

Motivation in Melbourne

The University of Melbourne / MGMT90164

DATE: 23/06/17

REVISION: D

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Summary

Through looking at the history of the psychology of motivation, evaluating the current state of knowledge on the matter and performing a set of interviews, this thesis looks at how motivation is sustained over time through the specific lens of event production in Melbourne, Australia. Following the first conceptions of motivation and to what we see it as today, motivation is an internal state that arouses, directs and maintains behavior towards one action and in disregard for other actions. In that sense, motivation helps prioritize possible actions. Research categorizes manifestations of motivation in two distinct realms; intrinsic (meaning within the person) and extrinsic (meaning controlled by external factors such as rewards). The 'best' form of motivation when it comes to the question of sustenance is undoubtedly intrinsic motivation. Being motivated to do an action based on an internal drive is less dependent on external reinforcement and so it would arguably be easier to sustain. Research shows that when extrinsic incentives are introduced for actions that there exist intrinsic motivation to do, the perceived locus of control can shift and the motivation can become bound in the extrinsic incentives (Deci, Koestner & Ryan, 1999). When we put this in an everyday and organizational context, it is easy to see how the locus of control over time—as more and more contingent, extrinsic incentives are introduced—becomes hard and stressful to sustain. This relationship has also been proven to carry weight in research. Event production within the culture, tourism and leisure sectors often originates in an intrinsic motivation to create experiences for specific audiences. Productions are staged to give the audience the most fulfilling experience and more often than not require large amounts of planning. This is generally true for events of all sizes but if we consider any production holding more than 50 attendees, with a programme to abide by and make the audience enjoy, and a production staff of more than one person, it is easy to see the near exponential increase in complexity. Increases in complexity require more staff and longer periods of planning and so it again becomes manageable, but for motivation this complexity creates contingencies; in order to reach the expected goal, more actions need to be done by third party actors, more actions are done for secondary and tertiary goals and more resources need to be managed in one way or another. The argument through this thesis is that extrinsic motivation in the form of contingencies, is likely to shift the locus of control and induce stress over time. This in turn causes motivation to be affected negatively in the inability to buffer the effect of stressors. To mitigate the effect of this, people deploy various tactics, and individual differences in resilience in self-efficacy, self-esteem, hope and optimism play an important role in how people react and cope. The select interviews in this thesis show that there is a clear understanding of this interplay between the passion for a certain cause and the contingent nature of oftentimes temporary productions such as events and festivals.

1.1 Outline

The thesis will first focus on laying out the historical conceptions of motivation and, from its origin, present some of the many different conceptions and theories that has been presented to explain both macro and micro aspects of motivation. It will then move towards the specifics of the current theoretical understanding and how this relates to organizational settings before moving in to the events industry. Lastly, the thesis will discuss the interviews conducted, the findings from these and discuss how the theoretical understanding aligns with the views of the interview objects through a conclusion.

1.2 Background

In a professional context, it is essential to the progress of any project for progress that its members and leaders stay motivated towards the stated goal. And while motivation towards any initial goal can be relatively easy to bring a team or an organization around, internal and external factors may eventually act upon not only the project but also the individual members, and levels of motivation will be affected accordingly. Some factors can improve the motivation while others stand to decrease and deteriorate it. Some factors are internal to the person, such as a specific personal goal, and some are external such as a monetary reward.

The aim of this thesis is to look specifically at motivation and the sustenance of motivation within the realm of festival and cultural event production. The thesis explores theories of motivation first from an intrapersonal perspective before moving towards a broader interpersonal, organizational and collaborative perspective with shared goals and multiple actors. Within this, the thesis will look at the alignment of personal goals and goals of collectives such as teams—and how this alignment, or lack of, affects the ability to sustain personal motivation over longer periods of time. For case context the thesis will look at the cultural festival and event scene of Melbourne, Australia and draw upon four interviews with current and past directors and managers.

1.3 My experience

I have been drawn to this thesis topic through my own experience of the cultural and music events scene. My personal experience with event and festival production started with volunteering for a music festival in Norway in 2010. Over the years following I had the opportunity to be a part of the production of several smaller and larger, mainly music, festivals and events as ground staff, as a team leader doing infrastructure related work as well as stage lighting and management. I hold a bachelor in Experience & Event Design which also involved multiple live productions. In being part of these productions—some more successful than others, I got the opportunity to reflect on how they worked, where the inevitable flaws or areas of improvement were and how people collaborated across both lateral and vertical areas of responsibility (Eikaas, 2014).

A main motivation for this reflection was the intention of one day producing something on my own. I became particularly interested in how a lot of the day-to-day success seemed to come from people contributing beyond their scope and in how set plans saw setbacks, complications and interpersonal and departmental conflicts, but still came out in the end (Ibid., 2015, 2016). While the former can be explained by a good culture and complementary areas of expertise, I considered the latter to be the result of—just the same—but also an aspect resilience that to me was best explained as a motivational drive to push through when everything was mounting against. I have reflected on parts of this in multiple previous essays, but had yet to get a thorough understanding of how motivation is understood from a theoretical standpoint and how this is translated into the practical understanding.

