

This work is licensed under a
Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-
NoDerivs 3.0 Licence.

To view a copy of the licence please see:
<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/3.0/>

RN 322278

(832)

(a) UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI
(b) Institute for Development Studies
Working papers

A NON-INDIVIDUALIST NOTE ON TRADITIONAL
MOTIVATION THEORIES IN THE CONTEXT OF
AFRICAN ORGANIZATIONS

by

Hymon T. Johnson

WORKING PAPER NO. 240

INSTITUTE FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES
UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI
P.O. Box 30197
Nairobi, Kenya

October 1975



Views expressed in this paper are those of the author. They should not be interpreted as reflecting the views of the Institute for Development Studies or of the University of Nairobi.

IDS



095382

IDS/HP 240

A NON-INDIVIDUALIST NOTE ON TRADITIONAL
MOTIVATION THEORIES IN THE CONTEXT OF
AFRICAN ORGANIZATIONS

By

Hymon T. Johnson

ABSTRACT

The physiological, psychological and sociological bases of motivation provide fundamental insight into the mechanisms used in the West to provide workers with a sense of belongingness and inducement for increased productivity. But while the various theories put forth by organizational behaviourists in their human relations approach to managing do provide logical assessments and a systematic view of motivational phenomena, the application to African organizations may not be effectively possible or conducive due to different objective and subjective conditions. Truly collectivist-based societies appear to provide the framework for a different way of looking at motivation through a more scientific and systematic approach.



This document is a reproduction of the original work of the author and should not be interpreted as reflecting the views of the University of Nairobi, Department of Development Studies or of the Faculty of Social Sciences.

INTRODUCTION

All human experience and behavior are the outcome of both internal and external factors operating interdependently at a given time within one's particular frame of reference, or system of relations. Motives and the study of motivation is probably the best example of the internal factors. That and some novel considerations with respect to the African business organizational context shall constitute the subject of this paper.

Motivation can be defined as the combination of forces which initiate, direct, and sustain behavior towards a goal. Or, for our purposes, we can refer to synonyms such as "incentive" and "inducement" in our reference to the concept. At the outset, however, it should be clear that when we refer to motivation or motivating factors, we consider the entire psychological, physiological, and sociological state of the individual. One must never look at motivation from the standpoint of an isolated instance or situation. That is, we must consider that there are always a combination of factors — both internal and external — which provide motivation and result in one's final behavior. Or, if you will, one's behavior generally results not merely from the direct response to one stimulus or one motivational factor, but usually as a culmination from many such factors acting interdependently. This will be given further consideration as we proceed.

Another understanding we must have as we proceed has to do with the logical fact that motives manifest themselves only through behaviour. That is, one can only infer motivational sources and can never measure them directly. Measurement can only occur where such motivation has resulted in actual and observable behavior. Thus one could never say precisely that "he was motivated by this" or "we can motivate her with that." It would be more precise to say "let's try to motivate him in this manner" or "she was probably motivated by this or that."

Further, by way of introduction, it will be useful to distinguish motives as to their origin. We can do that in the following way. There are:

- i) Biogenic motives which originate as a result of the physiological necessities and self-regulating processes within individuals. These self-regulating processes, or homeostasis, seek to maintain physiological equilibrium within our systems. (1)
- ii) Psychogenic motives. These are often not distinguished from sociogenic motives. But we will refer to these as those internal motivators that result purely from internally-set goals, with ill-regard from any social influence.

1. Muzafer Sherif and Carolyn Sherif, An Outline of Social Psychology, Harper & Brothers, New York, 1956, p. 370.

- iii) Sociogenic motives. These are acquired in the course of one's growth and maturation into a social setting. Often they are formed as a result of interpersonal relationships, group relations, and/or the influence of established societal values and norms. (2)

This paper will be divided into 3 major parts. First we will consider the physiological, psychological, and sociological bases of motivation, their interdependency, strength, and modification. Next, we will discuss various theories of motivation in the work environment as put forth by those that were conventionally wise, such as Maslow, Mayo, Herzberg and others. Finally, we will put forth some brief ideas concerning the merrgence of individual, group, and societal goals as innate motivating factors and as a method for the reduction of organizational conflict in African business organizations.

