

Management of Students' Motivation in the Context of Higher Education in India: An Indigenous Model

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Abstract

The application of Euro-American model of motivation to nonwestern situations has received setbacks during past decades. Attempts have been directed to develop culturally valid explanations of motivation. More recently an efficacious model of motivation has been formulated in terms of need saliency. As a contradistinction to hierarchy of needs, the construct of need saliency posits that different levels of priority are attached to different categories of needs in a given subset of human population. Accordingly some needs are regarded salient whereas other needs are considered non-salient. The model further posits that motivation is significantly and positively related to salient need satisfaction. In contrast, motivation is unrelated to non-salient need satisfaction. The present investigation provides an empirical test of this pan-cultural model. College students were individually administered a multipart study behavior questionnaire. They were asked to rank order sixteen study outcome factors. These include brand name of institution, gaining knowledge, cordial peer relationship, opportunity for higher studies, supportive learning environment, interesting course-work, sound administrative policy, multi-skilling, healthy interpersonal contact, collaborative learning, professionally competent teachers, well planned schedule, individual attention to students, freedom from social pressure, job prospect, and fair assessment. With identification of salient and non-salient needs, it was possible to measure salient need satisfaction, non-salient need satisfaction and total need satisfaction. Subsequently study motivation was measured in the form of semantic differential technique, questionnaire, and graphic designs. The examination of relationship between salient need satisfaction and motivation provided supportive evidence for the indigenous model. The implication is outlined.

Key words: need saliency, study motivation, indigenous model, study involvement, panculturalmodel, cross-cultural model

Literature Review

Literature shows that there has been a lot of research done on work motivation. Prior to empirical research, the concept of work alienation was offered in its philosophical and discursive tradition. Borrowing the term from Bible, theologians used it as an explanatory concept to denote a state of separation. An alienated individual was perceived as showing cool, aversive, hostile or unwelcome feelings towards the object of alienation. The negative affective states of dissatisfaction and hostility among workers were described as indicators of state of alienation from work.

In social contract theories, an alienated worker was one who surrendered personal rights, powers, liberty and control to the general will of the community or organization. Such an alienation of the worker was viewed as desirable because it was assumed that the long term gains would outweigh the personal loss. According to Hegel (1949), there are two types of alienation. First, there is the conscious experience of alienation as a state of separation. One experiences

this type of alienation when one ceases to identify with the institutions. This type of alienation or state of separation denotes a condition of change in a person's self-concept. The second type of alienation refers to the surrender or transfer of individual's rights. In contrast to the first type of alienation, surrendering is something deliberate. Marx (1963) provided an elaborate view of work alienation. Marx followed Hegel's philosophical treatment of the concept of alienation but articulated an empirical notion. He spoke of alienation of labor, rather than spiritual alienation. For Marx, man's essential characteristics are those of individuality, sociality and sensuousness. According to Marx, labor alienation represents a loss of individuality or separation of individuals from their labor. When men do not experience themselves as the acting agents in their grasp of the world, they feel separated from the object. Such a loss of individuality blocks the realization of the essential or universal nature of human beings. It is undesirable. Thus the absence of workers' autonomy and control at the workplace are the necessary and sufficient conditions of labor alienation. Clearly Marx considered labor

only as productive activity when it is meant to satisfy the intrinsic needs of workers. According to Marx, job behavior can either be instrumental activity that satisfies basic physical and selfish human needs, or it can be the final activity. In the former sense, job behavior is viewed as the means to an end (satisfaction of extrinsic needs), and in the latter sense, it is viewed as an end in itself. Marx thought of job behavior as an end in itself (indicating a sense of involvement).

Thus, Marx viewed alienation as a form of separation from work through the frustration of a worker's intrinsic needs. The emphasis on the satisfaction of the intrinsic needs of workers as a necessary condition of work involvement is an indication of Marx's humanistic and cultural background. Marx's influence persisted for quite some time in the empirical literature on the subject.

