitation of working groups (Modaff, Butler, & DeWine, 2008). So, the performance yield is greater as smaller is the pressure from above to obtain it. Hence, when the hierarchical control is more detached and when reactions in case of errors are not punitive, but rather aimed at understanding reasons behind them. Therefore, for Likert (1955) the ideal leader is the one that manages to conciliate both the respect for employees' autonomy and the continuous and collaborative exchange of ideas. Based on the empirical observation of the different governing styles adopted by numerous companies, he presented four general patterns of management, defined as: Exploitative-authoritative, Benevolent-authoritative (or paternalistic), Consultative system and Participative system (Hall, 1972).

3.1.1 Exploitative-authoritative system

In the Exploitative-authoritative, the leader does not consider employee's opinions and ideas. In fact, the communication is downward oriented and threats and fear-based method are used in order to achieve objectives. Usually employees are forced to work overtime and generally they feel exploited by the superior (Modaff, Butler, & DeWine, 2008).

3.1.2 Benevolent-authoritative (or paternalistic) system

In the benevolent-authoritative (or paternalistic) system motivation is established on the possibility for punishment and little on recompenses. Here, some lower-level employees are given some involvement in decision making process but it is still delimited by the upper-level management. So, the communication still remains mainly downward. Anyway, such a system creates different levels of responsibility, having managers feeling more responsible, and subordinates feeling less responsible. This in turn can result in a conflict and unfavorable behaviors toward company's objectives. Employees face low to medium satisfaction and performance is something between low to moderately-low, and productivity is measured from passable to good (Modaff, Butler, & DeWine, 2008).

3.1.3 Consultative system

Consultative system relates to the human-relations theory. The main strategy to motivate employees are rewards and sometimes punishment. Decision making does not belong to employees, but regarding lower-level employees they are allowed to make decisions that concern their tasks. Leaders involve their employees in problems and plans before they program organizational objectives, because they are seen as a kind of consultants (Modaff, Butler, & DeWine, 2008). Communication is both-sided in this system, it flows both downward and upward, though upward is more restricted. Consequently, there is a better climate that promotes relationship and collaboration among employees. Lower-level employees are seen as consultants to decisions that were made and are more willing to accept them because of their involvement.

3.1.4 Likert's ideal system

According to Likert (1955), the most successful management model is the participative system. This system coincides with the human resource theory. In this model communication is lean and direct, involvement in decision making is present and employees' skills are valued. Company objectives are generally accepted, because they are established through employees' participation. Responsibility is high through all levels of the company. Satisfaction and performance are the highest compared to other management models, and motivation is promoted through pecuniary rewards and involvement in goal setting (Modaff, Butler, & DeWine, 2008).

So, according to Likert (1955), by going progressively from the Exploitative-authoritative model to the participative system, there is a progressive democratization, a greater involvement and empowerment of employees, and therefore also higher quality results.

Nowadays, a similar vision is highlighted by the tendency to distinguish between managers and leaders. Both of them can be managers but depending on the way they implement their

authority they may be or not a good leader. As it can be seen in the Figure 6, leaders and managers behave in two different ways.

Figure 6: Manager’s vs. leader’s attitude

MANAGERS		LEADERS
Drive workers	VS	Develop and coach team members
Need to be needed		Want to be succeeded and surpassed
Depend on authority		Depend on goodwill
Want recognition		Want to reproduce themselves
Inspire fear		Inspire enthusiasm
Focus on other's weaknesses		Focus on other’s strengths
Say "I"		Say “We”
Spend their time with others		Invest their time on others
Blame for the brakdown		Fix the breakdown
Say "go"!		Say "let’s go"!
Manages because of position		Leads by influence
Know show it was done		Show how it is done
Experience some success		Experience incredible success

Source: Toor, S. R. & Ofori, G., Leadership versus Management: How They Are Different, and Why. Leadership and Management in Engineering, 2008.

3.2 Theory X and Theory Y

The aspiration of a participatory management like the one suggested by Likert (1955), is not the only approach that considers the manager central for the proper functioning of the motivational process. McGregor (1982) revised Maslow's theory by applying it to management. He noted, that manager’s behavior changes according to the manager’s conception of man, which he differentiated in two modes, namely in Theory X and Theory Y.

3.2.1 Theory X

Theory X is based on the idea that most people consider the job itself implicitly unpleasant and therefore, they prefer to be guided, free from responsibility, and their motivation only

occurs at physiological and safety levels (referring to Maslow's hierarchy of needs) (McGregor, 1982). Moreover, this philosophy is accompanied by the belief, that people are motivated by money and the threat of punishment. So, since the Theory X emphasizes that people do not love working, are of indolent and lazy nature and prefer to do as little as possible, the managers have to exercise a leadership characterized by authority, direct supervision and punishment practice, because only in this way organizational goals can be achieved (McGregor, 1982). This situation is typical for the traditional organization of Tayloristic model, with its centralized decision-making process, the upper-subordinate relationship pyramidal and external control of work.

After describing the Theory X, McGregor (1982) put into question the correctness of this conception of human nature and, consequently also the adequacy and the effectiveness of management theories based on it. By gleaning extensively from Maslow's hierarchy of needs, McGregor elaborated the conclusion that the assumptions of Theory X on human nature, if applied universally, appear frequently unsupported, and that the management settings that are developed on the basis of these assumptions fail to motivate adequately people (McGregor, 1982).

3.2.2 Theory Y

According to McGregor (1982), the management based on imposition and control can fail, because it is a questionable way to motivate people, who have their physiological and safety needs fairly satisfied and whose social needs, esteem and self-realization are taking a crucial role. For instance, individual incentive programs provide an attempt to control the behavior. So, McGregor (1982) believed that management needs approaches based on a more precise understanding of nature and human motivation. This belief led him to develop an alternative theory of human behavior, called Theory Y. This theory assumes that people are not lazy and treacherous by nature, and postulates instead that people can be substantially self-disciplined and creative at work, if properly motivated. In fact, according to Theory Y people love working, since they find job satisfaction as an important value, they are able to manage themselves and supervise themselves, are responsible and active and love to express their creativity in solving problems (McGregor, 1982). Actually, according to this approach work is considered natural as a game.

Therefore, a key management task should be to free up this potential in individuals. In this case, the manager in order to guide employees' objectives uses the following strategies: empowerment, exercises general supervision and resorts to positive incentives, encouragement and recognition.

3.3 Reinforcement Theory

The behaviorist Skinner investigated the process theory of motivation, called Reinforcement Theory. Compared to other behaviorist, that analyzed inner causes of people's behavior, Skinner searched for the reasons of an action and its outcomes/consequences. He developed a theory named reinforcement theory (Skinner, 1969).

The main principles of the reinforcement theory are based on Skinner's neo-behaviorism and the ideology of operant conditioning (1969). The basic assumption is that a person is keen in engaging in a task or an activity, if such behavior has been rewarded in the past (with a praise, compliments, a good mark, a gift, a social approval) or if a different behavior was punished (with an admonition, a clear sign of disapproval, an insufficient vote) (Skinner, 1969).

Skinner's purpose was to identify the processes which made individual operant behaviors more or less probable to happen. He found four kinds of operant conditioning: positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement, extinction and punishment, (Villere & Hartman, 1991). The first two are able to strengthen the behavior, while the latter two tend to weaken it.

- Positive reinforcement is the process of receiving rewards after performing a good behavior. For example, if an employee performs a good job, he/she receives a promotion and/or a reward (McLeod, 2015).
- Negative reinforcement consists in removing a stressor as a result of a behavior. For example, removal of penalties and fines from a country that enhances human rights. The same in a company may happen after the employee completes a big action he/she gets removed from a low status (McLeod, 2015).
- Extinction refers to the process of receiving no reward, when a behavior is performed. This means, that an individual, who puts extra effort and receives no recognition/appreciation for doing it, he/she simply stops investing that effort (McLeod, 2015).
- Punishment is given as a consequence of a behavior. For instance, reduction of salary due to employees' delays (McLeod, 2015).

In other words, gratifications and rewards are reinforcements that increase the likelihood of behaviors, because they stabilize the motivations. However, there are also negative reinforcements that aim at demotivating the specific behavior with a punishment, and thus reduce its probability, weaken it, reduce its intensity or its frequency (McLeod, 2015). If, a

behavior is not reinforced, it is demotivated until it extinguishes. Moreover, the desired behavior tends to remain stable, if the reinforcement is given in a continuous manner (Skinner, 1969). This means, that a behavior should be reinforced every time it appears.