The Physiological, Psychological and Sociological Bases of Motivation

Let us first take a look at the first category of motivation mentioned in the introduction, that of biogenic motives. We said that biogenic motives originate as a result of the organism's physiological requirements and self-regulating system. Let us expand that now by describing the essential characteristics of a biogenic motive.

The first characteristic of a biogenic motive constitutes a reaction to some physiological demand, such as a chemical deficit (for example, oxygen, water, vitamin, etc.) or some organic state (for example, excess of white corpuscles in the blood). Biogenic motives provide a signal to the individual when the equilibrium of the internal organic environment has been disturbed as above, for example. Such occurrences of disequilibrium stimulate neural impulses or "signal danger," if you will, in the proportion to the degree in which the homeostasis is disturbed. The typical example here would be found in those classical deprivation studies by Pavlov and others where animals from rats to monkeys were deprived of food or water for the purposes of studying stimulus-response — motivation — situations.

The second characteristic of a biogenic motive is that the reaction to the internal disequilibrium constitutes an aroused state of the individual. This aroused state is maintained until equilibrium is restored by taking food, water or vitamins or in the restoration of the proper white cell count as in the examples above.

Thirdly, a biogenic motive must be universal to all human species and must be innate, or unlearned. This clearly indicates that unlike socio-genic motives, as we shall see, biogenic motives could never be socially determined or culturally influenced, although the economic well-being of the society could be influential. (This will have much greater implications later in the paper.)

Lastly, a biogenic motive leads to a more or less specific pattern of neural and corrective activity in relation to the particular stimulus or stimuli operant at the time. That is, certain consistent neural activity will evolve each time an individual is presented with the same biogenic situation. (3)

What, then, are these biogenic motives that occur with ill respect of society and culture? They include: i) hunger; ii) thirst; iii) body temperature regulation; iv) suckling; v) sex; vi) breathing; and vii) elimination. This is certainly not a full listing, but the purpose of providing examples is served however.

From this brief discussion of biogenic motives, the social significance and its implications should be clear. Motivation manifests itself through behavior. And, as we shall see, at various times certain motives become dominant and begin to screen out other stimuli and other potential motivators. Behavior generally occurs in some social setting, particularly in the organizational context. Thus experience of a dominant biogenic motive will result in that individual seeking a reduction in the "aroused state" and we should know the lengths that are sometimes necessary to effect equilibrium with respect to a stomach paining from hunger, sickness from improper or inadequate medical facilities, or from certain vitamin or nutritional deficiencies. Consequently, we should add, biogenic needs which depend on others or others' arrangements for their satisfaction are of particular concern to us as they relate to organizational behavior in a so-called developing society. For aside from training and supervisory behavior, a worker whose homeostasis is in a state of disequilibrium due to some biogenic cause could hardly be expected to perform at top efficiency or effectiveness. This seems particularly important and significant in the newly industrializing urban centers of most inflationary-ridden African states. Such recognition should certainly move us, then, from the realm of single physiological concern of individual behavior to that of collective or social behavior.

3. Op. cit., p. 373.

Let us now turn to psychogenic motives. These are those motives which are entirely personally acquired. They might result from individual preferences, personal ambitions, emotions based on one's peculiar reference frame, or upon his anchorages. The social significance of such motives can be expressed similarly to that of biogenic motives. Such psychogenic motives will ultimately manifest themselves in some behavior. And, in the case where the satisfaction of such motives depends, for example, on some socio-economic or like condition which is not fully under that individual's control, behavior must occur in a social setting in a manner that will seek that satisfaction and attempt to effect some favorable change in that psychogenic condition, thus requiring some form of interpersonal contact.*

Sociogenic motives would seem to have the most relevance as related to the subject of this paper. Examples would comprise all those motives which are derived as a result of interaction in the socio-cultural environment. Normative and customary behavior based on established norms and values are prime examples. An illustration of sociogenic motives' relation to attitude formation should provide for a more basic understanding of such motives. For, indeed, the problem of attitude formation is basic to any understanding of sociogenic motives. Their implications for African organizational behavior should be readily apparent.