1.4 Definitions & Delimitations

For events this thesis follows Getz (2012) in that “events [is an occurrence at a given place and time, and] by definition have a beginning and an end” (Getz, 2012, p. 37). Events are temporal phenomena, usually confined to specific spaces of varying size. This thesis is concerned with planned, social events with a non-specific audience in the sense that the actual audience is not known at the time of conception and mostly up until, and under execution. This thesis will specifically focus on cultural events and festivals, specifically those that attract people for leisure. This includes music and all forms of arts festivals. While within the same scope in terms of size, this thesis will however not consider what can be classified as conferences. This delimitation is done for three reasons. Conferences often concern specific business related interests, their financial success is less bound in the actual attendance of audience, and they are less dependent on volunteer efforts.

While this thesis also covers its origins and historical understandings, motivation is defined within the larger parts of this thesis as the drive that enables individuals to prioritize one action over another in order to, in the future reach an ‘envisioned’ goal primarily under volition. This thesis will focus on the relationship between internal goals and shared goals, and where motivation for these goals reside. As such, investigating the sustenance will also focus on this specific relationship and so also more on lateral rather than vertical constraints to motivation. Goal in itself is used in the sense of a future state that requires effort in order to make reality. Shared goals are then goals where the effort of more than one person is required and expected. Both individual goals and shared goals can have long horizons and be split down to both implicit and explicit subgoals or tasks. In this sense, some goals are proxies for larger goals.

1.5 Method

The interviews that was conducted are of a qualitative character and followed a semi-structured interview style where the interviews were done on a one-on-one basis within a space where the interview object was at home. The interviews ran at about 45 minutes each and while I did have a list of questions compiled to ask the participants, these were used as a guide and I encouraged free flowing conversation. The interviews conducted were as follows:

Participant 1: Emma Sekules, External Relations, University of Melbourne

Emma Sekules is a Stewardship & Special Events Officer with the External Relations at the University of Melbourne. The interview with Emma Sekules was conducted in a meeting room at her office on May 25th, 2017.

Participant 2: Tamsin Courtney, External Relations, University of Melbourne

Tamsin Courtney is the Manager, Engagement with the External Relations at the University of Melbourne. The interview with Tamsin Courtney was conducted in her office on May 26th, 2017.

Participant 3, Lauren Valmadre, Human Rights Arts and Film Festival (HRAFF)

Lauren Valmadre is the current Programme Director of the HRAFF and was at the time of the interview (that was conducted per phone) in the middle of a touring production. The interview with Lauren Valmadre was conducted on June 1st, 2017.

Participant 4

Participant 4, who opted to remain anonymous, has a broad experience with the production of large festivals and drew on the entirety of this experience throughout the interview. The interview with Participant 4 was conducted in his current office on June 2nd, 2017.

2 Literature Review

From Gollwitzer & Oettingen (2015), Cofer (1981) and Heckhausen (2008) we can readily map out the first understandings of human motivation in the sense that we use today. Cofer (1981) starts by pointing to the British philosopher Thomas Hobbes' Leviathan in the seventeenth century where he proposed that people choose what brings pleasure and avoid what will give pain. Hobbes (1651) rooted the mechanism for deciding approach or avoidance in what he called "endeavors" where earlier relevant experiences that had been pleasant augmented "vital motions" that led to approach. And the converse applies for experiences that were unpleasant (Cofer, 1981). This in effect meant that our bodies could learn behaviour but that controlling how these internal

and external forces acted upon our organism was out of our control (Gollwitzer & Oettingen, 2015). It also only dealt with mental events and did not take into consideration in what regard people are impelled or driven towards the one or the other (Cofer, 1981).

From a biological standpoint Heckhausen (2008) credits Darwin (1859) for the first ideas of motivation. Darwin's theory of evolution posited that all life on earth has a single history and that species have progressed and evolved by natural selection whereby stronger traits have a better chance of survival—thus creating different breeds and species through the slow process of evolution. Darwin sought to explain how species have evolved through proposing the concept of natural selection and sexual selection. But this never looked to why species, including humans were driven towards mating or any other goal, both excluding and including under volition. Freud (1915, 1927) attested that all human action was energized by two broad classes of unconscious instincts: sex and aggression (Cofer, 1981; Heckhausen, 2008). Locke & Latham (1990) argue that there is no evidence for humans inhibiting these instincts in any innate biological drive—in absence of any environmental factors. Heckhausen (2008) on the other hand argue for some of Freud's contributions towards a theory of drive in that he highlighted the many ways drive impulses become manifest—which later influenced research on assessment of motives. Freud's view on mental life as largely a process of dynamic conflict highlights the extremes and the broader contentions, but it neglects most of the minutia that lies in-between. Freud also suggested that contrary to internal stimuli and the mental life, external stimuli could be eliminated by reflexively moving away from it (Cofer, 1981).

In the mid twentieth century Hull (1943) provided further conceptions of an answer to why we choose to engage in one activity over another. Hull's drive theory made a clear distinction between drives and habits. Hull argued that drive is a general state of activation while habits, in contrast are learned behavior and are cemented by the operation of reinforcement—or a reward (Evans, 1975). Hull's drive concerns the force that pushes behaviour into action—just in the same way as Freud's (1915, 1927) motives. For Hull, all drive was traceable to primary tissue needs such as the need for food and water, air, temperature, getting rid of waste products and for rest and sleep. As such, the stimuli for embarking in performing an action ultimately lay in primary needs. In performing an action, the actor would learn behavior, thus over time forming habits (Evans, 1975). The reinforcement in Hull's sense was that drive was reduced, for example that thirst was diminished.