For theorist of this approach, the most effective strategy is that of the intermittent reinforcement. This means, that reinforcement is given occasionally, at random, with no fixed rule (e.g. praising some, but not all correct actions of a worker). To be motivating, the reinforcement must be contingent on the performance, meaning temporally close to the behavior, and specific, that is, concerning a precise aspect of the performance (Skinner, 1969). Generic reinforcements, such as praise like “well done” or “good job”, disorient the employee, who does not understand what aspect of his behavior actually satisfied the manager. Finally, the reinforcement must be credible, i.e. not contradicted by para-verbal or non-verbal communication gestures (Skinner, 1969).

Hence, this theory calls for the presence of a mentor that provides feedbacks to the person by applying positive or negative reinforcements, punishments or extinction. The mentor could be identified as the manager, the teacher or whoever is supposed to be in charge of the evaluation. So, based on Skinner’s theory (1969) a manager in order to reinforce a behavior has to provide a reward and the opposite applies for discouraging a behavior, i.e. provide a punishment.

3.4 The importance of adequate goal setting

In the theory exposed by McGregor (1982), it is worth noticing how the definition of the objectives is one of the most strategic components of management and at the same time one of the most delicate. The focus on objectives and the way how they must be planned by the manager in order to make the scheme of the psychological contract work, was analyzed by Edwin Locke in his Theory of Goal Setting (1990). This theory provides a valid system of norms in support of a management approach, which is popular in recent decades, namely the management by objectives (Drucker, 1976). In 1968, Locke wrote an article entitled “Toward a Theory of Task Motivation and Incentives”, where he demonstrated that clear goals and correct feedback motivate employees. He also showed that working toward a goal is a source of motivation that in turn enhances performance (Bipp & Kleingeld, 2011). Moreover, he said that the more a goal is specific and challenging the more people work hard to achieve it. This theory explains the implementation mode of the managerial system, which is based on delegation and on a goal-performance system that guides the behavior and decisions of people in the company, with the purpose to empower and involve them as a personal working project.

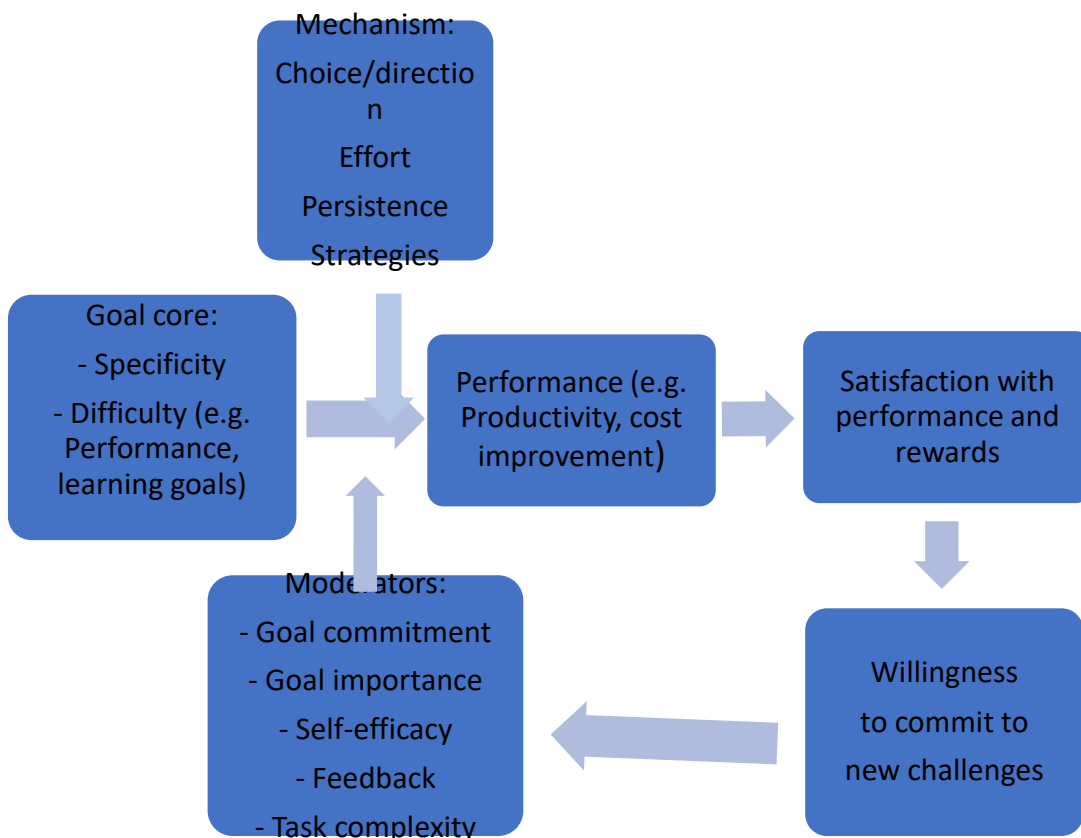
The way in which the manager sets goals has a double purpose: strategic and operational. From a strategic point of view, it fits into those politics of goal commitment. Locke and

Latham (1990, p.125) defined it as “the attachment to or determination to reach a goal”. This politics of goal commitment strive for meeting employee’s aspirations and achieving job satisfaction. Elements that influence goal-performance theory are (Bipp & Kleingeld, 2011):

- ability (proper goals must be set in accordance to employee’s ability to be able to reach high performance),
- task complexity,
- self-efficacy (an employee’s belief to be able or not to perform an assignment affects goal commitment and effort),
- feedback (if present enhances the performance), and
- environmental constraints (improper context factors reduce goal-performance efficacy).

A challenging part of this process is the adjustment of the so-called optimal-tension. The objectives have to be distinguished in long-term goals (e.g. ensuring a certain monthly profitability) and proximal goals (to relate weekly to the sales department manager) (Locke and Latham, 1990). These latter are nothing more than sub-instrumental objectives to the long-term objectives, and are very important, because they perform as a feed-back function that allows to step into a subsequent stage. Indeed, the lack of a feed-back can undo the positive effects resulting from the challenging objectives (Bipp & Kleingeld, 2011).

Figure 7: Essential elements of Goal-setting theory and the performance cycle



Source: Locke, E. A., & Latham, G. P., *New directions in goal-setting theory*, p.265, 2006.

In addition, the performance also depends on the accuracy degree of a goal. For example, a goal with the instructions “do your best” type, is not motivating, because in practice it does not refer to any specific behavior, and in any case, it is an implicit goal, which is usually granted and normally accepted in the workplace as a positive value (Locke & Latham, 1990). On the opposite, specific objectives allow a feed-back and guarantee higher performance, because they can be conveyed to the totality of resources, while a generic objective (which is nothing more than the sum of a series of intermediate targets not well specified) absorbs all resources indistinctly, which are used to apply the various sub-goals, but without showing a clear cause-effect relationship with the final goal (Locke & Latham, 1990). Consequently, this generates inefficiencies such as duplication, distractions, overlaps and conflicts, and in the long-term goal abandonment (Locke & Latham, 1990). Therefore, the employee must have the necessary information to achieve goals. Hence, the manager must guarantee the participation and share the objectives.

3.5 Motivation driven from stimuli-response

The role of the manager itself is considered very difficult. In fact, the manager is the person responsible for the final result to which he/she has no direct relationship, but rather it is mediated through other resources (people and/or tools). Therefore, a manager requires a motivating leadership attitude, which is indispensable to infuse strength to his/her role and to collaborators. Therefore, the system implied for the definition of the goals is a key part of the motivational process. It is important, that this activity is the result of a compromise between company’s goals and those of employees. However, employees’ goals may not be fully known by the manager, and unfortunately, in the company rarely moments appear for their explication, except in some business contexts, where it is applied an active listening policy.

A practice, that often is retained to be helpful to understand toward which values is oriented an employee, is to monitor his/her behavior at work and any deviations arising from the change of some organizational variables. An approach that on this orientation provided many insights was that of behavioral approach (Watson, 1913).

