Towards an eclectic framework of external factors influencing work motivation

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Abstract
In this conceptual article, both classic theories and recent research streams on work motivation are reviewed with the aim to identify external factors affecting the state of motivation, i.e. those factors that can be at least partly influenced by the management of an organization. Based on common themes emerging from various motivation theories, a framework including motivational factors on an individual level (challenge, autonomy, feedback, and rewards), on the level of the relationship between the individual and the group (contribution, fairness, support, and standing in the group), and on the level of the relationship between the group and society (contribution to society; fairness, support, and standing within society) is proposed, with the relative importance of those factors depending on an individual's expectations of them. The eclectic framework provides a basis for further comparative research on the relative impact of the various external influences on work motivation, and highlights the hitherto widely neglected influence of factors residing in the group-society relationship on the work motivation of group members.

Keywords: work motivation, employee motivation, motivation theories, job performance.

Introduction
Job performance, according to Maier (1955), is a product of motivation and ability, with opportunity added as a third factor by Blumberg and Pringle (1982). As this relationship was found to be multiplicative, work motivation – “internal factors that impel action and to external factors that can act as inducements to action” (Locke & Latham, 2004, p. 388) – is a key ingredient for creating high performance organizations.

To date, no generally accepted integrative model of work motivation has emerged, although some authors (for instance Klein, 1989; Leonard, Beauvais, & Scholl, 1999; Locke, 1997; Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004; Steel & König, 2006) have put forward their proposals. Such a theoretically inclusive and comprehensive model also remains illusory, due to the widely divergent approaches to motivation research. What is proposed here is more mundane. The aim is to provide an eclectic framework of external conditions that potentially influence the motivation of people at work, informed by the major classic and more recent theories in this field. Eclecticism is chosen rather than full conceptual integration for the reason that existing theoretical approaches to understanding external factors influencing work motivation are arguing on different levels of analysis, and are related to different dimensions of work, which makes them conceptually incompatible if one tries to combine them in a coherent metatheory. On the other hand, however, there lies potential value in making the multiple levels of analysis and the multi-dimensionality of work explicit: first, it provides us with a more holistic rather than reductionist picture of possible external influences of work motivation; second, it allows us to identify certain areas of motivational factors which are still under-researched; and third, it can serve as a starting point for comparative studies on the relative influence of external motivational factors, thus opening a potential new avenue for further research on work motivation.
Foundations of an Eclectic Framework of Work Motivation

Work for an employee can be defined in three dimensions: The first dimension, work task, provides an answer to the question ‘What kind of work needs to be done?’. The second dimension, work process, refers to the way in which work is carried out. Finally, there are work outcomes, everything that a person receives as a result of the output of his or her work, including both positive and negative consequences. These three dimensions of work are studied in work motivation research on the following levels: (1) on the level of the individual employee; (2) on the level of individual-group relationships; and (3) on the level of group-society relationships. Combining the three dimensions of work and the three levels of analysis results in a 3x3 framework which is presented in Figure 1.

![Figure 1: An eclectic framework of work motivation](image)

I reviewed the research on work motivation to identify theories that (a) explicitly or implicitly refer to external factors influencing the motivation of employees; and (b) include concepts that fall into one or several of the nine categories proposed in the framework. The review comprised the following classic theories: Maslow’s (1943) hierarchy of needs, Herzberg’s (1959) two factor theory, Adams’s (1963) equity theory, Vroom’s (1964) and Porter & Lawler’s (1968) expectancy theory, Alderfer’s (1972) ERG-framework, Hackman and Oldham’s (1976) core job characteristics, and goal-setting theory (e.g. Klein, Austin, & Cooper, 2008; Locke & Latham, 1990; 2002); as well as more recent streams of work motivation research: self-regulation theories (e.g. Karoly, 1993; Vohs & Baumeister, 2004), particularly control theory (e.g. Carver & Scheier, 1998) and social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986; 2002), self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000), resource allocation theory (e.g. Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989), action theory (e.g. Frese, Beimel, & Schoenborn, 2003; Frese, Stewart, & Hannover, 1987), organizational support theory (e.g. Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), commitment theory (e.g. Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004), organizational citizenship behavior theory (e.g. Organ, 1988; Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000), organizational justice theory (e.g. Folger, 1977; Lind, Kanfer, & Earley, 1990), the theory on challenge-stressors versus hindrance-stressors (e.g. Boswell, Olson-Buchanan, & LePine, 2004; LePine, LePine, & Jackson, 2004; LePine, Podsakoff, & LePine, 2005; Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007), social loafing theory (e.g. Kerr, 1983; Kerr & Bruun, 1983; Karau & Williams, 1993; Latané, Williams, & Harkins, 1979), and person-environment fit theories (e.g. Kristof, 1996; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005; Shaw & Gupta, 2004).