Cofer (1981) argues that drive theory, which highlighted the difference between the motivation to 'consume' a reward (consummatory behaviour) and the motivation to prepare towards a reward (preparatory behaviour), did not carry with it a theory of the nature of drive—beyond what Evans (1975) consider drive to fulfill primary needs. Thus, Hull's drive theory—though its framework did contain long influential aspects—does in Cofer's eyes come short in explaining

the broader human motivation towards arbitrary tasks; tasks that carry no effect in fulfilling any primary physiological or psychological need (Ibid.). Expectancy-value theories, where people are considered to be driven by the pursuit of an expected future state in which they have achieved their goal, was the next dominant theory. In its essence, expectancy value theory as described by Atkinson (1957) implies that humans have all the knowledge and all the final say of their own actions and that humans are able to weigh goals to pursuit in a rational manner (Gollwitzer & Oettingen, 2015). Vroom (1964), which Kanfer & Chen (2016) attains as the most influential motivation theory of the 20th century, set out to illustrate how individuals alters behaviour according to what he or she expects to achieve. Vroom proposed that a high level of performance would be achieved when employees could see a clear link between putting in effort and getting a desired outcome (Smith, Yellowley & Farmer, 2012). From Atkinson (1957), people were to be in possession of comprehensive knowledge about the probability of reaching a goal based on assumed ability, perceived difficulty and weighed against the goal's expected value (Gollwitzer & Oettingen, 2015, Wigfield & Eccles, 2000). As we know from research on human judgement and decision making people often operate on other than rational grounds and are affected by involuntary cognitive biases, and expectancy-value theory therefore comes short in explaining irrational behavior and overstates the level of rationality humans possess (Tversky & Kahneman, 1974; Kahneman, Lovallo, & Sibony, 2011).

Building on expectancy-value theories, attribution theory as devised by Heider (1958) proposed that the motivational determinants of a person's behavior lies in the outcome of prior actions. It saw people systematically exploring the causal effects of prior behavior and that the relationships observed are expected to guide future actions and proposed two types of attributions; external or situational attribution and internal attribution. The theory sought to explain the individually perceived relationships between past actions and the resulting successes and failures and how these were used to guide current or future motivation and expectations (Miles, 2012). Both Gollwitzer & Oettingen (2015) and Kanfer & Chen (2016) argue that, when choosing goals, people try to live up to the ideal of being all-knowing, all-just and process information objectively. Gollwitzer & Oettingen (2015) further argue that as the issue is of the implementation of a goal, people become partial as the desirability and feasibility of the desired outcome is seen in the most positive light and does therefore consider slightly more of the irrational aspect of human decision making.

2.1 Goal Setting Theory

Locke's Goal Setting Theory (GST), building on the fall of behaviorist theories such as attribution theory, started by focusing on the causal efficacy of consciousness (Locke, 1968; Locke & Latham, 1990). Behaviorists, arguing that behavior was controlled by past reinforcements, never explained the nature of the link between the past and the future (Ibid.). Locke & Latham argue that in contrast to other species, humans have "a capacity to go beyond sensory material. They possess

the capacity for reason” (Locke & Latham, 1990, p. 4). Humans have the capacity to imagine; to see things that aren’t; things that might be in the future; things that might be in the past; and things that may never be. Locke & Latham goes on to argue for how unique this is to the human species and they argue “that purposeful action is action that is quintessentially human” (Locke & Latham, 1990, p. 4). As such, goal setting theory assume that human action is directed by conscious goals and intentions, but does not assume humans are all rational, nor does it assume that every aspect of a consciously intended action is consciously intended (Ibid.). In Locke’s first step towards the GST, namely in his 1968 *Toward a Theory of Task Motivation and Incentives* Locke argue for the illustrative example of a tennis player returning an opponent’s shot in tennis, being decisive on where he wants it to land, but relying on unconscious action for the footwork, the swing and grip (Locke, 1968). The GST studied the relationship between volitional goal setting and task performance and showed that there is a linear relationship between goal difficulty and performance—and that specificity plays a large role for the way in which goals affect performance (Locke & Latham, 2013).

2.2 Self-Determination Theory

The most recent research on human motivation further makes use of the concept of goals where one line of goal research focus on the factors determining and the process of goal setting and the other line of research focus on goal implementation (Gollwitzer & Oettingen, 2015; Kanfer & Chen, 2016). Since the 2000s a lot of the focus of research on motivation has been on self-determination theory (SDT). Developed by Deci & Ryan (1985), it examines to which extent a person’s behavior is self-motivated or self-determined and after its first conception has been expanded to include research on motivation within work organizations and other domains (Deci, Olafsen & Ryan, 2017; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Resembling a binary version of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, it argues that if people’s basic needs have been satisfied, they tend to perform better and have better well-being and health compared to when basic needs aren’t met (Miles, 2012; Heckhausen, 2008). The three basic psychological needs that the SDT proposes needs to be met are autonomy, competence and relatedness. From Ryan & Deci (2000) themselves “[it] is an approach to human motivation and personality that uses traditional empirical methods while employing an organismic meta theory that highlights the importance of humans’ evolved inner resources for personality development and behavioral self-regulation” (Kanfer & Chen, 2016; Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 68; Gagné & Deci, 2014). In other words, it argues that humans have evolved an ability to set future personal goals and deterministically focus on inducing progress towards the goal and under facilitation of three basic psychological needs. SDT considers intrinsic motivation an inherent, evolved propensity that enables learning, adaption and growth in competences—as is a fundamental character of human development (Deci, 1985). This contrasts Locke & Latham’s GST in that it focuses on the duality of motives for goals. The SDT also makes a distinction on the nature of motivation in humans. It proposes that people invest in activities