The focus is on factors that influence behavior, also defined as performance behavior, neglecting the analysis of motivation in itself, because it is retained simply as one of the tools, that the behavior exploits to achieve a particular purpose (Watson, 1930). The behaviorism reconducts the motivation of each behavior to a force activatable according to a "stimulus-response" model (Watson, 1930). So, it falls within the issue of extrinsic motivation and of the influence of external rewards from the manager. In behaviorism, the subject of scientific investigation becomes the organizational behavior, having as assumption that it is possible to translate its dynamics in observable behavior, i.e. assess it

as a response to stimuli conditions that can be clearly identifiable (i.e. not cognitions, moods or feeling, because are too subjective) (Watson, 1930).

The first Behaviorism, which can be traced back to authors such as Watson (1930), and Skinner (1969), is actually founded on the concept of “conditioned reflex” and instinct, perceived as an innate disposition to act and to pay attention to specific behaviors useful for survival and well-being. Watson (1913) in his work “Psychology as the behaviorist views it” sustained, that everything from speech to emotional responses were simply patterns of stimulus and response. He totally refuted the presence of the mind or consciousness. In his opinion, all personal variances in behavior were attributable to diverse learning experiences (Watson, 1913). The Behaviorism sustains the theory that all behaviors are acquired through conditioning, which arises by interfacing with the surroundings (Cherry, 2016). The behaviorist theorists sustain, that the action is shaped by the responses a person gives to the surrounding stimuli.

So, motivation is a purposeful behavior as well as instinctual, because it is characterized by expectations and innate foresight capabilities (Cherry, 2016). The behaviors and innate skills can emerge through interaction with specific stimuli or with suitable environmental conditions that trigger motivation into action through an emotional signal, which in turn breaks a state of internal balance (Watson, 1930). Basically, this approach denies motivation as an independent force, since the natural state of the individual would be balance or inactivity (Watson, 1930).

Having the purpose to transform the concepts into application-management tools, some approaches provide a set of procedures to influence directly the behavior at work. Reference is made to the studies on the organizational behavior changes by Luthans (1988). In these studies, Luthans (1988) mentioned steps he believed necessary to modify a behavior:

1. Identify critical behaviors. It basically has to do with understanding which behaviors are not appropriate and should be changed, and which useful behaviors have not been implemented. Observable behaviors must be identified. Attitudes like systematically being late, or committing too many errors, may highlight a lack of motivation. Moreover, the relevance of such attitudes, is due to the fact that they affect both individual performance and of the entire company.
2. Measure the frequency. There are two reasons why should be present an indicative idea of the attitude repetitiveness. First, because there is a confirmation of the actual existence of a dissatisfaction state or de-motivation; and second, it can be figured out which is the current state of matters, before any intervention, in order to evaluate retrospectively and more accurately any effects generated by change.

3. Conduct a functional analysis. This analysis is aimed at trying to understand the behavior in question, in all its aspects, in order to facilitate corrective actions. One aspect that is important to understand is whether this attitude is correlated to another one in a continuous way. For instance, if an employee is late only when he/she knows that the manager arrives late, there is evidence of correlation with the delay of the manager that systematically precedes the delay of the employee.
4. Develop and implement an intervention strategy. The next stage involves the formulation of a strategy to be used in order to affect performance at work. The manager usually uses strengthening actions for a desired behavior or that highlight the inappropriateness of undesirable behavior.
5. Evaluate the effects of intervention. There are several more or less scientific methods used to assess consequences in terms of organizational behavior changes. Examples are: the performance analysis and management by objectives previously mentioned.

The motivation theories represented in these theoretical chapters are the basis on which many of human motivation studies were conducted and have significant implications for individual workplace behavior. What is more, they may be applied to a selection of management practices aimed at motivating employees.

This final theoretical chapter as well as the second chapter will give me the theoretical background to better delineate conclusions of the results obtained by the empirical research, and if possible to apply some of the considerations of these motivational theories.

4 EMPIRICAL STUDY OF MOTIVATION FOR WORK ACROSS AGE GROUPS IN ITALY

In the coming section I will focus on the empirical research where I have examined the work motivation factors that determine the motivation of Italian employees of different age groups. The introduction to the study calls attention to the opportunities that exist for improvements in employees' motivation and organizational commitment which may influence the productivity of the company as a whole. When dealing with motivational issues, the best source of information is the employee himself/herself, because only they can tell what stimulates and sustains their willingness to work through time. According to their responses the employer may decide to redesign jobs, increase wage, modify the working environment, give more recognition for the work done etc. The thesis outcomes are aimed to contribute to the knowledge of the Italian labor market, which could be useful for managers to depict a picture of which are the factors that motivate employees according to different age groups and therefore have the possibility to be more effective in designing motivational schemes.

This chapter describes the research design, provides insight to sample structure and instruments which were used for collecting data and tools used for analysis of the data collected.

4.1 Methodology

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the methodology used for this study. The research design, as well as the methodology used for this empirical study included collecting data by a questionnaire in order to answer the research objectives. The sole instrument used in this research study is the questionnaire developed by Dr. Kenneth Kovach (1987) to determine motivation preferences based on ten questions that the participants of the study place. In addition to the ten motivational questions, the investigation consists in detecting employees' motivation mainly according to different age groups, but also gender and income. In order to find some interesting and useful results there have been used two approaches.

Firstly, a survey was conducted in which Italian employees of different age groups (26 or below, 26-34, 35-44, 45-54, 55 or above) participated. They were asked to indicate on a five-point Likert scale (1=Least important, 2=Slightly important, 3=Fairly important, 4=Important, 5=Very important) the importance of each of the ten Kovach's (1987) motivation factors in motivating them as employees to do their best work. These factors are: interesting work, job security, promotion and growth in the organization, good working conditions, feelings of being in on things, appreciation for work done, sympathetic understanding with personal problems, personal (or company) loyalty to employees, good wages and tactful discipline. After having analyzed the survey results, this approach showed little information, therefore I decided to take a different approach consisting in a questionnaire asking participants to rank by importance the Kovach's (1987) ten motivational factors.

The second approach focused on a survey, which tried to identify and describe the rank importance of the ten selected motivational factors. Instead of indicating the importance of the ten factors by using a five-point Likert scale as done in the first survey, participants were asked to rank the same ten Kovach's (1987) motivation factors according to importance in motivating them to work.

The collected data from the first survey will be statistically analyzed by the method of ANOVA and Post hoc tests. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences Program (SPSS) will be used for the data analysis. Descriptive statistics are utilized for computing means and standard deviation. The analysis of the survey results combined with the statistical tools will allow to draw conclusions in regards to the objectives of the study.

The second survey data will be analyzed with the help of Microsoft Excel for computing ranks and organize the data collected. Ranking will be determined on the base of the mean values of the factors. The lower the mean the higher the rank of the motivation factor. The same will be then repeated to determine the motivation factor ranking for the subgroups.

4.2 Data collecting procedure

This study is a cross-sectional study, because it involves the analysis of data collected from a population at one specific point in time. Both surveys were created and released online on the web-based statistical and survey software application “*EnKlikSurvey*” and it lasted from June until end of October. The targeted sample population was the Italian working population. Data was gathered through questionnaires that were distributed by the link created by “*EnKlikSurvey*”. In the beginning of the questionnaires there was a short explanation about the purpose of the study. The whole questionnaires can be found in Appendixes A and B of this research. The questionnaires were both translated in Italian to avoid language misunderstandings and then translated back to English (Brislin 1970). Participation was voluntary, individual responses were confidential, and the subjects remained anonymous.

Both questionnaires had two sections, the first section of the first questionnaire was asking respondents to assign a preference based on the five-point Likert scale (1=Least important, 2=Slightly important, 3=Fairly important, 4=Important, 5=Very important) for each of the ten factors (first survey), while in the first section of the second questionnaire respondents were asked to rank the same ten factors from the most important to the least important. The second section was the same for both surveys and it regarded demographics as gender, age and income. The sampling method used is the so called virtual snowball sampling (Baltar et al., 2012). From para-data available on the application “*EnKlikSurvey*” it is known that the link for the surveys was sent through Facebook. Some links were shared also through Whatsapp and some through e-mail. The link of the first survey was clicked 201 times, while the link of the second survey was clicked 335 times. From the first survey 156 questionnaires were collected and were valid, while from the second survey 314 questionnaires were collected and valid.

From Figure 9 to Figure 10 there are provided the demographic information of the respondents of the first survey, while Figure 11 to Figure 12 show demographic information of the second survey respondents.