The theories and associated empirical studies were scanned for common concepts of external factors influencing on work motivation. If a concept was relevant in at least three different theories, it was incorporated into the respective category of the eclectic framework of work motivation. The resulting matrix (see Figure 1) provides an overview of the main external motivational factors which are discussed in detail in the following sections.
External Factors Influencing Work Motivation on the Level of the Individual

Challenge.

The first proposed factor with a potential influence on work motivation on the level of the individual is the extent to which a task is perceived as a challenge which keeps people interested and allows them to learn and grow. It is one of the central tenets of goal-setting theory that people’s performance is linked to setting specific and high goals (Locke & Latham, 1990). Setting challenging goals and performance standards that create pro-active discrepancy which people want to reduce through goal-oriented behaviour also lies at the basis of social cognitive theory (Bandura & Locke, 2003). Drach-Zahavy & Erez (2002) proposed a link between the degree to which a high goal is seen as a challenge rather than as a threat and higher levels of performance and adaptation to change. Challenging work also helps people to fully realize their potential, which is related to self-actualization, the highest-level need in Maslow’s (1943) hierarchy. Herzberg (1959) also saw challenges that lie in the work itself as a factor that can truly motivate people rather than merely prevent demotivation.

Amabile, Hill, Hennesey, and Tighe (1994) observed a significant correlation between challenge and intrinsic motivation. In an effort to more closely investigate the relationship between challenge and motivation, more recent studies emphasize the role of stress. Challenge stress, “conceptualized as stress associated with challenging job demands with actual or potential gain” (Boswell, Olson-Buchanan, & LePine, 2004, p. 177) as opposed to hindrance stress related to potential negative outcomes was found to be positively related to the motivation to learn, and subsequently also to learning performance (LePine, LePine, & Jackson, 2004). Similar positive effects of challenge stressors on motivation and organizational commitment could also be determined in the meta-analyses of LePine, Podsakoff, and LePine (2005) and Podsakoff, LePine, and LePine (2007). Ohly and Fritz (2010) found evidence for time pressure as one specific challenge-related stressor being associated with more pro-active behaviour at work. Overall, there is convincing evidence that the right level of challenge of a task is an important factor influencing work motivation.

Autonomy.

The second and third external influencing factors on motivation on the level of the individual, autonomy and feedback, are related to the work process. Autonomy, an individual’s discretion in deciding how to achieve a certain goal, was one of Hackman and Oldham’s (1976) core job characteristics, which they linked to achieving the critical psychological state of experienced responsibility for work outcomes. Spector (1986), on the other hand, attributed the positive effect of autonomy to employees’ perceived control. Latham (2007) emphasized that “the importance of designing jobs that allow autonomy for such outcomes as learning, performance, organizational citizenship behaviour, and satisfaction has been shown by a multitude of empirical studies” (p. 160).

Parker, Williams, and Turner (2006) determined a significant link between job autonomy and pro-active work behaviour as well as flexible role orientation (an individual’s perception of his or her role as being broader than just fulfilling their core task, i.e. including the ownership of goals and problems beyond their immediate job). According to self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000), autonomy is an innate psychological need of people, and is linked to stronger integration and internalization of work goals. Furthermore, research from the realm of action theory shows that autonomy in the form of discretion to influence working conditions and work strategies has significant positive effects on personal initiative at work (Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zempel, 1996).

Feedback.