Drawing on the intellectual background provided by Marx, sociologists have sought to explain factors associated with work alienation. Weber's (1930) treatment of the concept of alienation is similar to that of Marx. Weber's exposure to the American way of life and his study of the protestant religion convinced him that the spirit of the protestant work ethics is the key to the realization of man's potentialities to the fullest extent. Seeman (1959) attempted to operationalize the concept of alienation in the light of existing social and technological conditions. Seeman identified five dimensions of alienation: powerlessness, meaninglessness, normlessness, isolation and self-estrangement. The most frequent usage involves "powerlessness". It is defined as the expectancy or probability held by the individuals that their own behavior cannot determine the occurrence of the outcomes or reinforcements they seek. It is distinctly a social-psychological view which deals with the individual's perception of lack of control over events. The other variant of alienation as meaninglessness is evolved in Mannheim's (1975) description of the increase of the decline of substantial rationality.

Based on Durkheim's concept of the breakdown of normative regulations, normlessness is defined as one in which there is a high expectancy such that socially unapproved behaviors are required to achieve given goals. The alienated in the isolation sense are those individuals who assign low reward value to goals or beliefs that are highly valued in a society. This type of alienation refers to the estrangement from society such as the detachment of the intellectual from popular cultural standard. The final variant, self-estrangement, denotes a mode of experience in which the persons experience themselves as alien. They become

estranged from themselves. It is suggested that a job encourages self-estrangement if it does not provide opportunity for expressing unique abilities, potentialities or personality of the worker. In motivational terms, such a state of alienation is experienced by people who have highly salient self-actualization needs (Maslow, 1954).

Most sociological approaches consider the presence of individual autonomy, control and power over the work environment as basic preconditions for removing the alienation state at work. Work alienation involves engaging in work activities not are not intrinsically rewarding in themselves. Work alienation in contemporary sociological literature is measured only by determining the presence or absence of intrinsic factors (autonomy, responsibility etc).

In contrast to the sociological approach, psychologists have attempted to analyze the problem of alienation from the point of view of job involvement at work rather than alienation at work. In trying to explain the nature of job involvement, they have attempted to operationalize job involvement, to identify its antecedents, to delineate its moderators and to specify its consequences. In general, job involvement refers to psychological identification with one's work or the degree to which the job situation is central to the person or his/her identity. The bulk of the psychological research on job involvement has gravitated towards the analysis of the causes of job involvement. This has resulted in the evolution of several theories of job involvement. One group of theories is directed towards identifying specific need that is significantly linked with job involvement.

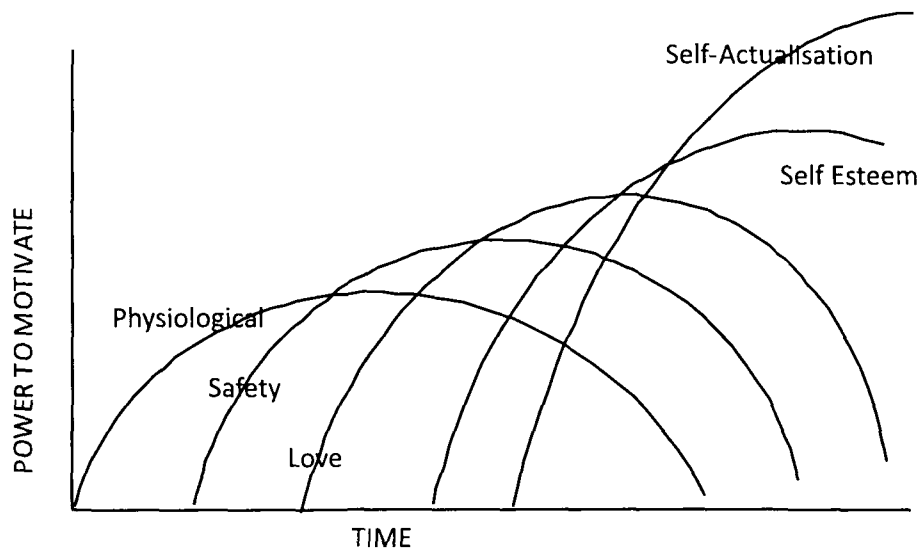
The Euro-American Model

McClelland's (1967) need achievement theory, Maslow's (1954) need hierarchy construct, Herzberg's (1966) two factor theory and Alderfer's (1970) existence-relatedness growth concept are notable frameworks in the family of content theories. In contrast, relationship theories do not emphasize specific needs but focus on the relationship aspect. B.F. Skinner's concept of reinforcement and Vroom's expectancy model provide clues in this direction. While several theories of job involvement have been proposed, Maslow's need hierarchy theory has a tremendous impact on the management approach to work motivation. The generality of Maslow's conceptualization is demonstrated in the work of Herzberg. Taken together, these two theories constitute the dominant force as Maslow-type of framework.