4.3 Sample characteristics of the surveys

The first survey’s sample consists of 156 participants and all of them are Italian working population of different age, while the sample in the second survey consists of 314

participants. When it comes to the respondents' gender, the majority of respondents who participated to both surveys were females, more precisely 65% in the first survey and precisely 57% in the second survey.

Figure 8 and Figure 9 give detailed information about the age groups to which the respondents of the two surveys pertain. In both surveys the greater part of the respondents was constituted out of participants who belonged to the age group of respondents between 26 - 34 years old, representing 42% and 52%. This group is followed by the age group 45-54 years old, having the 22% and 15% respectively. Then we find the age group 35-44 years old with 17% in the first survey and age-group lower 26 years old in the second survey with 14%. Then the age group of the lower 26 years old represents the 12% in the first survey, while in the second survey we have the age group of 35 - 44 years old respondents. The smallest age group is the over 55 years old, which is the 8% of the total in the first survey and 6% in the second survey.

Figure 8: Age Groups Respondents of first survey (in %)

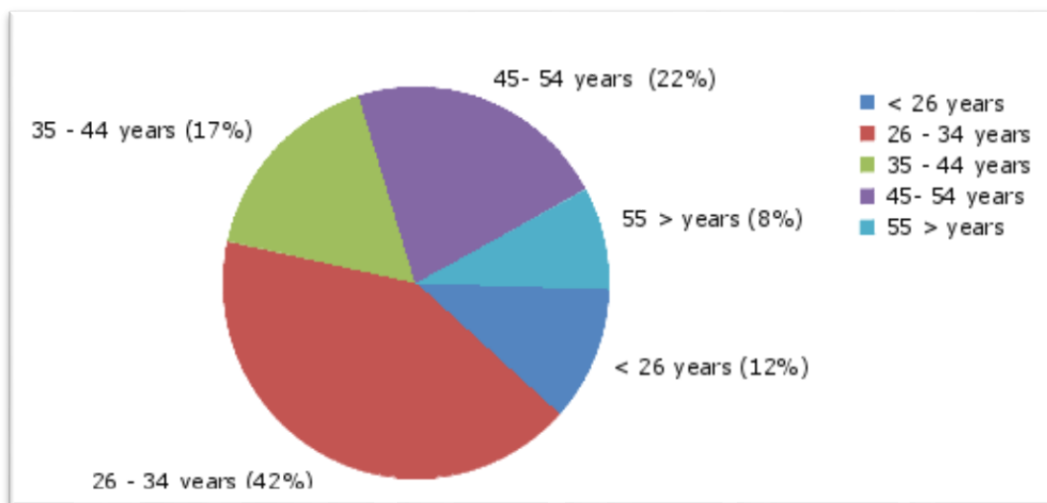
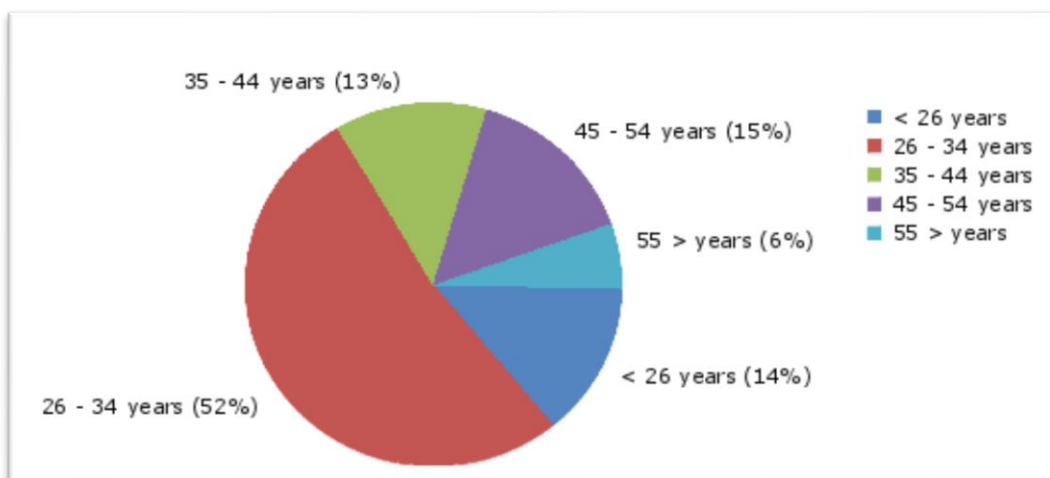
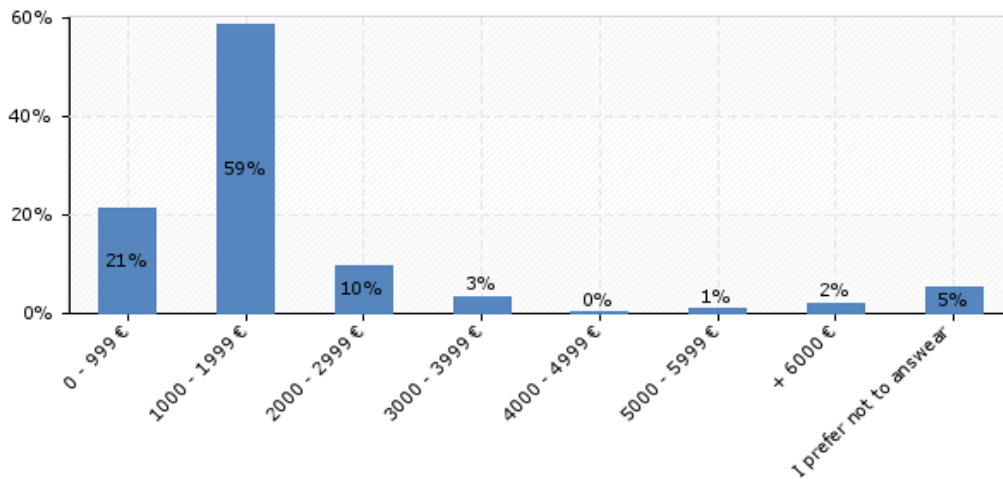


Figure 9: Age Groups Respondents of second survey (in %)



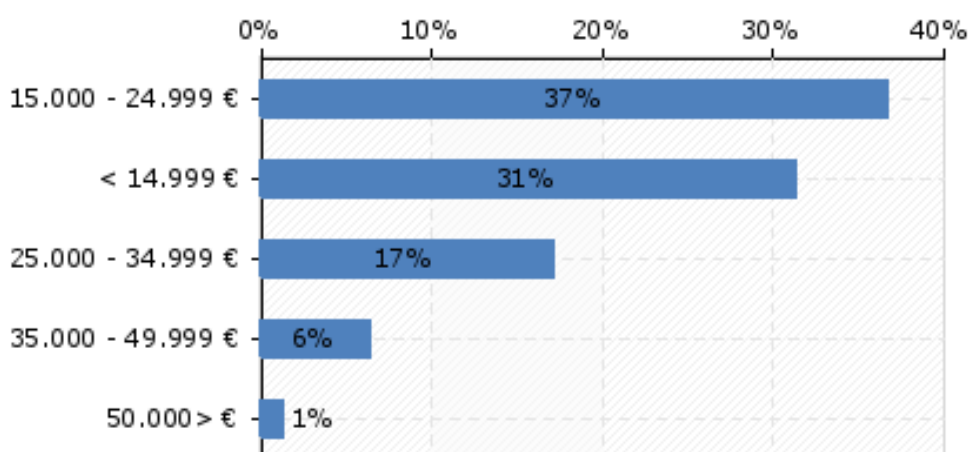
In Figure 10 there are respondents of the first survey divided by income groups. From the bar chart it is evident that the majority of respondents, namely the 59% have monthly income range between 1,000 and 1,999 Euros followed by the 21% that earn 0-999 Euros. The 10% of respondents have monthly income between 2,000 and 2,999 Euros.

Figure 10: Income Groups Respondents of the first survey (in %)



In Figure 11 it is represented the percentage of respondents with different incomes. From the bar chart it is evident that the majority of respondents, namely the 37% has annual income ranging between 15,000 and 24,999 Euros followed by the 31% that earn below 14,999 Euros. The 17% of respondents have annual income between 25,000 and 34,999 Euros. Only the 6% earns between 35,000-49,000 Euros and just 1% stated to earn more than 50,000 Euros annually.