at varied degrees, and also that they do so for various reasons—namely both a quantifiable aspect and a qualitative aspect. For the latter, it proposes three categories of motivation; autonomous motivation, controlled motivation and amotivation. Autonomous motivation is mainly volition, controlled motivation refers to pressure and amotivation to a relative lack of both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Fernet & Austin, 2014). From Deci, Olafsen and Ryan (2017) autonomous motivation constitutes motivation that is largely intrinsic, but where extrinsic incentives largely aligns with intrinsic motivation—thus when people identify with the value and importance of the work being done, they will show enhanced motivation towards the task. Controlled motivation is conversely motivation that is largely extrinsic but where intrinsic motivation is introjected. In a study involving more than 500 employees of a college, Fernet et. al (2012) found that of these, autonomous motivation lead to less burnout. It is worth pointing out that the GST and the SDT are not mutually exclusive. Whereas the GST focus on goal setting in terms of its relationship with task performance, the SDT focus on the origin or primary driver of volitional motivation towards any task.

The history of the concept of motivation discussed over the last few sections paint the picture of a concept that has gradually moved from a simplistic understanding of a drive to satisfy basic needs that we see both in ourselves and other animals and to understanding the aspect and consequences of volition. To some extent, if we consider other changes over the same period e.g the importance of a higher belief and religion, the earlier understandings are reasonable. With Darwin (1859) came the acknowledgement and enlightenment that we are just animals and operate in some of the similar ways as them. Ideas such as Nietzsche (1888) highlight the inherent power of humans and allow for an understanding were we ourselves are in control from a philosophical perspective. As we have come to recognise and accept volition, its origin also grew in importance and we can under the SDT see the culmination of our volitional capabilities in regards to the intrinsic or extrinsic forces that push or pull against it.

If we are to further investigate the relationship between an intrinsic motivation and extrinsic incentives in organizational contexts we first need a better understanding of the relationship between these two different types of motivation. Heckhausen & Heckhausen (2008) simplifies by classifying it as pertaining either to the person or the situation and argue that to be able to explicitly distinguish which one is the crucial factor is futile. They provide four reasons, but the first is compelling enough; they cannot be mutually exclusive as a person will always operate in a situation and a situation will always be contextualized for a particular person. Heckhausen & Heckhausen further define the two types of incentives as, for intrinsic, meaning that they reside in the activity itself or its outcome and extrinsic meaning that they derive from the consequences of actions and their outcomes. Deci (1975) separate them by saying “intrinsically motivated activities are ones for which there is no apparent reward except the activity itself.” Deci further argue that such a simplistic definition needs to be supplemented by an definition for the psychological basis

of intrinsic motivation itself. For this Deci argue that “intrinsically motivated activities are related to internally rewarding consequences which are located in the central nervous system and have no appreciable effect on non-nervous-system tissues” and that extrinsically motivated activities do. Thus people can spend large amounts of time on e.g. hobbies such as puzzles or painting, for which there is no external reward. On the point of futility, Deci argue that one cannot prove the concept of free will scientifically, and thus it becomes hard to explicitly say to what extent an action was done completely under ones own volition (Ibid.). The same argument can be found within Tversky & Kahneman (1974) and their later works in the sense that it is improbable to act without some sense of bias. From what research within this field show, human decision making is highly susceptible to errors under a number of various factors such as misinformation, flawed heuristics and judgement on correlation and causation. As such, it goes beyond being the question of objectivity and subjectivity because some of these factors are beyond our cognition. As we have seen, in terms of theories of motivation, it is not before the attribution theory and then in the GST and SDT that humans are truly not considered all rational and not as error prone as research on judgement and decision making have shown.

2.3 Cognitive-Evaluation Theory

As part of the SDT, Deci & Ryan (1985) argue for six sub theories; the Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET), Organismic Integration Theory (OIT), Causality Orientations Theory (COT), Basic Psychological Needs Theory (BPNT), Goal Contents Theory (GCT) and Relationships Motivation Theory (RMT). For the SDT, it is within CET that Deci (1985) argue for the inherent propensity of intrinsic motivation—and further that intrinsic motivation is not nearly as ubiquitous as it might seem. It is also the only one we will focus on in this thesis. The CET state on the basis of multiple studies that extrinsic motivational factors can undermine intrinsic motivation and that the reason for this is a differentiation between a focus on control and causality. Intrinsic motivation follow an internal locus of control and when, through undermining extrinsic factors, the locus becomes extrinsic and the motivational driver is shifted into catering to extrinsic causalities. E.g. if money is introduced as a reward for something that there is intrinsic motivation for, the action can end up being done on the motivation of the external reward rather than the intrinsic rationale to do so (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Deci, 1985; Deci & Ryan, 1985). A further confirmation of the effect of extrinsic incentives crowding out intrinsic motivation can be found in Deci, Koestner & Ryan’s (1999) meta-study of laboratory experiments—and field studies show the same picture (Frey & Osterloh, 2011). Deci & Ryan (1985) explicate three distinct extrinsic rewards, and another five constraints. In simple terms the rewards put forth are monetary, awards and avoidance of punishment. Of constraints Deci & Ryan argue that surveillance, deadlines, evaluation, goal imposition and competition, amongst others, can shift the perceived locus of control. On the issue of competition the CET argue in a way that can easily be brought to other contexts. It is possible to consider competition, e.g. in the context of sports, as an intrinsic factor of motivation in that