Several theories argue that feedback, information that is provided to an individual about his or her job performance, can have an effect on work motivation. Feedback interventions which report on discrepancies towards the standard at task level and which contain cues that support learning (rather than non-task, person-oriented cues) were found to be likely to “yield impressive gains in performance” (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996, p. 278). Feedback comes in two forms: task feedback, which is directly observable from fulfilling a task, and social feedback, which refers to what others communicate about one’s performance (Leonard et al., 1999). Fried and Ferris (1987) observed that job feedback affected all three of the psychological states that Hackman and Oldham (1976) proposed in their job characteristics model, i.e. experienced meaningfulness of work, experienced responsibility for work outcomes, and knowledge of actual work outcomes. Moreover, action theory emphasizes the importance of feedback, especially non-threatening
task feedback, and its positive influence on motivation (Frese et al., 2003). A likewise positive effect of feedback on organizational citizenship behaviour was indicated by Podsakoff et al. (2000).

Goal-setting theory stresses the importance of feedback in helping to evaluate progress towards goals (Locke et al., 1981; Locke and Latham, 2002). Cellar, Degrendel, Sidle, and Lavine (1996) provided empirical support to illustrate that quantity goals combined with feedback can lead to higher performance. Vance and Colella (1990) proposed that the type of feedback also plays an important role: while positive feedback enhanced performance and induced people to set even higher goals, negative feedback led to setting lower (i.e. more realistic) personal goals. These findings were also confirmed by Ilies and Judge (2005).

Feedback is also a key concept in control theory and in social cognitive theory. While a negative feedback loop bringing attention and behaviour in line with set standards or goals is central to control theory (Carver & Scheier, 1998), social cognitive theory posits that a feed-forward loop also guides proactive control (Bandura & Locke, 2003). There are, however, differing theoretical conclusions about whether positive feedback (as argued by social cognitive theory) or negative feedback (as in control theory) provides more motivation (Latham, 2007). Van-Dijk and Kluger (2004) suggested that positive feedback increases motivation when people want to fulfill a desire, while negative feedback can increase motivation when they want to avoid failure.

Rewards.

Work outcomes for individuals (e.g. monetary and non-monetary rewards) are often used by managers to induce employees to show higher effort towards attaining organizational goals. This is in line with basic ideas of expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), in which perceived consequences of one’s performance and their value for the individual are essential elements of motivation. Similarly, in resource allocation theory, the perceived utility of performing a task is directly related to the allocation of cognitive resources to this task (Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989). In organizational support theory, rewards were also found to have a positive influence on perceived organizational support (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Considerable doubts about the importance of rewards for motivation were raised by Deci (1971), who claimed that extrinsic rewards can have a negative rather than a positive effect as they potentially undermine intrinsic motivation, an argument that was recently supported in an empirical study in the public sector by Oh and Lewis (2009). Herzberg (1959) also saw monetary rewards as a hygiene factor, only capable of preventing demotivation, but not directly contributing to motivation. Wright and Kacmar (1995) found that reward systems based on goal achievement can induce individuals to set lower goal levels for themselves. In addition, when people perceive it as impossible to reach a goal to which a bonus is attached, performance considerably decreases, as they know that they will not get a bonus anyway, regardless of their additional effort (Lee, Locke, & Phan, 1997). A more differentiated picture was revealed in a meta-analytical review of empirical research on the relationship between financial incentives and rewards. Jenkins, Mitra, Gupta, and Shaw (1998) determined a correlation of .34 between financial incentives and performance quantity, with no significant link to performance quality.
External Factors Influencing Work Motivation on the Level of the Relationship Between the Individual and the Group

According to Latham and Pinder (2005), work motivation is a psychological process “resulting from the interaction between the individual and the environment” (p. 486). One part of the environment in the form of the immediate group and organization a person is part of is taken into account in this section, which provides an overview of external factors influencing work motivation at the individual-group or individual-organization interface.

Contribution.

Task significance, the extent to which one’s work is important to others and contributes to the group or organizational performance, was one of Hackman and Oldham’s (1976) core job characteristics. It has been related to the perceived meaningfulness of one’s work, with a resulting consequence on work motivation (Parker & Wall, 1998). Studies by Fried and Ferris (1987) and by Humphrey, Nahrgang and Morgenson (2007), however, could not confirm this mediating effect between task significance and work motivation.

Grant (2008), on the other hand, argued that task significance can indeed have a considerable influence on work motivation, through the perception of how one’s job is related to the well-being of other people. He proposed that perceived social impact – the extent to which people feel that their actions contribute to the welfare of other people – can have a mediating effect on the relationship between task significance and job performance (Grant, 2007; Grant et al., 2007). In several experiments including different occupational groups, Grant (2008) found supporting evidence, suggesting that relational mechanisms play a crucial role in this relationship. In Grant’s words, the mechanism for explaining these effects are ‘other focused’ rather than ‘task focused’, with “cues about social impact and social worth” (p. 119) being particularly important in this process.