Figure 11: Income Groups Respondents of the second survey (in %)



4.4 Results

This study was conducted in an effort to determine the work motivation factors of employees belonging to different employee groups in Italy. This chapter will present the results on the

statistical differences between work motivations as well as the differences between motivation preferences among different subgroups (age, gender, income,) of Italian employees.

4.4.1 Motivation scores across age groups from the first survey

The analyses that follows is based on the scores of the first survey. Here, I have examined if there are significant differences between the set groups.

In order to see if there are significant differences between the established groups, I used ANOVA (analysis of variance) and post hoc tests (LSD) to analyze statistical variations between individual groups. If the analyses revealed there are significant differences between groups, I could state that age actually has influence on employees' motivation. ANOVA, also known as the analysis of variance is a statistical model used to analyze the differences or similarities among three or more groups. ANOVA with its F-test compares the averages of the variance between the groups of samples and the averages of the variance within samples. The variance analysis is regarded as a highly robust method. Statistical significance was taken at 5% alpha error.

Table 4: ANOVA and post-hoc test for motivation factor "tactful discipline"

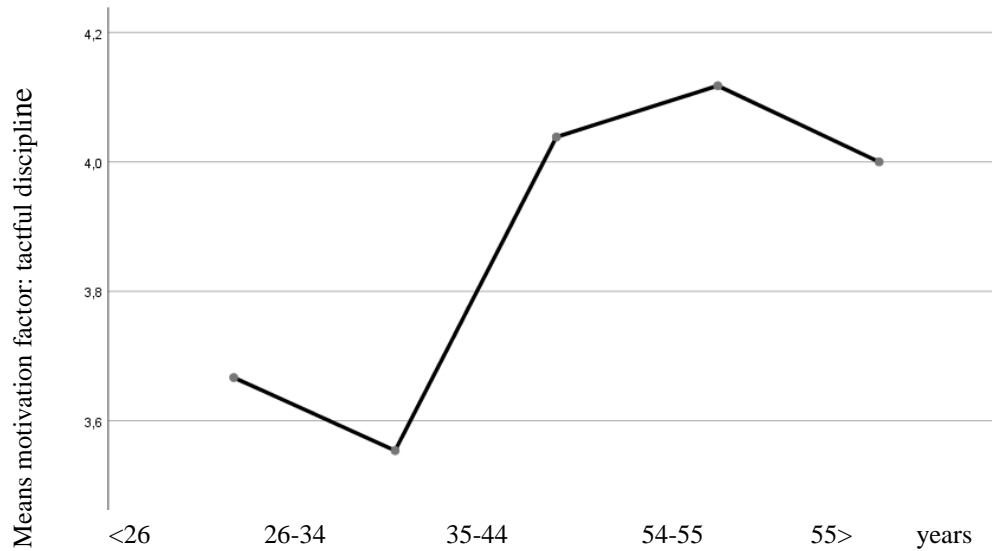
Depended variable	Group	N	Mean	Standard deviation	F-statistics	Sign.	Results post (statistically significant difference)
Tactful discipline	1	18	3,67	0,840	4,126	0,003	Group* 2-4 Sig=0,006
	2	65	3,55	0,730			
	3	26	4,04	0,824			
	4	34	4,12	0,808			
	5	13	4,00	0,577			
Notes *Age Group 1= <26 years; 2 = 26 - 34 years; 3 = 35 - 44 years; 4 = 45- 54 years; 5 = 55> years.							

Table 4 includes only motivation factors with statistically significant differences. Other tested motivation factors can be found in Appendix C and D.

The results reveal that employees expressed similar preferences, therefore not evidencing significant differences neither among age groups nor income groups. The exception is present just in one group of respondents, namely age group 2 (26-34 years) and age group 4 (45-55 years) (see Table 4). Indeed, there is a significant statistical difference between the age group 2 (26-34 years) and age group 4 (45-55 years) according to the motivation factor, which was analyzed as independent variable, i.e. tactful discipline.

From the Figure 12 it is also possible to better see the means difference among groups, specifically the big difference between age group 2 and age group 4 for the motivator factor “tactful discipline”.

Figure 12. Means motivation factor “tactful discipline” for age groups



Note: the Y-axis is interrupted and it only shows section between 3,5 and 4,2.

According to the results obtained in the analyses all other factors included in research do not reveal to be significantly different neither among the five age groups nor among the five income groups.

4.4.2 Ranking of motivation to work across age groups from the second survey

The ranking obtained it is based on the second survey. Respondent’s motivation factor overall ranking is shown in Table 5. The ranking is determined on the base of the mean values of the factors. The lower the mean the higher the rank of the motivation factor. The smallest mean value is 3,8578 (good working conditions) and the largest 7,6862 (tactful discipline). Hence, 1 is the highest rank while 10 is the lowest rank. Also median ranking, which is a more robust tool was computed and compared to the median value. Both values are reported in Table 5.

Table 5: Overall ranking of the work motivators

Work Motivator	Mean	Median	Rank by average	Rank by median
Good working conditions	3,8578	3	1	1
Interesting work	4,6078	4	2	2

Table continues

Table 5: Overall ranking of the work motivators (continued)

Work Motivator	Mean	Median	Rank by average	Rank by median
Good wages	4,6470	4	3	2
Feeling of “being in on things”	4,8921	5	4	3
Appreciation for work done	5,1372	5	5	3
Personal loyalty to employees	5,5539	6	6	4
Promotion and growth in the organization	5,7892	6	7	4
Job security	5,8725	6	8	4
Sympathetic understanding of, or help, with personal problems	6,9558	8	9	5
Tactful discipline	7,6862	8	10	5

From Table 5 it is possible to observe that “good working condition” is the most favored motivator, followed by “interesting work” on second place, “good wages” on the third place, “feeling of “being in on things” on the fourth place, “appreciation for work done” on fifth place, “personal loyalty to employees” reached the sixth place, “promotion and growth in the organization” is on the seventh place and in the last three ranks there are “job security”, “sympathetic understanding of, or help, with personal problems” and on the last tenth rank “tactful discipline”. A similar pattern is observable also considering median ranking. Differences appear just in the fact that some factors have equal medians and hence have equal ranking. Comparing the ranking obtained by the average scores and the one obtained by median scores it can be noticed that factors “interesting work” and “good wages” are equally ranked on second place, while according to the average ranking they are second and third respectively. It can be also noticed that comparing average scores of these two factors they are very similar in mean values, in fact 4,6078 and 4,6470. Similarly, the median scores of factors feeling of “being in on things” and “appreciation for work done” are equally placed on the third place. Also “personal loyalty to employees”, “promotion and growth in the organization” and “job security” reached same median scores implying equal fourth place in the ranking. The last two factors “sympathetic understanding of, or help, with personal problems” and “tactful discipline” are both found in the fifth place according to median scores. Nevertheless, the ranking stayed very similar.

Table 6 presents subgroup rankings based on the means and permits to compare the rankings for each subgroup. Subgroups consist in gender, age groups and income groups. Respondents are classified based on their demographic characteristics in order to extrapolate more detailed and specific information for each demographic trait of participants.

Table 6: Ranking of work motivators by subgroups

Work Motivator	Gender		Age Group*					Income Group**					
	M	F	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
Good working conditions	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	<u>3</u>
Interesting work	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	2	2	2
Good wages	3	3	3	3	3	3	<u>4</u>	3	3	3	3	3	<u>7</u>
Feeling of “being in on things”	4	4	4	4	4	4	<u>2</u>	4	4	4	4	4	<u>1</u>
Appreciation for work done	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
Personal loyalty to employees	<u>7</u>	6	6	6	6	6	6	7	6	6	6	6	<u>8</u>
Promotion and growth in the organization	<u>6</u>	7	7	7	7	7	8	6	7	7	7	7	<u>4</u>
Job security	8	8	8	8	8	8	7	8	8	8	8	8	6
Sympathetic understanding of, or help, with personal problems	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9
Tactful discipline	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10

Notes *Age Group 1 = <26 years; 2 = 26 - 34 years; 3 = 35 - 44 years; 4 = 45- 54 years; 5 = 55> years
** Income Group 1 = < 14,999 €; 2 = 15,000 – 24,999 €; 3 = 25,000 – 34,999 €; 4 = 35,000 – 49,999 €; 5 = 50,000> €

From Table 6 it is possible to see the computed ranks of the previously mentioned ten motivating factors, separately based upon: gender (male, female), age (<26 years, 26 – 34 years, 35 – 44 years, 45- 54 years, 55> years) and income (<14,999 Euro, 15,000 – 24,999 Euro, 25,000 – 34,999 Euro, 35,000 – 49,999 Euro, 50,000> Euro). The Table 6 reveals that the overall ranking of all the ten factors is more or less supported and confirmed by the people pertaining to different demographic groups, meaning that there are no substantial differences in rankings of the motivation factors. For example, the overall rank of the

motivating factor “good working conditions” is 1, which is also the rank chosen from the majority of the respondents across various demographic factors, exception made only by those belonging to income group 5 (see Table 6).