one does not have to compete in order to play, but people seem to want to, in order to have a winner and a loser. Within this Deci & Ryan argue that the minute the focus is on winning, it is typically an extrinsic goal and thus one is doing it for an extrinsic reason. They argue that the experience of pressure to win relates to self-esteem and that people need to win in order to feel good about themselves—and thus it is this that enables the concept of competition to undermine intrinsic motivation.

Looking back at the theories laid out for motivation, none explicitly tackle how internal goals for the short or long term are affected by extrinsic factors of real or purported motivation that contradict the internal goals and intrinsic motivation towards those goals. Everyone may not be cynical and explicitly prioritize own goals ahead of that of a collective, but some might and we can here see the value of aligning extrinsic incentives with what people really want for themselves. Whether we factor in cynicism or not, it does necessarily affect motivation and which brings up the question of how motivational such extrinsic factors are if they are not able to motivate the individual at hand. In this regard, extrinsic incentives must necessarily be considered secondary to intrinsic goals. Bandura (1991) talks to the same point in his Social Cognitive Theory of Self-Regulation by arguing for humans' self-reactive and self-reflective capabilities and how this in context of adopted personal standards is a strong force in guiding motivation. This in effect means that extrinsic incentives are passed through a mediator of self-reactivity in regards to personal standards, and is thus parsed intrinsically through what Bandura (1991) labels self-monitoring. If an extrinsic incentive is inconsistent with personal goals, set in context of personal standards, it will necessarily hurt chances of goal attainment, as is apparent from SDT and the way in which extrinsic incentives crowd out intrinsic motivation and the aspect of autonomous motivation versus controlled motivation.

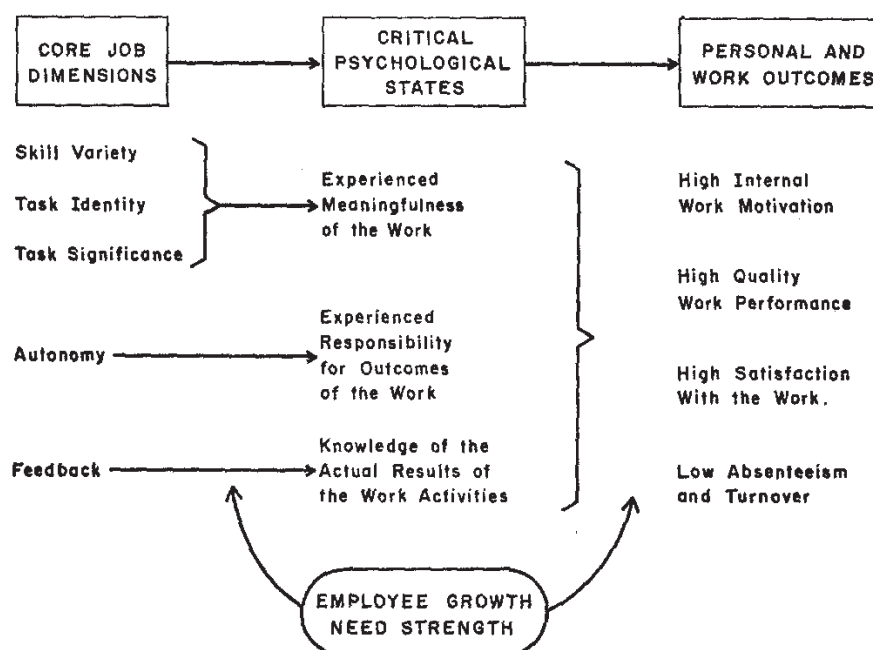
Duckworth et. al (2007) tackle the issue of 'grit' and defines it as the "perseverance and passion for long term goals" (Duckworth et. al, 2007, p. 1087). Duckworth et. al, in testing to what extent grit can predict success in the form of intellectual achievement, argue that grit involves "working strenuously toward challenges, maintaining effort and interest over years despite failure, adversity and plateaus in progress" (Ibid. pp. 1087-1088). In regards to this thesis, the aspect of grit aligns well with the understanding of the sustenance of motivation from on an individual level; grit is the ability to overcome setbacks. Duckworth et. al's studies found that—albeit self-reported—accomplished individuals could partially be explained by the ability to overcome setbacks and persist through, and that it was more predictive of success than IQ (Duckworth et. al, 2007).