A socially-determined ‘contribution effect’ was also suggested by Kerr (1983) and Kerr and Bruun (1983). They tried to explain the phenomenon of social loafing – the tendency to reduce effort and motivation when working in a group (Latané et al., 1979) – with the perception of individuals that their inputs are not essential or dispensable for the group output. In a meta-analytic review, Karau and Williams (1993) confirmed that task valence can reduce social loafing. People need to feel that they contribute to a group and its purpose with their output, and that their work is needed and valued by others in the group.

Bishop and Scott (2000) observed that perceived task interdependence is positively related to commitment towards both a team and the organization. Commitment theory posits that commitment of employees towards an organization’s goals, whether due to emotional commitment or feelings of responsibility and obligation, is correlated with motivation (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Taken together, the arguments from job characteristics, social loafing, and commitment theory suggest that when people perceive how their work contributes (a) to a common goal, and (b) to the welfare of others in the group, this induces positive social effects and influences the commitment to their work group and organization, which in turn can lead to higher work motivation.

Fairness and support.

Two inter-personal factors were found to have an influence on motivation during the work process: fairness and social support. The importance of fair treatment in work situations was emphasized by equity theory (Adams, 1963) and more recently by theorists in the organizational justice tradition. Perceptions of distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice were found to have a strong effect on employee commitment and performance (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001; Inness, Barling, & Turner, 2005). The possibility of having a voice in decision-making processes, and fair and respectful treatment by superiors are major factors influencing fairness perceptions. Fair treatment has also been linked to perceived organizational support and its motivational effects (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

In addition to fair treatment, supervisor support during the process of work has been acknowledged as a main factor influencing employees’ state of motivation. Supervisor support (or supportive leader behaviour) can instill self-confidence, social satisfaction, and stress reduction for subordinates, thus increasing their effort and performance (House & Mitchell, 1974; House, 1996). In job characteristics research, Morgenson and Humphrey (2006) found that social support incrementally predicted satisfaction above other motivational work characteristics. This confirmed findings of Van Yperen and Hagedoorn (2003), who showed that social support can increase motivation levels regardless of job demands or the levels of control. Supervisor support further also plays a role in goal-setting theory (Latham, 2004), self-
determination theory (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989), organizational support theory (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), commitment theory (Meyer et al., 2004), and organizational citizenship behaviour theory (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Overall, there is strong cross-theory agreement that fair and supportive supervisor behaviour can considerably affect the state of motivation of subordinates.

Standing.

As an outcome of their work, people do not only value monetary or non-monetary rewards, but also have the need for a certain standing in their group, i.e. being respected by other group members both as a person and for their work. Already Maslow (1943) classified esteem – being respected or well-regarded – among the higher-level needs. Recognition was also identified as being one of the most important motivating factors by Herzberg (1959).

The need for being a respected member of one’s social reference groups relates to the basic needs of belongingness, relatedness, and acceptance. Baumeister and Leary (1995) argue that “[a]bundant evidence [...] attests that the need to belong shapes emotion and cognition” (p. 520). Motivation, which is in essence an affective and cognitive process, can thus be considerably influenced by the need for belonging to and being respected by a group. Self-determination theory proposes that work environments which support relatedness needs of people foster the integration and internalization of goals, leading to a stronger motivational impetus than pure external motivation through rewards or punishments (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In the ‘group value’ model of procedural justice (Lind & Tyler, 1988), the possibility to have a voice in a decision-making process is seen as an indication of respect for a person, and supports a positive perception of the procedure and its outcome. De Cremer (2002) argued that “[i]f people feel respected by the others in their group, this may satisfy their belongingness need and [...] will increase their motivation to reciprocate this positive relational information by acting more in favour of the group’s interest” (p. 1335). Employees who are more motivated to act in line with the group’s interest will also be more likely to contribute to a higher performance of the organization.
The Third Dimension: Turning to the Group-Society Relationship

Although there has been a lot of research on external motivational factors on the level of the individual and on the level of interaction between a person and other members of the group or organization, another dimension has been widely neglected by the extant literature on motivation: the potential influence of the relationship of the organization with other parts of society on the motivational state of the members of the organization. Franco, Bennett, and Kanfer (2002) suggested that there is a possibility that workers’ attitudes and values are influenced by the type of organization they work for. As Latham (2007) stated, “motivation is the result of the reciprocal interactions between people and their work environment and the fit between these interactions and the broader societal context.” (p. 162) The broader societal context, however, has not been in the focus of the major theories on work motivation.