Another example is the tenth rank occupied by the motivation factor “tactful discipline”, which is exactly the same as the overall rank. Further, in the overall rank “Appreciation for work done” is five as well as in the subgroup ranking. The corresponding rows in Table 6 reveal a quite uniform pattern that match with the overall ranks. A similar repetition of ranking positions of the remaining motivation factors is observed for the other factors.

Exceptions with the overall ranking can be noted in age group 5, i.e. over 55 years old respondents placed “good wages” at the fourth place, which compared to the overall ranking loses one position. The same age group also placed on the second rank “feeling of being in on things”, while the same motivator is in the overall ranking positioned in the fourth place. Other little deviations from the overall ranking are likewise noticeable in males and in income group 5, i.e. 50,000> Euros.

Despite the absence of significant difference in preferences across different demographic factors, this does not signify that the respondents with respect to a particular demographic factor, i.e. gender, age group and income group match with the same rank for all the ten motivators. In fact, this is not the case. These details and implications are discussed in the following chapter.

5 DISCUSSION

5.1 Findings and implications

In order to find answers to the research questions, i.e. to better understand motivation of Italian workers across life stages and thus enable better management of employees of different ages, the analysis of ten Kovach’s motivation factors was conducted. Moreover, for a more accurate analysis also other demographic factors were taken into account such as gender and income.

From the analysis of the first survey I did not obtain a lot of information concerning differences among age groups of employees, because all respondents scored high on all of the ten motivation factors. The only significant statistical difference obtained was between the age group 2 (26-34 years old) and age group 4 (45-55 years old) for tactful discipline. The fact, that the older age group perceives this factor as more important than the younger age group may consist in the fact that the first ones have very likely experienced inadequate practices of implementation of the discipline (in extreme cases it may be also mobbing) from employers during their long period of service, thus making them more sensitive on this

motivation factor. On the other hand, the latter ones simply may have not tasted good and bad example of “tactful discipline” yet, because of their little experience gained in the working environment due to the young age. Hence, younger age group of employees may not perceive it as a powerful motivating factor perhaps because they have not experienced yet how much can be demotivating a bad way of the implementation of discipline from their supervisors.

There are no other significant differences to be commented. The results obtained from this survey make it also quite difficult to decide on which of the ten factors to focus in order to develop a stimulating environment and motivational programs for employees, This is due to the fact, that in such a case a manager would not know on which of the ten factors to primarily focus to design and implement solutions, since all of them scored very high on the Likert scale. Therefore, in order to find some differences in motivation among age groups of employees a second survey was prepared, where employees were asked to express their preference by ranking the ten factors instead of giving their preference based on a Likert scale.

More useful information was obtained with the second type of questionnaire, where respondents had to make a choice according to their preferences that consisted in ranking the ten factors. Therefore, by being forced to give a hierarchical order of importance to the ten Kovach’s motivation factors, the information obtained is more useful, because this permits to focus on the first for example five ranked factors to develop motivational programs for employees.

So, according to the findings of the second questionnaire it seems that Italian employees are principally concerned about good working conditions with respect to the other mentioned motivation factors. Nevertheless, I will focus on the first five ranked motivation factors, because it makes sense to foster first the factors perceived as most important in order to obtain the best positive effect possible without spending too much resources by focusing on all of them. As it can be observed from Table 4 the overall top five motivation factors identified by Italian employees were:

- 1 good working conditions;
- 2 interesting work;
- 3 good wages;
- 4 feeling of being in on things; and
- 5 appreciation for work done.

Basically, it is observed that extrinsic incentives play a key role in motivating Italian employees, because “good working conditions” and “good wages” are present in the highest ranks, i.e. first rank and third rank respectively.

A comparison of these results to the mentioned theories of motivation in the previous theory chapters provides some insight into employee motivation. The outcomes shown in Table 5 indicate that “good working conditions”, which according to Maslow’s theory is a physiological need, is the number one ranked motivator. The number two ranked motivator, “interesting work”, is a safety need. The number three motivator, “good wages”, is again a physiological need. The first motivation factor, being physiological needs, confirms Maslow’s theory that basic needs generally have to be satisfied before higher needs are taken into consideration.

Besides the fact, that physiological and safety needs are ranked as top positions, the analysis does not justify Maslow’s theory, that lower level motivational factors must be met before ascending to the next level on the hierarchy. Indeed, after this level, the types of motivational factors are mixed, while according to the principles of the theory of needs, the sequence of motivational factors should be following a strict ascending order. Therefore, it is interesting to notice that Maslow’s conclusions, that lower level motivational factors must be met before ascending to the next level on the hierarchy of needs are not confirmed by this research.

5.2 Managerial Suggestions

However, by focusing on the results obtained, the overall most important motivational factor “good working conditions” must be satisfied first. In order to do that an idea could be an implementation of a suggestion system that gives employees the chance to express improvements for the organization’s working condition, that in turn will help them to be more motivated for work. Indeed, it is generally known that an effective suggestion system enhances organization’s working conditions and saves organization’s resources from being wasted (Polzin, 1998; Trunko, 1993).

The motivational factor “interesting work” is second and its importance is also supported by Herzberg’s Motivation Hygiene Theory. His theory suggests that employees are motivated by their own innate need to be successful in a challenging task. The manager’s job, then, is to provide opportunities for people to be motivated to achieve objectives. In order to answer this pronounced need employers may try to create job varieties and learning opportunities. This could be done by reviewing existing jobs and redesigning them assisted by the HRM team. Some of the strategies that could be planned are job enlargement, job enrichment and job rotation. Job enlargement may be done horizontally by permitting the employee to handle more assorted tasks having comparable level of complexity. Oppositely, job enrichment refers to a vertical extension of the job that gives the opportunity to the employees to acquire more knowledge about the pre and post-stages of a job. And last, job rotation consents employees to experience cross-training in various segments of the business unit, or also gain knowledge from other business units, that are linked with their assigned and prevailing job.

On the third rank employees mostly selected “good wages”. This factor is part of the Herzberg’s Two-Factor Theory that he categorized as extrinsic or hygiene factor. Briefly, in his theory a lack of a good wage triggers employees to search for better financial conditions and hence for better job opportunities in other companies. Therefore, employees with this marked need would respond well to wage incentive programs and bonuses linked to achievement objectives of different nature that could be developed according to the sector in which the employees are working. Again, the HRM department should play a key role in defining the type of wage incentive programs adequate for each specific the business unit. Moreover, if monetary reward is perceived from employees as a feedback concerning their work as well as a recompense for their ability or proficiency this may lead to an increase in their intrinsic motivation, which according to literature is considered one of the most effective types of motivation.

The factor “feeling of being in on thing” is in the overall rank on the forth place. This suggests that there is a link between how much respondents feel involved in the decision making in their department or team and their overall motivation, confidence and satisfaction with their jobs. According to this result, it should be supposed that companies and business units that are able to involve employees in decision making will probably reveal higher levels of employee motivation and satisfaction for work. Employees that have the feeling of being valued as a noteworthy contributor to the company’s success by their supervisors and ownership positions will naturally increase their commitment to confirm company’s goals realization. Furthermore, when employees know they make a difference within the company and/or department, they find it easier to feel motivated and satisfied with their job. The sharing of information about company’s directions will also enable employees to make better and daily decisions and give them a sense. Moreover, since employees feel more responsible the chance to make a good decision increases, because employees are committed to enhance the elements of the decision, which are not aligned with company’s vision and values. Another interesting aspect to consider lays in the fact that, if employees are involved and a decision goes wrong they cannot blame their problems on management, but rather they will redirect their energy on a more future-oriented problem solving.