The psychological formulation of alienation has basically followed the humanistic tradition suggested by Maslow (1954). Maslow initially suggested a theory of personality which was later applied to organizational setting. One of the most popular theories on human motivation was formulated by Maslow. Drawing chiefly on his clinical experience he thought that a person's motivational needs can be arranged in a hierarchical manner. In essence, he believed that once a given level of need is satisfied, it no longer serves to motivate the individual. A need hierarchy of five levels by Maslow has gained wide attention. The five levels are physiological needs,

safety needs, love needs, self-esteem needs and self-actualization needs. The physiological needs involve basic survival. People must labor to satisfy their physiological needs, but when these needs are satisfied to a substantial degree they wish to satisfy the next higher need. The need level that next tends to dominate is safety and security. People want bodily safety, as well as economic security. Man is continually wanting; therefore, all needs are never fully satisfied. As soon as one need is satisfied, its potency diminishes, and another need emerges to replace it. This is a never ending process which serves to motivate individuals to strive to satisfy their needs.

Figure 1: Motivational Implications of Need Hierarchy



As shown by Figure 1, the lower-order needs (physiological, safety and love needs) reach their peak in terms of their potency and then start declining in their motivational strength. In contrast, higher order needs (self-esteem and self-actualization) reach their peak points and continue at that level. For example, employees may seek their respect and recognition (a self-esteem need) initially amongst their colleagues. Yet, gradually they shift their focus from colleagues to regional context, then to national and international contexts. Thus, self-esteem needs do not lose their potency and stand at a very high level. This is also the case with self-actualization needs. From the perspectives of organization, this proposition has an important implication. It is assumed that higher order needs are not completely satisfied. Hence, organizations that capitalize on these higher and intrinsic needs motivate their employees for a longer period of time. In other words, an organization is effective in motivating its employees to the extent it

creates conditions for the satisfaction of higher-order needs.

Herzberg (1966) draws the same conclusion while using slightly different language of work motivation. He observed that people have two different categories of needs that are essentially independent of each other and they affect behavior in different ways. Herzberg called the first category of need hygiene or maintenance factors and the second category of needs motivators. There is a similarity between Maslow and Herzberg's conceptualization. Maslow's lower-order needs are hygiene (maintenance) factors in Herzberg's terminology. Similarly, Maslow's higher order needs are similar to Herzberg's motivation factors. In general, Maslow-type framework emphasizes job content factors as interesting and challenging nature of tasks.

Taking Maslow's theory as the starting point, Alderfer (1972) has built up a theory which he claims has

realistic application to a work organization. According to him, Maslow's five levels of needs can be rearranged into three: "existence, relatedness and growth". This approach is termed as "ERG" theory. The existence needs include all forms of physiological and safety needs (Maslow's first two levels of needs). Relatedness needs include relationship with other people (social needs of Maslow's third level). Growth needs include self-esteem and self-actualization needs. According to Alderfer's ERG theory, different kinds of needs can operate simultaneously and if a particular path towards the satisfaction is blocked, the individual will persist along that path and at the same time regress towards more easily satisfied needs. In this way, he distinguishes between chronic needs which persist over time and the episodic needs which are situational and can be changed according to the environment.

However, there are limitations of these work motivation theories as Maslow-type conceptualizations were formulated and developed in Euro-American contents. There is cultural bias built into the system. In western societies, much premium is given to individuality and individual needs are considered more important than collective needs. This importance is reflected in the theories of Maslow and Herzberg where collective needs are considered less important than individual needs in terms of their motivating power. In view of these considerations, the application of Maslow-type explanations of work motivation appears inappropriate to non-western situations.