Social identity theory (Tajfel, 1978; 1981) posits that people have both an individual identity and a social identity, the latter being the part of a person’s self-concept which is based on one’s membership, as well as cognitive and affective attachment to a social group. In their social identity, people’s behaviour is “shaped by, and oriented toward, the interests of the group as a whole” (Haslam, Powell, & Turner, 2000, p. 323), leading to an interpretation of the world consistent with the group’s or organization’s values and culture (p. 326). Chen and Gogus (2008) argued that “there is evidence that motivational states and processes at one level (individual or team) do in fact play influential roles in shaping performance at different levels (individual or team).” (p. 303) This is supported by the findings of Chen, Kanfer, DeShon, Mathieu and Kozolowski (2009), who observed that “team-level motivation can explain additional variance in individual performance over and above individual-level motivation” (p. 53) and by the recent work of Lewis (2011), who questioned whether existing theories of work motivation are sufficient to explain all motivation phenomena in working environments which increasingly rely on teams.

As in the group-oriented dimension, it is possible to classify potential influencing factors that stem from the relationship of the organization with society at large into task, process, and outcome categories. The potential influencing factors at the level of the group-society relationship are:

(a) **Contribution of the organization to society:** It has been found that an organization’s positive contribution to society can affect its attractiveness as an employer (Turban & Greening, 1997). People could be motivated by the feeling that what they contribute to also has a positive impact on other people outside of the organization.

(b) **Fair treatment and support of the organization (and the profession) at a societal level:** Robertson and Colquitt (2005) proposed that shared team justice (defined as the common perception of team members about how the team as a whole is treated) has an influence on team performance. Also Li and Cropanzano (2009) argued that what they call justice climate, the way in which teams are treated by outside agents, have an influence on the attitudes and behaviour of team members. This process could also be at work at other levels. If people feel their organization or their profession are unfairly treated (for example through constant negative media reports), or receive less societal support than other comparable institutions and professions, this could lead to demotivation.

(c) **Standing of an organization in society:** When an organization is highly recognized at the societal level, this could also influence its members’ feelings and attitudes. Haslam et al. (2000), for instance, found that reference to an organization’s high status induced employees to show more effort beyond their immediate task.

The potential influence of factors in the relationship between the organization and society on the motivation of members of an organization could hold promising opportunities for further research. For this purpose, I suggest the following three propositions:

**Proposition 1:** The perceived contribution of an organization to society can influence the work motivation of the members of the organization.

**Proposition 2:** The perception of fair treatment and support that an organization or the profession receives by other parts of society can influence the work motivation of the members of this organization or profession.

**Proposition 3:** The standing of an organization in society can influence the work motivation of the members of the organization.
The Relativity of External Factors Influencing Work Motivation

The impact of the external factors influencing work motivation should not be seen as absolute in the sense of ‘the more, the better’, but rather as relative to individual expectations. Barrick and Mount (1993), for example, observed that responsible and conscientious people as well as those who are extroverted perform better in jobs with a high degree of autonomy, while more soft-hearted and cooperative people tend to perform better in jobs without a high degree of discretion. Also Langfred and Moe (2004) argued that the effect of task autonomy on motivation is contingent on factors like an individual’s need for autonomy or need for achievement. Likewise, Van-Dijk and Kluger (2004) suggest that the effect of different types of feedback on motivation is influenced by the expectations that people hold – whether they want to achieve or prevent something. How much individuals value rewards can also depend on their expectations. If, for example, a person who expected a certain amount of monetary rewards gets a lower bonus than expected for the accomplishment of a particular task, chances are high that this incident will have a detrimental effect on the state of motivation of this employee.