Another interesting aspect that may be applied to increase the commitment of employees is to connect employees with the end consumer. This may be done in different ways, like sharing consumer’s feedback comments of satisfaction and gratitude or also data describing the impact of product and services with employees or by organizing events like it is doing one start up in Silicon Valley, that invites current and potential clients to a monthly happy hour event with employees with the aim to engage employees with end users, thus making them feeling more involved (Forbes, 2015).

To conclude this point, delegation is also a good tool, because it involves employees and meanwhile permits to superiors to have more free time to devote to other areas of the business unit, to future-oriented issues and to efficiency procedures.

Finally, on the fifth rank Italian employees placed “appreciation for work done”. This indicates, that in the middle of the ranking there is again an intrinsic factor that motivates them. Generally, according to Locke (1968) clear goals and a positive feedback for the work done motivate employees. Naturally, in order for the feedback to have effective motivational force employers must give it by keeping in mind some rules, like for example a positive feedback must be given publicly in order to increase its positive effects and the person is the one that must be lauded rather than the action he/she made. According to literature the opposite must be done for negative feedbacks. Furthermore, the HRM may organize prizes to show recognition to employees. This may be done monthly by for example hanging a picture on the wall of the best employee of the month for each business unit. This will definitely show appreciation and recognition for the work done.

By looking at the analysis, according to demographic factors there are just few differences in the choice employees made. Managerial measures on the basis of demographic factors are depicted below.

The role of Gender. The only difference between female and male employees is that, males placed “promotion and growth” in the sixth place, while females ranked motivating factors in the same order as the overall rank, i.e. “promotion and growth” remained on the seventh place (see Table 6). This indicates that male employees are more concerned about promotion and growth than female employees. Anyway, since employers or managers cannot focus on all of the tenth factors, but rather it makes sense to develop actions for the first five positions in order to work on the most appealing motivating factors for employees, I will focus on more relevant differences that emerged according to other demographic characteristics.

The role of Age. Here the only age groups that differed from the overall rank is the age group over 55, which placed “feeling of being in on things” on second rank (instead of fourth place), “interesting work” on third (instead of second) and “good wages” on fourth (instead of third) (see Table 6). The most interesting difference lays in the second place given, because compared to the overall rank and the other age groups is the factor that gained two positions. It is quite evident, that given the advanced working age and the experience of this group they retain important of being involved with the events and intentions of the company. Very likely after many years of service and being proximate to retirement, this category of employees has the desire to be involved in certain important decisions of the company. Therefore, it would make sense for this age group of employees to consider the possibility of making them more participative to some type of decisions or at least give them the possibility to give a contribution, opinion and advice. This may be done by having on regular basis meetings that illustrate the future projects and ambitions of the company and consequently by a mailbox or letterbox, where employees may feel free (and not obliged) to give their intellectual contribution. This type of initiative would surely give them the chance

to think out of the box of their routine and would make them feel involved in company's decisions.

The role of Income. In this demographic category of employees there are just two groups that diverge from the overall rank, namely the first income group and the fifth income group (see Table 6). The first income group (< 14,999 €) ranked “promotion and growth” before “personal loyalty to employees” (seventh place). This makes sense, since it is the lowest income group they may allocate to promotion and growth to a higher income and therefore they consider it more important than “personal loyalty to employees”. So, considering that good wage is on the third place as in the overall rank and “promotion and growth” gained one position compared to the overall rank, it can be said that in companies where employees have an income lower than 14,999 Euro per year, they may consider to give the possibility to this employees to be involved in important projects to give them the opportunity to gain experience and apply for jobs (also within the company) that permits to earn a higher salary.

Concerning the fifth income group (50,000 > €) there are more differences compared to the overall rank and the other income groups of employees. The motivating factor that moved back the most is “good wages”, which went down to the seventh place (third in overall rank and other income groups) (see Table 6). This naturally suggests that these employees are not really motivated any more by money, but rather they prefer “feeling of being in on things”, which is on first place, “interesting work” on second place and “good working conditions” on third place. According to results, for this income group employers or managers should try to involve employees in company's decision making and propose interesting tasks rather than increasing financial rewards. Generally speaking, probably a job enrichment or enlargement program may be motivating for all income groups.

Since ranking differences in demographic groups did not vary a lot with respect to the overall ranking, it can be concluded that the first five factors present in the overall ranking can be generally taken as important motivators regardless of gender, age and income. These findings confirm much of what was stated in the literature review, namely that management has a tendency to treat all employees the same as if they all have the same needs. Hence, recommendations given for the overall ranking represent already a good base to motivating strategies for motivating employees.

5.3 Limitations and Future Research

Even if the researcher strives to conduct a perfect research study, there are always present some limitations due to inadequate information on a given subject. In fact, it is not possible to control all variables. So, these limitations may influence the results and findings obtained from the research. For this reason, it is important to mention the transpired limitations, which then emphasize recommendations for future research.

Due to the fact that the research contains a sampling procedure and also uses a self-selective technique for gathering the necessary data, it is important to emphasize that the sample which was used is very narrow and focused.

In the case of my research a limitation is the sample size. In fact, the number of participants in my research study is not very big and therefore information gathered is limited. This fact, is especially true for some of the age and income groups, namely the over 55 group and the over 50,000 Euro group. Therefore, because of the small group of respondents with these two demographic characteristics, there are difficulties in generalizing the results. In further researches, this fact calls for a deepening of these two demographic groups by trying to gather more respondents that belong to them. In order to gather more data from those belonging to age group over 55 paper questionnaires should be distributed by hand, because it is likely that older people are not present on social media, therefore did not access to the link of the questionnaire.

A second limitation concerns the period of the data gathering process that was relatively short. So, in order to obtain an overall larger sample group, the period of the data gathering process should have been extended. Thus, also the data gathering process was in part a limitation.

As far as concerns the first model of questionnaire designed to gather information, it has also represented a limitation, since data obtained was not very useful for the scope of the research. For this reason, another questionnaire was designed and distributed around. Hence, it can be said that also the first questionnaire represented a limitation, especially for the type of data gathered.

Further research should continue to keep track of motivational changes in the employee population and extend it to factors that may be the cause of it such as economic crises, generational changes etc. Moreover, a good practice would be to make it become a regular form of feedback within companies. Thus, managers can implement more specific and effective motivational plans.

CONCLUSION

Productivity enhancement cannot be limited just to improvements in technology, customer service, outsourcing or automatization processes. Behind all these approaches there are employees, who are expected to implement them and the accomplishment or the failure depends largely on employees' motivation. Furthermore, demographic changes in the workplace and globalization keep accentuating the necessity to continue to ascertain what motivates employees to perform well. Therefore, before managers implement a management

development program, they have to take into consideration those factors that influence the working life-routines of the employees. Moreover, the designed programs may not be successful if the information they gathered is inadequate. Therefore, employees' involvement is fundamental to be able to design a winning motivational program for both parts, employers and employees.

The main intention of the presented research was to investigate and assess what motivate Italian employees and examine whether or not there were any differences in motivating preferences among different groups, of employees, namely gender, age group and income group. Moreover, the purpose of this thesis was also to give the reader an insight of the main motivation theories, that were developed through time and that help better understand the nature of the human being. Given the fact that motivating employees is not a simple assignment, the research wanted to provide an overview of some motivation theories as well as specific motivating factors, which influence employees' motivation for work. These factors were provided in the thesis and played a central part within the questionnaire.

These motivation factors enabled me and before me also other researchers to extrapolate information from employees and develop guidelines for motivating them by considering a kind of segmentation given by demographic characteristics like gender, age and income. According to the results obtained there were just few differences among these categories of employees. Indeed, most of employees had similar preferences that followed the overall ranking of motivating factors. Little exceptions were found in gender, revealing a small change in the rank position of two factors, namely a there was a shift in the sixth and seventh rank (see Table 6). In the over 55 age group there was just a shift of one position from the second to the fourth rank, so there was just a change in the order of the first five factors; and in the group of above 50,000 Euro per year there were also evidenced differences, that were definitely more marked, because shifts in the factors ranking were more various, nevertheless the sample of this group was smaller compared to the other group samples, so research may be extended to this group in order to verify the reliability. Nevertheless, the findings should present a clearer direction for managers and hence they should be seriously taken into consideration by managers at the moment of designing employee's motivation programs for employees with varying demographic background. So, questionnaires are not a cure-all, but if company's responsible administer them regularly and truly consider the answers given from their employees and the findings in such a way, that they try to incorporate them whenever possible to restructure the organization attitude towards the reward system, employees, employers, company as a whole and also the country may gain a lot. Therefore, future studies are expected to be done in other countries and within companies as well along the same lines to maintain a continuity and be able to compare it with the past results.