The Construct of Need Saliency

The construct of need saliency assumes that there is no fixed hierarchy of needs across several subsets of human population. At an empirical level, people attach greater priority to certain needs as compared to other needs. The saliency of needs in any individual is determined by his / her past socialization in a given culture and is constantly modified by present conditions. Moreover, motivation is determined by salient need satisfaction potential. Need saliency formulation posits the following two basic propositions:

- (i) Job involvement / motivation is significantly related to salient need satisfaction.
- (ii) Job involvement / motivation is unrelated to non-salient need satisfaction.

Individuals, for example, may be asked to indicate their priority ratings for a number of needs (let's say a list of 15 needs). Thus, needs rated first and second are

regarded salient needs whereas the needs rated fourteenth and fifteenth are considered non-salient needs.

In a study (Sahoo, 2000) 240 employees from administrative and financial organizations were assessed with respect to their work involvement. Half of the employees in each organization type were officers whereas other halves of employees were assistants. The examination of predicted pattern of relationship showed that work involvement was significantly related to the satisfaction of salient needs and it was unrelated to the satisfaction of non-salient needs. In addition, helplessness was also negatively related to work involvement.

In a study (Sahoo, & Rath, 2003) the need saliency formulation advanced by cross-cultural psychologists in the context of work and family involvement of working and non-working women was examined. Two hundred forty (120 working and 120 non-working) women were randomly sampled. Three tools were used to collect data. The participants were asked to identify their salient needs in the context of life, work and family. Interestingly, all the participants of the study considered interpersonal relationship as their salient need and needs like personal achievement and independent thought and action came up as non-salient needs. Subsequently the association between satisfaction of needs and involvement in the domains of work and family were measured and found to be positive. The correlation of involvement with both salient and non-salient need satisfaction supported the need saliency model, which revealed that involvement was significantly related to the satisfaction of salient needs and uncorrelated to the satisfaction of non-salient needs.

In another study (Sahoo, Nanda, & Sia, 1995) the relationship between employees' learned helplessness and their work involvement was examined. The study also tested need saliency formulation of work motivation. The employees were individually administered measure which had been validated transculturally and included scales of work involvement. The result indicated significant positive association between salient need satisfaction and work motivation, satisfaction of non salient needs was uncorrelated to work involvement.

Most of the literature on involvement and motivation is based on observations of western societies where the need for personal achievement, control, autonomy, achievement and power are considered most important for an individual. Western findings claim that intrinsic need satisfaction and protestant ethic

type of socialization training lead to greater involvement and motivation. These western models are inapplicable in non-western societies. They reflect a cultural bias. People belonging to different cultures differ with respect to the importance they attach to different needs. So they may develop a different need structure.

One of the most prominent facts that have emerged from the rapid development of education system is the importance of higher education. There are, dynamic factors underlying education and students motivation. The success of education system and higher education per se should focus more and more on the students as persons and on their motivation, which in turn depends on how well the higher educational resources are utilized. This acquires special significance in the context of Indian scenarios.

Indian Scenarios

Higher education in India has expanded rapidly over the past two decades. By 1980, there were 132 universities and 4738 colleges in the country enrolling around five per cent of the eligible age group in higher education. Today, while in terms of enrolment, India is the third largest higher education system in the world (after China and the USA) with 17973 institutions (348 Universities and 17625 colleges) and is the largest education system in the world in terms of number of institutions.

Although the modern education system in India is based on the Anglo-American tradition, there is a great variety of institutional systems in higher education. Government plays a dominant role not only in providing funds for education but also in the administration and control of these institutions. While much of the quantitative growth has been possible because of corporatization and privatization of education, higher education is monitored by several apex bodies such as All India Council for Technical Education (AICTE), National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NACC), and National Council for Teachers' Education (NCTE). These apex bodies are indirectly controlled by the Ministry of Human Resource Development.

A close look at the model of higher education adopted in India presents a complicated picture. Although India was a great center of learning in the past and unique institutions such as Nalanda allured even foreign scholars, the present-day Indian scenarios basically reflect dominating Euro-American model. The American higher education system became more influential after the early twentieth century with the stress on research as the main activity of universities.

Apart from that, the American system was the first to introduce massification of education which has been adopted in many countries around the world. Higher education institutions of today emphasize on mass higher education which results in increasing access to tertiary education.