Attitudes refer to functional states of readiness which are either acquired or learned in relation to some object which has value for the individual. (4) An attitude, like motivation, can only manifest itself through behavior. But with reference to attitudes, we are concerned with consistent behavior that would stem from some consistent state of readiness. The value of the attitudinal object or objective may have purely biological origins, in which case it would have resulted from some biogenic motive. But on the other hand, where that value is acquired as the result of knowledge of or interaction in the socio-cultural setting, we would refer to the source as a sociogenic motive, having been triggered in the formation of attitudes based on that object's significance in a social context. In other words, attitudes (and their expression in consistent behavior) are formed as the result of a host of both internal and external factors operating interdependently. At any point where factors external to the individual's self-regulating system have a bearing then that is social in nature -- sociogenic -- and thus would "flavor" tendencies towards motivational states which are also social in nature.

*It is said that scholars in this area are generally uneasy and don't like to consider psychogenic motives apart from sociogenic motives. The idea is to simply use biogenic and sociogenic as the only sources of motivation. I suppose it is because we think of behavior as being a "reaction" to something either physiological or sociological and psychogenic motives don't seem to fit as a "reaction." May be it is best to think in terms of psychogenic motives as illiciting behavior after physiological equilibrium is attained and that which is not traceable to any socio-cultural influence.

Relative Weights and Interdependency of Motives

In general, it is conducive to our understanding of motivation in the African organizational context if we make a clearer and further distinction between at least biogenic and sociogenic motives. For one should expect that effective motivators might vary in industrialized and developing economies, the latter of which are characterized by abject scarcity, higher unemployment, a lower per capita income and other unfavorable social conditions. Thus it will be extremely important to view motivation and its theories in the appropriate and applicable practical work situations according to the current economic and social conditions under consideration. We can see, therefore, that under such developmental conditions as mentioned above one must give consideration to the relative importance of the set of biogenic motives and the set of sociogenic motives in determining experience and behavior in the work environment, as well as to the importance of various motives operating within each set of motives. For example, depending upon the individual's physiological state and other internal or external factors operating at the time, hunger may be the dominating factor which has caused internal disequilibrium and seeks satisfaction above all other motives. At other times, it may be some chemical imbalance or, possibly, the entire set of biogenic motives which dominate and screen out any effect of sociogenic motives. On the other hand, if the homeostasis is in a state of general equilibrium and no "physiological warning signals" are signalling, it might be safe to assume that sociogenic motives will dominate and thus result in the individual seeking to satisfy his desires for recognition, acceptance, security, wealth, and so on.

Does this understanding, then, have implications for African organizational behavior? Indeed it does. For what this generally implies is that worker behavior in a poor African nation such as Zambia or Zaire, for example, might be more or better motivated by the set of biogenic motives as opposed to the set of sociogenic motives. Of course this relational assumption could be strongly influenced by feelings of sectional or tribal competition and more importantly by the nation's mode of production. For it is a truism that the sociology, psychology, philosophy and overall way of looking at things is all determined by the economic mode of production assumed by the society. (5) For example, in theory, the sociogenic motives apparent in a collectivist society, which are of course environmentally and culturally determined, are not of the same character as those to be found in individualist societies. We will deal

5. Karl Marx and Frederick Engels, Selected Works, Volume I, Progress Publisher, Moscow, 1973, pp. 30-31.

with this in greater detail in the last section. But for now it will suffice to say that a truly collectivist society would rarely be bothered with detrimental organizational behavior which has been triggered by the sociogenic motives of wealth, power, or social status or by the sin of greed.

Before we leave this segment of our discussion and move to consideration of specific theories of worker motivation, it will be well to make some comments with respect to motive strength, its relation to dissonance theory and then in the way of interim conclusion.