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APPENDIXES

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Appendix A: First Questionnaire Motivation for work across age group in Italy

Introduction

Dear participant, thank you for choosing to collaborate in this research study. Please fill in the following survey on personal perception regarding job motivational factors. This survey contributes to the realization of my Master Thesis at the University of Ljubljana and will contribute to give a clearer insight about the motivational working factors in the Italian society. The answers are anonymous and will be used exclusively for the purpose of this research. Thank you in advance for your collaboration.

1. How important are the following factors in motivating you to work?

	Least important	Slightly important	Fairly important	Important	Very important
Good working conditions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feeling of "being in on things"	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Appreciation for work done	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tactful discipline	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Personal loyalty to employees	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Promotion and growth in the organization	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Good wage	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sympathetic under: or help with person	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Job security	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Interesting work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Demographic information

Q2 - gender:

- M
- F

Q3 – Select your age-group

- < 26 years
- 26 - 34 years
- 35 - 44 years
- 45 - 54 years
- 55 > years

Q4 – Select your monthly income

- < 14.999 €
- 15.000 - 24.999 €
- 25.000 - 34.999 €
- 35.000 - 49.999 €
- 50.000 > €

Survey completed. Thank you.

Appendix B: Second Questionnaire Motivation for work across age group in Italy

Introduction

Dear participant, thank you for choosing to collaborate in this research study. Please fill in the following survey on personal perception regarding job motivational factors. This survey contributes to the realization of my Master Thesis at the University of Ljubljana and will contribute to give a clearer insight about the motivational working factors in the Italian society. The answers are anonymous and will be used exclusively for the purpose of this research. Thank you in advance for your collaboration.

Q1 – Please rank based on your perception the 10 motivation factors from the most important to the least important, where 1 is the most important and 10 is the least important factor.

Goog working conditions	1	
Feeling of “being in on things”	2	
Tactful discipline	3	
Appreciation for work done	4	
Personal loyalty to employees	5	

Good wage

6

Promotion and growth in the organization

7

Sympathetic understanding of, or help,
with personal problems

8

Job security

9

Interesting work

10

Demographic information

Q2 - gender:

- M
- F

Q3 – Select your age-group

- < 26 years
- 26 - 34 years
- 35 - 44 years
- 45 - 54 years
- 55 > years

Q4 – Select your annual income

- < 14.999 €
- 15.000 - 24.999 €
- 25.000 - 34.999 €
- 35.000 - 49.999 €
- 50.000 > €

Survey completed. Thank you.

Appendix C: ANOVA and POST HOC results for age-group (statistically non-significant)

Table 1: ANOVA and POST HOC results for age-group (statistically non-significant)

Depended variable	Group	N	Mean	Standard deviation	F-statistics	Sign.	Results post (statistically significant difference)
Good working conditions	1	18	4,56	0,511	1,665	0,161	no difference between groups
	2	65	4,49	0,616			
	3	26	4,42	0,578			
	4	34	4,50	0,508			
	5	13	4,08	0,641			
Feeling of “being in on things”	1	18	4,33	0,594	0,784	0,537	no difference between groups
	2	65	4,32	0,664			
	3	26	4,50	0,510			
	4	34	4,50	0,564			
	5	13	4,31	0,630			
Appreciation for work done	1	18	4,06	0,938	0,695	0,597	no difference between groups
	2	65	4,25	0,6662			
	3	26	4,23	0,908			
	4	34	4,26	0,828			
	5	13	3,92	0,641			
Personal loyalty to employees	1	18	4,56	0,922	0,131	0,971	no difference between groups
	2	65	4,45	0,708			
	3	26	4,50	0,762			
	4	34	4,53	0,748			
	5	13	4,54	0,519			
Promotion and growth	1	18	4,39	0,698	0,686	0,603	no difference between groups
	2	65	4,14	0,704			
	3	26	4,08	0,935			
	4	34	4,24	0,855			
	5	13	4,00	0,707			
Good salary	1	18	4,44	0,616	1,228	0,301	no difference between groups
	2	65	4,08	0,692			
	3	26	4,15	0,732			
	4	34	4,26	0,666			
	5	13	4,08	0,760			
Sympathetic understanding	1	18	3,83	0,857	0,589	0,671	
	2	65	3,66	1,020			

or help, with personal problems	3	26	3,85	1,190			no difference between groups
	4	34	3,68	1,036			
	5	13	4,08	0,760			
Job security	1	18	4,44	0,784	0,609	0,657	no difference between groups
	2	65	4,23	0,745			
	3	26	4,42	0,809			
	4	34	4,18	0,869			
	5	13	4,31	0,855			
Interesting work	1	18	4,39	0,698	0,555	0,695	no difference between groups
	2	65	4,23	0,766			
	3	26	4,38	0,752			
	4	34	4,15	0,821			
	5	13	4,15	0,801			

Appendix D: ANOVA and POST HOC results for income-group (statistically non-significant)

Table 2: ANOVA and POST HOC results for income-group (statistically non-significant)

Depended variable	Group	N	Mean	Standard deviation	F-statistics	Sign.	Results post (statistically significant difference)
Tactful discipline	1	33	3,58	0,614	1,029	0,409	no difference between groups
	2	92	3,87	0,815			
	3	15	3,87	0,990			
	4	5	3,60	0,548			
	5	1	3,00	/			
	6	3	4,33	0,577			
	7	8	3,88	0,991			
Good working conditions	1	33	4,39	0,609	1,930	0,080	no difference between groups
	2	92	4,52	0,583			
	3	15	4,40	0,507			
	4	5	4,00	0,000			
	5	1	5,00	/			
	6	3	3,67	0,577			
	7	8	4,50	0,535			
Feeling of "being in	1	33	4,15	0,667			
	2	92	4,45	0,581			

on things”	3	15	4,40	0,632			no difference between groups
	4	5	4,60	0,548			
	5	1	5,00/	/			
	6	3	4,33	0,577			
	7	8	4,50	0,535			
Appreciation for work done	1	33	4,00	0,866	0,752	0,609	no difference between groups
	2	92	4,26	0,724			
	3	15	4,33	0,976			
	4	5	4,20	0,837			
	5	1	5,00	/			
	6	3	4,00	0,000			
	7	8	4,13	0,641			
Personal loyalty to employees	1	33	4,42	0,751	0,928	0,477	no difference between groups
	2	92	4,58	0,683			
	3	15	4,20	1,014			
	4	5	4,20	0,447			
	5	1	4,00	/			
	6	3	4,67	0,577			
	7	8	4,63	0,744			
Good salary	1	33	4,21	0,485	1,393	0,221	no difference between groups
	2	92	4,12	0,724			
	3	15	4,27	0,704			
	4	5	3,80	0,447			
	5	1	5,00	/			
	6	3	5,00	0,000			
	7	8	4,25	1,035			
Sympathetic understanding or help, with personal problems	1	33	3,48	0,939	1,520	0,175	no difference between groups
	2	92	3,79	1,043			
	3	15	3,67	1,175			
	4	5	4,20	0,837			
	5	1	2,00	/			
	6	3	4,67	0,577			
	7	8	3,88	0,641			
Job security	1	33	4,21	0,696	1,538	0,169	no difference between groups
	2	92	4,33	0,866			
	3	15	4,27	0,458			
	4	5	4,20	0,837			
	5	1	2,00	/			
	6	3	4,33	0,577			
	7	8	4,38	0,518			
Interesting	1	33	4,24	0,792	2,679	0,017	

work	2	92	4,18	0,755			no difference between groups
	3	15	4,60	0,632			
	4	5	4,80	0,447			
	5	1	2,00	/			
	6	3	4,00	0,000			
	7	8	4,25	0,886			
Promotion and growth	1	33	4,12	0,696	0,545	0,773	no difference between groups
	2	92	4,21	0,806			
	3	15	3,93	1,033			
	4	5	4,20	0,447			
	5	1	4,00	/			
	6	3	4,67	0,577			
	7	8	4,00	0,535			