The appropriateness of the growth trajectories of existing higher education system, dominated by Euro-American models, poses the challenges of how far the present models are justified in India. Western ideologies may have been tailored to suit local needs, but the extent to which the adaptation serves the emerging needs to strengthen the standing of India demands a rethinking. India is a plural country where subcultural differences exceed intercultural differences. In such a scenario, the evolution of a system that responds both to globalization and localization is of paramount importance. It is asserted that the application of need saliency model would be appropriate for fulfilling major objective of education in a plural country like India.

In view of such parameters of diversity in India, the present study is geared to examine the model of need saliency in the context of higher education. It is important to recognize that the model is not restricted to students. While the present investigation is directed to, examine the construct in students' population, the model can also be tested in future involving similar measurement formats and populations of teaching and nonteaching staffs of higher education.

Method of Study

An Overview of Design

The study involves a factorial 2 (education level: post-graduate vs. under-graduate) X 2 (sex) design where male and female students are crossed with two levels of education. The dependent variables include perceived importance of study outcome factors, need satisfaction, study involvement measured by semantic differential (SISD), study involvement measured by questionnaire (SIQ) and study involvement measured by graphic design (SIG). The analysis involves the examination of relationship between salient / non salient need (outcome) satisfaction and study involvement. Group difference is also examined with respect to each of dependent measures.

Sample

In the present investigation 160 students (80 post-graduate and 80 under-graduate) were randomly sampled from educational institutions of Odisha. Half of them in each category were males whereas the other

half was females. The age of the participants ranged from 16 to 24 years and their average age was 20.7 years (SD=3.5).

Measure

The measure is designated Study Behavior Questionnaire (SBQ). This was developed and validated by Sahoo (2007). The psychometric efficacy of the test was established prior to the present use. The internal consistency of different parts of SBQ in terms of Cronbach's alpha ranged from .73 to .82. The SBQ is a multipart questionnaire.

Perceived Importance of Study Outcomes: Part 1 of the SBQ presents 16 study outcomes. These include brand name of the institute, gaining knowledge, cordial peer relationship, opportunity for higher studies, supportive learning environment, interesting course-work, sound administrative policy, multi-skilling, healthy interpersonal contact, collaborative learning, professionally competent teachers, well-planned schedule, individual attention to students, freedom from social pressure, fair assessment, and job prospect. Students are asked to rank-order these study outcome factors. This part is helpful in identifying salient needs (rated first and second) of a student. It is also possible to identify non-salient needs (rated fifteenth and sixteenth) of a student. Furthermore it is possible to identify salient need and non-salient needs of a group (a subset of human population) by computing mean perceived importance rating for each of the outcome factors across all members of the group.

Need Satisfaction Measure: Part 2 of SIQ measures need satisfaction. Respondents are asked to indicate on a six-point scale their present level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with respect to each of the 16 outcome factors. In addition, respondents are asked to indicate their overall need satisfaction.

The sum of ratings across all 16 items indicates the total amount of satisfaction. It is also possible to compute salient need satisfaction score of a student by summing up satisfaction ratings across his or her two salient needs (rated first and second in Part 1). Similarly non-salient need satisfaction score can be computed by summing up ratings across non salient needs (rated fifteenth and sixteenth) of a respondent. Further, overall need satisfaction is shown by the respondent in terms of his or her response to the seventeenth item of this part.

Measure of Study Involvement by Semantic Differentials (SISD): Three different formats are used to measure study involvement. A thirteen item semantic differential, SISD, requires students to think

about their present study and evaluate it by using a seven-point scale. The measure uses a bipolar description such as involving-noninvolving, important-unimportant, fundamental-trivial, essential-nonessential, identified-nonidentified, attached-detached, integrated-nonintegrated, and united-disunited. The closer a student's rating is to the positive attribute, higher is the score. The total SISD score is computed by summing scores across scorable items. This part contains four filler items which are not scored. There are eight scorable items.

Study Involvement Questionnaire (SIQ): SIQ presents 15 items which directly reflect a cognitive state of psychological identification with study. This part also contains five filler items which are not scored.