The relative strength of particular motives depends on a number of factors, as previously mentioned. However in this regard and in the context of African organizational behavior, we should recall that no one motive, be it biogenic, psychogenic, or sociogenic, operates devoid of other influences. In actuality a motive will always have some relation to physiological and psychological functioning and to social circumstances. (6) Thus attempting to effectively motivate workers in the vacuum of providing for the satisfaction of a single sociogenic goal, for example, would be useless unless the totality of factors operating within that worker's frame of reference are first considered. This touches on the all-encompassing problem of part-whole relationships. But in this context, it is simply enough to say that we must study the part as well as the whole. A direct example in the field of management is of course the systems approach to the study of organizations. Here we view the entire organization as a system of operating sub-systems. And only by studying each sub-system in the form of divisions, departments, and work groups, as well as taking the macro view of that organization, can we fully appreciate all that must go into the directing function of management when it comes to regulating and motivating worker behavior in the organization. Thus, motives must always be considered in relation to those other factors which are operating simultaneously, including those internal and external; those attitudinal and experiential; and, those physiological, psychological, and sociological. The strength of one particular motive, therefore, will tend to increase or decrease depending on the state of the individual and the relative strength of operating external influences. Common sense will show that a hungry worker will be motivated by food or some means to that end before he becomes concerned with worker status relationships — thus illustrating the dominance of biogenic over sociogenic. On the other hand, a financially secure manager may be wrought with the sociogenic thirst for greater recognition and power. It follows therefore, from the discussion to this point

6. Sherif and Sherif, p. 373.

that at some times biogenic motives may predominate while at other times sociogenic motives will represent the more logical cause of worker behavior. An example is provided by dissonance theory.

Dissonance occurs when two related perceptions, two related behaviors, or a related behavior and perception are in conflict or are inconsistent. In order to feel at peace, so to speak, or to establish mental consistency and equilibrium, one of the conflicting perceptions or behaviors will be modified so as to come more in line with its related counterpart. Thus if a worker is given directives which he perceives as endangering his physical health or which conflict with his personal values, one element will have to give way to eliminate or reduce the state of mental disequilibrium which has been aroused. Either the worker will follow the directives and thus place less stake on his health or values or he will give less importance to the directives. This, as in the case of motives, will depend upon internal and external influences as well as individual costs or benefits accruing. This will become more clear in the next section.

In conclusion of this work thus far, let us be acutely aware that there is always a multitude of motivational factors acting interdependently as any given point in time which manifests itself in observable social or organizational behavior. But only by fully understanding the physiological, psychological, and sociological bases of such behavior can we ever hope to begin to develop approaches to the regulation — and if necessary — modification of African organizational behavior. To blindly accept and attempt to apply the theories that follow, as many managers do, can be very detrimental. It is my purpose to lay the foregoing foundation then merely present the following theories, with some comment, so that one may determine what is useful in Africa and leave the rest. In addition, it is hoped that an approach of this type lends to the much desired result of having African managers think for themselves and see for themselves so that they can come to intelligent decisions for themselves. In reality, the only worthwhile decisions made by a manager are those made with the most possible information, with full regard for the current situation, and anticipating that decision's full objective and subjective effects.

A Cursory Review of the Major Western Motivational Theories

What is proposed in this section is to take a look at a few selected theories that have been set forth as a result of the psychological and sociological studies on motivation in the work environment in the West. These theories are directly related to organizational behavior and could be referred to as the classical positions on motivation and its use in the work environment. The theories, their implications, and the significance for African organization behavior, where appropriate, follow.