A theoretical underpinning for the importance of the role of expectations about the external factors for work motivation could be provided by personal-environment fit theories (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Kristof (1996) posited that an individuals' characteristics, specifically personality, values, goals, and attitudes, determine whether a person-organization fit exists, which in turn can lead to positive attitudes towards the job, thereby also influencing job motivation. Specifically, the supplies-values fit approach points out the importance of the level of task characteristics available (supplies) versus the expected or desired level of these characteristics in a job (values) (Shaw & Gupta, 2004). Ton and Hansen (2001) found support for a relationship between values congruence and work motivation, mediated through work satisfaction. The results of Edwards and Harrison’s (1993) and Edwards’ (1996) studies indicate that strain increases both when supplies of job characteristics are considerably higher or lower than demands. While for challenge, autonomy, and feedback, it is possible that either too high or too low levels of supply compared to expectations can have a detrimental effect on motivation, for the other factors (rewards, contribution, fairness, support, and standing), only less than expected supply can have a negative effect. This leads to the following:

Proposition 4: The closer challenge, autonomy, and feedback levels are to the expectations of an individual regarding these factors, the higher will be their influence on the state of work motivation.

Proposition 5: The motivational effect of rewards, contribution, fairness, support, and standing will be contingent on whether these factors reach a certain minimum level that is expected of them by an individual.

The relative nature of external factors of work motivation is illustrated in the framework presented in Figure 1 as an arrow labeled with ‘expectations’ pointing towards the grid of motivational factors, thus indicating that these are only influencing the motivation of people working within organizations relative to the expectations they hold about the factors.
Discussion and Conclusion

Based on a review of classic and more recent research on work motivation, this paper proposes an eclectic framework of external factors influencing the state of work motivation. Its main contributions lie (a) in making explicit that theories on work motivation were arguing on different levels of analysis and in different dimensions of work; (b) in pointing out that one level of analysis, the influence of factors residing in group-society relationships on the motivation of group members, has been widely neglected in motivational research; and (c) in emphasizing the relative nature of external motivational factors and their dependence on an individual's expectations about them. It was not intended to propose a new, integrated theory of work motivation, but rather to offer a framework which can serve as the basis for further comparative research, which could add additional insight to our understanding of work motivation processes in the following ways: First, the relative importance of external motivational factors could be evaluated. Is there a stronger influence of social factors like fairness and support compared to task characteristics or rewards? How strong do task, work process, and work outcome variables contribute to the overall state of motivation? Second, the framework opens the possibility for comparative research across cultures, age groups, industries, or gender. Do differences in cultural dimensions have an effect on the relative importance of influencing factors? Are employees in public institutions more motivated by externally-oriented factors than workers in private enterprises? Are some factors more salient in certain stages of one’s career or life-cycle? Third, further research could concentrate on how these factors individually or in combination influence individual elements that constitute the state of motivation, such as intent, self-efficacy, and volition. Also a possible moderating role of internal influencing factors such as, for instance, personality traits could be investigated. In addition to forming the basis for comparative research, the framework could also serve as a common ground for researchers of different theoretical schools to discuss how their insights relate to others in the field.

Kanfer, Chen, and Pritchard (2008) noted that work motivation theories have “a tendency to sacrifice completeness for precision” (p. 7). While it is illusive to claim completeness in motivational research, the suggested eclectic framework is a step towards a more holistic picture of external factors influencing work motivation. It needs to emphasized, though, that the framework by no means claims to explain work motivation as a whole. Theories which focus more on internal psychological factors of work motivation, such as, for example, attribution theory (Weiner, 1985), trait theories (Barrick, Mount, & Judge, 2001), or emotional aspects of motivation (Côté & Hideg, 2011) have not been considered. Likewise, as the framework presented here focuses on the dimensions of work, non-work influences such as family, age, or career life stage (Kossek & Misra, 2008) are also not included. This leaves room for further efforts to create more integrative perspectives on work motivation.

The eclectic framework of external factors influencing work motivation presented here also has some important implications for practice: Managers still often use rewards and bonus systems as a primary tool for trying to motivate people to perform highly. The eclectic framework could raise their awareness that there are several other levers for improving the conditions under which people can work in a motivated way. It can further be used as a diagnostic tool to check whether one or more of the factors are not adequately taken care of according to the expectations of employees, or as a means to determine which interventions could be taken to influence working conditions that facilitate the development and retention of positive motivational states.
References