This part contains ten SIQ items. These include, "the most important things that happen to me involve my study", "To me my study is only a part of who I am", "I am very much personally involved in my study", "I live, eat and breathe my study", "Most of my interests centre around my study", and a few other items. Respondents are asked to indicate their agreement / disagreement on a six-point scale. The items are keyed in both the directions. The response categories include from complete agreement to complete disagreement. Participants are asked to indicate their responses for each of the items. The SIQ score is obtained by summing up individual item scores.

Study Involvement Graphic Measure (SIG): In the SIG measure, there are two sets of pictures: the overlapping circles and the student study designs. Each set contains seven paired designs.

In each set the distance between the designs is systematically varied. The first pair represents the maximum gap between the designs, whereas the seventh pair represents the complete overlap. Students are asked to indicate the pair that best represents their relationship with the present study activity. The maximum closeness is scored '7' and minimum closeness is scored as '1' point. The respondent's score is computed by summing up the two scores across sets.

In addition to these measures, participants are asked to provide personal information such as age, sex, educational level and residence.

Procedure

Students were contacted at their respective institutions and rapport was established. All participants were individually administered the questionnaire. Each participant was debriefed after the study was completed.

Results

The use of Study Behavior Questionnaire (SBQ) provides a number of useful information with respect to various aspects of the study (see Appendix). As

shown in Part 1 of SBQ, respondents indicate their priority ratings for all 16 study outcome factors. This is helpful for identifying salient needs and non-salient needs for each group. Table 1 presents salient needs and non-salient needs for each group.

Table 1: Identification of Salient and Non-salient Needs

| Students | Salient Needs | Non-salient Needs |
|-------------------------------|--|--|
| Post-Graduate Males (n=40) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Job prospect • Opportunity for higher studies | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Freedom from social pressure • Cordial peer relationship |
| Post-Graduate Females (n=40) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Job prospect • Opportunity for higher studies | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Freedom from social pressure • Individual attention to students |
| Under-Graduate Males (n=40) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Opportunity for higher studies • Job prospect | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Well-planned schedule • Sound administration policy |
| Under-Graduate Females (n=40) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Opportunity for higher studies • Job prospect | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sound administration policy • Multi-skilling |

As shown in Table 1, all the groups (post-graduate males, post-graduate females, under-graduate males and under-graduate females) report job prospect and opportunity for higher studies as their salient needs. Although post-graduate students accord first position to job prospect and second position to opportunity for higher studies, under-graduate students interchange the positions. Yet both are salient needs in accordance with our operational definitions of salient needs. In the context of salient needs, there is convergence. All groups indicate job prospect and opportunity for higher studies as their salient need.

In the context of non-salient needs, there is divergence. All post-graduate students consider freedom from social pressure as a non-salient need whereas postgraduate males and females report cordial peer relationship and individual attention to students respectively as non-salient needs. Similarly all undergraduate students regard sound administrative policy as non-salient need whereas undergraduate males and females consider well-planned schedule and multi-skilling respectively as other non-salient need. However, divergence at the

level of perceiving non-salient need does not appear to be an unusual phenomenon.

The principle objective of the investigation involves the examination of salient need satisfaction and study involvement. Table 2 presents correlations between salient / non-salient need satisfaction and study involvement (Table 2). As hypothesized, salient need satisfaction and study involvement is significantly and positively correlated. In the group of postgraduate males, there is significant relationship between salient need satisfaction and study involvement, $r(38) = 0.41$, $p < 0.01$ (Table 2). Similarly salient need satisfaction is significantly related to SIQ and SIG, $r(38) = 0.32$ and 0.30 , $p < 0.05$. In contract, study involvement is unrelated to non-salient need satisfaction. With respect to each of the study involvement measures, correlations are found to be of near-zero magnitude signifying non-significant values. This is in congruence with our prediction.

Similar pattern is indicated with respect to each of other three groups (postgraduate females, undergraduate males, and undergraduate females).