The first theory we will consider may be assumed to be one which has been given the most attention in behavioral approaches to the management of the organization. Abraham Maslow, in his work Motivation and Personality, developed a hierarchy in which he hypothesized an order in which human needs arrange themselves. This hierarchy is shown in the figure below. (7)

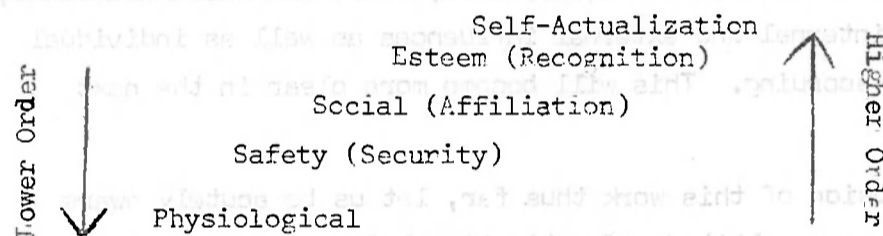


FIGURE 1

The hierarchy was developed based on what he felt was the strength of particular needs. That is, the physiological needs -- those we have already referred to as biogenic -- are of the lowest order and are the strongest. And, in line with our previous background discussion, the lower order needs must at least be satisfied to some minimally acceptable degree before one would proceed to pursue goals related to the higher order needs. According to Maslow, this is not to say that motivating factors or motivators cannot operate simultaneously. It is simply to say that the lower order needs are stronger and will hold dominance and priority in one's repertoire of motivators. (8) Thus according to Figure 1, for example, once the physiological -- biogenic -- needs are satiated, or partially so, the safety need would emerge as the dominant motive. Once that need is satiated, the need to socialize and be recognized as a part of some group would then emerge, and so on. We should be cautioned, as earlier mentioned, that each lower need need not be completely or totally satisfied before one moves to preponderant concern for the next need level. Indeed, it is individual preference at which point of fullness, in terms of food, for example,

Abraham H. Maslow "A Theory of Human Motivation," Psychological Review, July, 1943, pp. 370-395.
8. Ibid.

one must attain before his homeostasis attains or maintains the measure of equilibrium that he desires. Again, we must look at the totality of experiences and interdependent influences when we look at motivation. Thus in certain industrialized societies where food is abundant and medical facilities are readily accessible we might assume that the physiological needs are satisfied among workers to a relatively large extent. According to Maslow's scheme, then, human organizational behavior in such societies might be more dominated by sociogenic motivation and the "higher order" needs. Under African economic and social conditions, we must conclude, this indicates that desired worker behavior might initially be more amenable to lower order motivators having more to do with biogenic motives, first, then the other lower needs related to safety and security. Certainly the present state of reality in Africa today only allows the bourgeoisie and ruling groups of the continent to seek "proper" affiliation, esteem, and self-actualization in the organizational context.*

Elton Mayo's Hawthorne Studies, conducted over a five year period in the Chicago area from 1927 to 1932, were also a classic in the organizational behavioral sense. In fact, it was Mayo's work that marked the evolution of the human relations approach of Frederick Taylor to management. It is his work that challenged the earlier scientific approach. Whether that was good or bad is not the present issue. But we can say with certainty that much of Mayo's work overshadowed the true significance, particularly for today, of the scientific approach to management and its undeniable advantage in all economic relationships. Essentially the gist of Mayo's contribution, though it occurred before that of Douglas McGregor, is basically that which resulted from the latter's proposition of Theory X and Theory Y. In short, McGregor made a list of assumptions about human nature which he proposed as "Theory X" and "Theory Y." The assumptions are as follows:

- Theory X:
- i) work is inherently distasteful to most people.
 - ii) most people are not ambitious, have little desire for responsibility, and prefer to be directed.
 - iii) most people have little capacity for creativity in solving organizational problems.
 - iv) motivation occurs only at the physiological and safety levels.
 - v) most people must be closely controlled and often coerced to achieve organizational objectives.

* Based on this and earlier discussion, one might argue that African worker motivation is primarily biogenic in nature. But to the extent that labour activity is itself social activity, I would not fully agree.