3 Motivation Within Work

In a workplace context, we have in the same timespan shifted our understanding of how people work. From classical management theories the average blue collar workers were treated with the same level of introspective capabilities as that of Hobbes (1651) and the sole responsibility of efficient and qualitative production lie with the management. Taylor (1911) and the scientific management proposed further limitations on the capacity and motivations of these blue collar workers by stripping their tasks and influence down to replaceable components of machines with no need for, nor interest in motivation beyond the paycheck on the other side of effort (Monin, 2004; Pugh & Hickson, 2007). All tasks were recorded and a time was appropriated for all the steps in the tasks, as such management knew how long a task should take if it was done as efficiently as possible. Taylor framed it in a sense that can be read as doing the blue collar workers a favor and while the idea in its extreme sounds inhumane it can still be found i.e. in the fast food industry (Ibid.; Spender & Kijne, 1996). Thompson & McHugh (2002) argue that “Taylorism had little to say about the employment relationship: ‘those structural conditions which surround the appointment, promotion and dismissal of individuals’” and that it left management with the sole responsibility of making the workforce productive (Thompson & McHugh, 2002, p. 35). Weber, in highlighting the vast scope and consequences of bureaucracy argued for a counterbalance to the institutionalization and impersonality of public workers, but by effect also that of private workers (Thompson & McHugh, 2002). Thompson & McHugh (2002) argue that Weber saw bureaucracy as being a step forward for the security of the firm in regards to the market and for the formalization. Both Taylor and Weber constitute rational views of control, and as a consequence neglects the dynamism required for autonomy and the discretion of employees (Ibid.; Pugh & Hickson, 2007). More recent developments from writers such as Drucker (1954), Herzberg (1966), Hofstede (2001) and McGregor capture the concept of involvement, of personal goals and the importance of both job design, culture, the need for worker autonomy and for the instrumental role of people within the informal organization (Pugh & Hickson, 2007; Cohen, 2014; Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman, 1959). McGregor, highly influenced by Taylor’s work, found that the supervisors with the best record were those who engaged with employees on an individual level, got to know them and allowed maximum participation in decision making—which run contrary to a strict understanding of Weber (Thompson & McHugh, 2002; Pugh & Hickson, 2007). Herzberg, after conducting a survey of 200 engineers and accountants, identified five factors that lead to satisfaction in employees; achievement, recognition, supervision, salary, interpersonal relations and working conditions (Pugh & Hickson, 2007). And we see this align well with the aforementioned developments within motivational psychology with goal setting and SDT. With these developments, there has been a higher focus on personal fulfillment and the idea of collaboration—in which members of a larger structure come together and collectively strive towards a shared goal—ranks high in sought after skills by companies (Adams, 2014; Dishman, 2016; Cross, Rebele & Grant, 2016)

3.1 Teams & Interpersonal Work

The most common and formalized form of organizational collaboration is teams and there is a large body of knowledge on their composition, diversity, size and other factors that might affect their efficiency. Kanfer & Chen (2016) argue that there is evidence to say that teams performing collective tasks can improve efficiency by being assigned or sharing difficult and specific group goals. Research also suggests that team coordination and norm formation can be influenced by members regulatory focus and epistemic motivation (Kanfer & Chen, 2016). In the original formulation of the SDT, Deci (1985) has a number of thoughts on its implication in a workplace context. First of all, it goes back to the constraints provided earlier and expands on the notion of surveillance as well as the need for autonomy. As it is in an organization's best interest to be profitable, and for it to be profitable it needs to be efficient, catering to the psychological needs of workers in a way that make them function optimally serves the business. Although this might sound obvious to us now, the concept of autonomy is not well reflected in earlier management theories but emerges as stated above around Herzberg (1966). Any focus on the importance of the underlying aspects of the human aspect of industrial production becomes evident with Mayo (1930, 1933) and the Hawthorne studies—and Mayo is thus often considered to be the founder of the Human Relations Movement and of industrial sociology (Pugh & Hickson, 2007). We can also see this heavily reflected in Hackman & Oldham's (1976) Job Characteristics Model (JCM) which concerns the aspect of designing jobs with the highest motivational yield and consists of “five core job dimensions [that] are seen as prompting three psychological states which, in turn, lead to a number of beneficial personal and work outcomes” (Hackman & Oldham, 1976, pp. 255-256).



Within this model, Hackman & Oldham argue for the importance of autonomy in the following way: “To the extent that a job has high autonomy, the outcomes depend increasingly on the individual’s own efforts, initiatives, and decisions rather than on the adequacy of instructions from the boss or on a manual of job procedures” (Hackman & Oldham, 1976, pp. 257-258). As a precursor to motivation within the events industry, Hackman & Oldham also argue for the meaningfulness of work and use the example of someone tightening nuts on aircraft brake assemblies versus someone who fill small boxes with paper clips. Although the grind of the work is not necessarily very different, the understanding of the impact of ones work affect the well-being. For the workplace, autonomy serves as a leeway for intrinsic motivation—but if workers have no direction, they are left with uncertainty and the potential burden of self-management (Ryan & Deci, 2000). This leads back to the point on SDT in sports and where the motivation to engage in activity is undermined by motivation to win; the same goes for the workplace and thus autonomy is crucial to the contemporary workplace and the crowding out effect.