Table 2: Correlations of Study Involvement with Salient and Non-salient Need Satisfaction

| Measures of Study Involvement | Samples | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------------------|------------------------------------|-------------------|--------------------------------------|-------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------|---------------------------------------|-------------------|----------------------|-------------------|
| | Post-graduate male students (n=40) | | Post-graduate female students (n=40) | | Under-graduate male students (n=40) | | Under-graduate female students (n=40) | | All students (N=160) | |
| | Salient needs | Non-salient needs | Salient needs | Non-salient needs | Salient needs | Non-salient needs | Salient needs | Non-salient needs | Salient needs | Non-salient needs |
| SISD | 0.41** | 0.05 | 0.31* | 0.09 | 0.36* | 0.11 | 0.37* | 0.08 | 0.22** | 0.09 |
| SIQ | 0.32* | 0.02 | 0.34* | 0.11 | 0.43** | 0.12 | 0.35* | 0.12 | 0.18* | 0.07 |
| SIG | 0.30* | -0.03 | 0.39** | 0.10 | 0.46** | 0.05 | 0.43** | 0.07 | 0.16* | 0.04 |

*p < 0.05

** p < 0.01

For instance, in the group of undergraduate females, study involvement bears a positive and significant relationship with salient need satisfaction as measured by graphic design (SIG), $r(38) = 0.43$, $p < 0.01$. On the other hand, correlations between study involvement and non-salient need satisfaction are found to be non-significant.

When the total pool of participants is considered, the hypothesized predictions do hold. Study involvement is significantly and positively related to salient need satisfaction and unrelated to non-salient need satisfaction. For example, the relationship between salient need satisfaction as measured by semantic difference and study involvement is highly significant, $r(178) = 0.22$, $p < 0.01$. In contrast, the association between SISD and non-salient need satisfaction is found to be non-significant.

In sum, the basic propositions are empirically tested and supported.

Discussion and Conclusion

The study is crucial both from theoretical and applied standpoints. Theoretically it makes a significant contribution to an important area of motivation literature. Maslow-type of framework stated in terms of need hierarchy suffers from two major limitations. First, its strong valorization indicating that lower-

order needs are somewhat inferior compared with higher-order needs is not consistent with present-day ethical neutrality of science. Second, most of the assumptions built in Maslow-type of framework are derived from individualistic societies of the West where individual needs are given more premiums (Hofstede, 1980). On the contrary, collectivist societies of Asia and Africa (including Indian society) attach priorities to communal needs. Thus, ethnocentric bias in Maslow-type of explanation is evident.

As a contradistinction to such an ethnocentric bias, the present conceptualization in terms of need saliency provides a pancultural model of motivation. It is equally applicable to both western and eastern societies. The model does not recognize hierarchy; rather it recognizes the differing need satisfaction potential of an outcome. Obviously, different outcomes have different need satisfaction potential; as a result, people in a given subset of human population attach different priorities to different outcome factors. The factors that have emerged salient factors may not emerge as such in other populations of students (e.g., American postgraduate and undergraduate students).

Implications

The indigenous model of study involvement suggests important clues for social technology. Generally

education administrators and teachers have their own notions of important motivators. Accordingly they try to manipulate those factors (e.g. gaining knowledge) with a view to enhancing students' motivation. Yet the strategy does not bring expected results.

The present model offers the suggestion that educational actors (administrators and teachers) ought to approach the setting with an open-mindedness. They have to explore and discover which of the study outcome factors are considered salient by students of a given population. This can be identified through interaction with students, observation of students and/or administration of test materials. Once salient needs (outcome factors) are identified, steps can be taken towards their satisfaction. Such satisfaction, it is asserted, would ensure students' study involvement.

Although Sahoo and his associates have examined and found the support for need saliency theory in the context of job involvement (Sahoo, 2000; Sahoo, Nanda & Sia, 1995; Sahoo & Rath, 2003; Sahoo, &

Das, 2011), the present investigation takes the need saliency construct a step forward by transplanting it in the domain of students' study involvement.

Looking Beyond

The support for the present model needs to be viewed from a broader perspective. While the model has been corroborated in the context of university students, the possibility exists for all categories of students. More importantly, the model posits similar pattern for teaching and nonteaching staffs. Of course, the test of this indigenous model involving teachers and support staffs in higher education is required prior to the application venture. With availability of this benchmarking measure of students study behavior, it is not difficult to formulate a list of job outcome factors for teachers and supporting staffs separately. Once formulated and tested, it would provide immense possibility to bring together three major groups of actors (students, teachers and support staff) to the platform of effective education.

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