- Theory Y:
- i) work is as natural as play, if the conditions are favorable.
 - ii) self-control is often indispensable in achieving organizational goals.
 - iii) the capacity for creativity in solving organizational problems is widely distributed among the population.
 - iv) motivation occurs at the social, esteem, and self-actualization levels.
 - v) people can be self-directed and creative at work if properly motivated. (9)

Based on these assumptions, McGregor hypothesized that the use of Theory Y is highly conducive to increased work productivity as a result of the workers' feelings that they are an integral part of the organization and that they do, in fact, better contribute to the attainment of organizational objectives under such assumptions. (10)

Mayo's results from his production efficiency studies at Hawthorne were generally the same. They showed that when workers feel that they are a true part of the organization and have a sense of belongingness, their productivity will likewise increase. (11)

Here it might be well to make some comments concerning Theories X and Y as they relate to the focus of productive activity in the first place. Theory X is what supervisory behavior had traditionally been based on in the West from the time of the Industrial Revolution until the human relations approach took root. Here one would like to think of what initially appears to be a re-focusing of supervisory behavior. That is, with the birth of the human relations approach to managing -- as based on assumptions delineated in Theory Y -- we would like to think that business organizations had changed their focus from maximum productivity at any human "cost" to "satisfizing" productivity with more concern for the worker as a member of the human society, as opposed to his being considered as merely a commodity factor of production and an extension of the capital equipment. In present day context and under readily observable circumstances, however, it would be difficult to justify such a way of thinking. It therefore appears that only a change in means has occurred and the focus of increasing productive activity, as always, has remained maximum private profit for private benefit, the means simply being more effective psychological and sociological labour motivation towards that end.

9. Douglas McGregor, "The Human Side of Enterprise," Management Review, November, 1957, pp. 22-23, 89, 92.

10. Ibid.

11. Fremont E. Kast and James E. Rosenzweig, Organization and Management, A Systems Approach, McGraw-Hill Kogakusha, Inc., Tokyo, 1974, pp 78-82.

With respect to the utility of these foregoing theories and the two that follow in African organizations, it should be added that they must be viewed not only in the light of theories generally, but also in the light of their conduciveness to the accomplishment of developmental objectives.* This idea will be given further consideration in the concluding section of this paper. Let us now complete the review of the major theories by looking at two more.

Chris Argyris, in his Immaturity-Maturity Theory first published in Personality and Organization in 1957, argues to the same general conclusions reached by the earlier organizational behaviourists. According to Argyris, an individual passes through several stages before he is considered to be "mature." He places the extremes of these stages on a continuum and suggests that as one moves along the continuum he gains individual and personal "maturity." Among these stages is moving from passiveness to increasing activity; from dependence to independence; from generally subordinate positions to equal or superordinate positions, etc. He further suggests that due to the bureaucratic and sometimes paternalistic nature of many organizations, most individuals never really reach full "maturity" in all of the seven areas he puts forth, but they do move to some state of "maturity," relative to their earlier state of "immaturity." He also argues that management purposely stagnates individual progression to "maturity" through such principles of scientific management as unity of command, task specialization, and span of control. He says that in management's push for organization and control they stifle the individual worker's creativity and thus, in fact, discourage increased productivity. His theory is based on a one year experiment with 12 women working in a factory as well as other research. His major contribution is his challenge to management that workers must be given more individual and organizational responsibility, thereby resulting in greater job satisfaction and an accompanying increase in productivity. (12)

The final theory we will look at is Frederick Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory. His approach to worker motivation centers around what he calls job enrichment. He postulates that workers have two categories of

*Here I am referring to the empirical studies which formed the basis of these motivational theories and the question of their reliability, validity, and generalizability, which in and of itself is a most important consideration.

12. Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behaviour, Prentice-Hall, New Delhi, 1972, pp. 50-53.

needs which he refers to as hygiene factors (which relate to the job environment) and motivators (which relate to the job itself). He criticizes earlier organizational behaviourists by saying that they have paid too much attention to what surrounds the work and have not given adequate consideration to the work itself. He concludes that trying to enrich the hygiene factors, such as working conditions, employee policies, money, status, etc. will only be helpful in attempting to ward off dissatisfaction — as a stop gap measure — and can never really have positive, motivational effects. According to him, only by enriching the job itself through recognition and opportunities for personal growth and development is increased productivity likely to be effected. He says, as many collectivists have said for decades, that work itself can be a motivator provided that enrichment is built into the job itself and not merely into the job environment. (13)

As we can readily ascertain, the behavioural theories we have reviewed all tend to complement each other and lead us in the same general direction, i.e., increased productivity through worker satisfaction. However in discussing worker-motivated increased productivity, we must invariably concern ourselves with the other variables on which that added productivity depends, namely ability, training, and overall job satisfaction. For the interdependent aspects of motivation stemming from the mass of interacting internal and external factors are only a portion of the necessary inputs involved in effecting general increased productivity. Managers must realize that not only are they planning, organizing, directing, and controlling; but they are planning, organizing, directing, and controlling complex human beings who must be treated by management as management itself would like to be treated.

Towards A Merging of Individual, Group, and Societal Motivators

In concluding this brief note on motivation in the African organizational context, I would like to extend some extremely important thinking with respect to a different line of thinking where these motivational theories are concerned.

As shown earlier, any effective consideration of worker motivation must take a number of factors into consideration. They include: i) the physiological state of worker; ii) the psychological state of the worker; iii) his experience; and, iv) the socio-cultural environment of the worker. With regard to today's average African worker, however, we might add that it is also necessary to consider the economic setting within which the

the organization operates. My thinking revolves around the fact that the suprastructure of the economic mode of production necessarily carries with it a particular way of viewing individual and social relationships that is in line with the objectives of that mode of production. The dichotomy here is between individualist-based economies and collectivist-based economies and the concern revolves around whether or not these different modes of production have different implications for worker motivation. For both types of economies are found in Africa today. In one type of society economic activity — and therefore social activity — evolves primarily from privately owned economic units and individualist-based goals stemming from the so-called "freedom of choice" criteria. Whereas on the other hand we find the type of society that purports to base its economic and social activity on the premise: from each according to his ability; to each according to his needs.

Let us now consider how a true systems approach to motivation might appear in the latter setting. In such a society that views collective equality as its theoretic basis of development, we could conceive of a paradigm that holds that all worker activity leads towards goals which are similar throughout the society; or, if you will, one that views organizational goals as sub-objectives of the society, work group objectives as organizational sub-objectives, and finally individual objectives as sub-objectives of the work group — everything, as in the case of an organizational chart effectively directed and coordinated in "layers" from the top as a result of the collective goals of these sub-collectivities. In such societies all forces which initiate, direct, and sustain worker behaviour would be carefully planned and not left to evolve and develop haphazardly, thereby leaving many people unguided, misdirected, and forming values which actually undermine the common good. Such guidance would be conducive towards organizational and individual social responsibility in its truest sense and effectively provide for the general welfare through a mergence of the goals of society, the organization, the work group, and the individual worker. Under such a well-planned scheme, when goals are collectively based, motivation can also become collectively based and, indeed, innate in the accomplishment of a productive goal itself. Certain selfish behaviour would be ruled out in the same way that criminal activity is intolerable. The case where one African would be valued for his work at £15,000 while his brother receives no valuation whatsoever would neither be tolerated. Certain realistic individual limitations on such things as accumulation

of wealth and the illusory feelings of superiority that go with it would certainly result in an alleviation of the man-eat-man tendencies throughout much of Africa, thereby eliminating certain detrimental motivational goals of individuals which continue to demean the very purpose for which organizations are formed.

Conclusion

The conclusion of this work is simply that motivation must be viewed in accordance with its structural nature. Most organizational behaviourists, particularly those reviewed earlier, have fully ignored the economic and evolving social relationships between management and labour which indeed provide the entire structure under which any human relations approach would operate. Such non-consideration of this more fundamental relationship as part of any attempts at motivation seems to give more credence to the attack on the entire human relations doctrine as little more than an ideological weapon of the monopolies in their attempts to "more humanely" increase worker productivity. In developing Africa this most certainly has overwhelming implications.