As the few last sections show, our understanding of what motivation is has gradually shifted from an ultimately extrinsic view with no room for discretion to a view with a fair level of strategical nuance and where the—although imperfect—human rationality reign. We now see motivation as an internal state that arouses, directs and maintains behavior—and otherwise channels our effort towards one specific action in disregard for another and where there has been a plentitude of different explanations and views over the passing of time (Barsky, 2015). And the theories devised to explain our motivational behaviour have changed from broad, all encompassing and non-cognitive theories have over time been replaced by theories of narrower focus and that include key cognitive concepts (Locke & Latham, 1990). When we in the contemporary view see motivation—through the lens of the SDT—as an internal state built on an inherent propensity for such behavior, and that in a time a of evermore interpersonal collaboration, the question of how people sustain intrinsic motivation when so much of their being are governed and affected by extrinsic factors is an interesting one. A direct effect of team based environments, as under the conditions of Hackman, must also necessarily be partaking in multiple, intersecting entities of motivational realms for any individual (Coutu, 2009). Whereas one have certain personal goals, the goal and motivation towards the one or multiple teams an individual is in may be in misalignment.

4 Motivation Within Events

From what we now see, the sustenance of motivation heavily relates to the perceived locus of control. If extrinsic factors such as rewards reign, sustaining motivation becomes harder and require more external management. The activity is then not done on the basis of whether or not the person wants to do it but rather in the want of the external reward and thus the focus is on external causality. We further know that these external rewards become less and less valuable over time and so if the sole motivation for doing an activity is an external factor such as a reward, the person will eventually stop doing the activity. That is a simplistic picture, but it draws attention to the value of doing an activity for the sake of the activity. In the context of this thesis, namely the production of cultural events and festivals, the initial motivation is often in the activity itself (Wagen, 2007; Getz & Page, 2016). Starting with the founder, people involved are out to create rich and valuable experiences for people around them, whether it be specific, broad, open, small or large. More often than not, festivals and events of any character are time consuming, complex, their success is often contingent on largely unpredictable factors such as actual audience attendance and is not the most rewarding in terms of individual monetary output (Ibid.; Silvers, 2008; Tum, Norton & Wright, 2006). Motivation within this realm, while not unique, can be hard to sustain due to the inherent stressful nature of the work and the uncertainty that persists right up to the event actually taking place. But yet it still often does; cultural events and festivals are being produced and held throughout the world and someone—and more than one—does necessarily need to have and sustain the motivation to see production through (Getz & Page, 2016; Silvers, 2008).

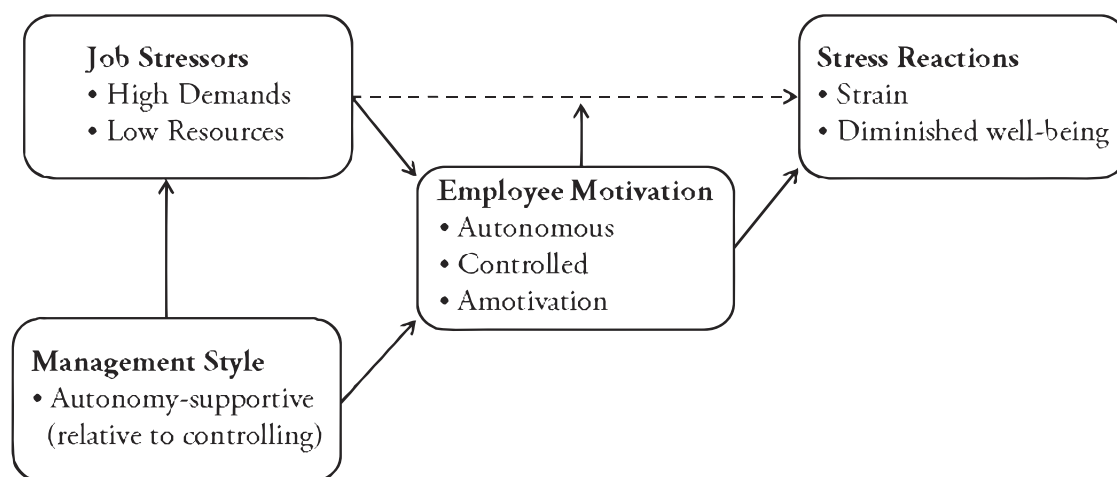
When we look at motivation for festival and event production through the lens of Deci & Ryan's SDT and its aforementioned three basic psychological needs, work within this realm from a managerial perspective offers significant autonomy. Trickle down to the hospitality, event workers and volunteers, the production tends to be relatively geographically dispersed when compared to office settings. Often, and especially for execution situations; the minute decisions that need to be made can be made without explicit approval from higher-ups and so it also holds a fair amount of autonomy (Wagen, 2007). For all directly involved there is a real tangible and shared end goal of getting everything in order, executing the event and rigging down (Ibid.). These productions are often also sparse in terms of resources and so the idea of chipping in beyond one's direct scope is also highly prevalent, and is also a result of shorter power distances and flatter hierarchies, giving each member more responsibility. These two aspects together help build Deci & Ryan's second need; relatedness. Lastly, competence does not as much relate to the sense of something larger but rather to the individual's self-esteem.

There is little tangible research on motivation within the specific realm of event and festival production on a managerial level, but there is a larger body when it comes to episodic volunteering; inherently investing personal time (Schlesinger & Gubler, 2016; MacLean & Hamm, 2007; Allen & Bartle, 2014; Twynam, Farrell & Johnston, 2002). For producers of events volunteers donating their time and effort are an important aspect of being able to produce great experiences under limited management and resources (Schlesinger & Gubler, 2016). It is of course also so that a plentitude of festivals and events carry none or a minor monetary reward for even the producers, but leaving this aspect aside, this thesis assumes people with managerial positions are at least playing monetary null-sum and where the reward or goal they are seeking is in creating experiences for others.

Schlesinger & Gubler (2016), focusing on the motivation of volunteers for sporting events found show how the motive of volunteers differs—and what drives them; from an altruistic sense of supporting the community, to seekers of material incentives, to networkers and to career and personal growth seekers. Lee et. al (2014) lay out some of the same motives in studying the effect of various motivational factors in relation to volunteer satisfaction. Specifically, Lee et. al studied the effect of altruism, patriotism, extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation. In accordance with Deci, Koestner & Ryan (1999), Lee et. al found both patriotism and intrinsic motivation to affect the satisfaction of a volunteering experience. As already mentioned there is lacking data on the motivation of people with managerial positions within events and festivals. The factor most likely affecting sustenance of motivation in this for managers, as can also readily be inferred, is that of stress; contingent, parallel or future activities creating uncertainties and complications in the state, progression, viability or feasibility of the project at hand. Per the research we have already discussed these contingencies are part of shifting the locus of control from the intrinsic motivation to the extrinsic factors. As individuals become less attached and affected by their intrinsic motivation, the work needed to maintain extrinsic factors creates stress and as such it hurts motivation.

It can through this be argued that there is a logical link between the perceived locus of control, the contingencies many external incentives create and the stress that ultimately cause a reduction in the ability to sustain motivation. Fernet & Austin (2014), in studying this relationship between work motivation and stress under the SDT, suggest to the aforementioned relationship in that stressors appear as physical and psychological costs and hinder employee motivation. They argue that all job stressors share a common feature in that they place pressure on the individual and that the motivation employees exhibit play a pivotal and multifunctional role in how the same employees adapt to stress. As such it can be seen as a process of deterioration; as stressors come into play and the motivation become less intrinsic, further stressors and contingencies are harder for the individual to fight against. This is of course not to say that the effect of stressors is an inherent and unavoidable spiral and that it can not be fixed under the release of stress or

other positive reinforcement. To this point, Fernet & Austin argue that stressors in the form of demands inherent to the job that are considered hindrances to being able to accomplishing tasks can impose physical, cognitive and emotional burdens on employees. As constraints such as time—though presumably of a manageable character—are imposed on individuals, their available energy does reduce and over time can engender physical and psychological costs (Fernet & Austin, 2014). Crawford et. al (2010) in performing a meta analysis found that burnouts was positively related to the level of perceived job challenges and job hinderances and also found that work engagement was positively related to job challenges whilst negatively related to job hinderances. Lastly they demonstrated that job resources were positively related to engagement and negatively related to burnout. This would suggest that more resources can induce better engagement, while lack of resources more easily can lead to burnouts. Also that more challenges provide better engagement, while hinderances can hurt engagement. Burnouts on the other hand can arguably be seen as the flip side of engagement in that too many or too large challenges and hinderances are presented. Crawford et. al (2010) show an empirical underpinning for how engagement or motivation towards a goal can become a congested space of tall challenges and that without sufficient resources, and possibly positive feedback and space, demands and contingencies make motivation impossible to sustain.



Fernet & Austin, 2014, p. 236

Fernet & Austin (2014), building on prominent models in job stress research within the context of the SDT including the findings of Crawford et. al (2010), put forth a model followed by three propositions regarding how different factors affect the perceived and experienced effect of stress. The first proposition argue that stressors within the workplace lead to strain. Second, the level of current motivation for the task or tasks buffers the relationship between stressors, strain and the diminished well-being as an effect of strain. Lastly, Fernet & Austin propose that the management style influence the perception of the potential stressors. In regards to Fernet & Austin, sustenance of motivation can then be considered the lacking ability to buffer the effect of stressors. What we

see is that sustenance of motivation from a theoretical standpoint is then affected by a number of different factors. First of all we have seen that the perceived locus of control governs our ability to intrinsically motivate ourselves towards a goal. This means we ourselves are more easily able to buffer the effect that stressing factors have on our motivation. Whenever the locus is largely in extrinsic incentives, it becomes harder to buffer and sustenance stands to falter. Second, and in regards to Hackman & Oldham's (1976) arguments on the meaningfulness of work, management style in the sense of creating an understanding of the impact of tasks and necessarily also impacts the effect of stressors and the ability to mitigate them.

5 Practical Understanding

But how well does this view align with the experience of actors within the current field of event and festival production? Is it possible, through reflection, to discern how the locus of control shifts—and to what extent it does so? In order to probe for an answer to this, I have conducted four semi-structured interviews with past and current festival directors and officers within the events scene in Melbourne. The participants of the interviews were asked questions relating to both how they themselves perceived their own motivation in general and in regards to the current theories, as well as how they perceived motivation to be enacted and performed with their employees and volunteers.

5.1 Participant Engagements

University of Melbourne, External Relations (UoM ER)

As part of the university's external relations efforts, the Engagement under External Relations arrange events on behalf of the university with the goal of thanking donors for their donations. These events are important for the university, and they sport important internal and external audiences.

Human Rights Arts & Film Festival (HRAFF)

The Human Rights Arts & Film Festival is a not-for-profit arts organization that sets out to inspire and engage around social justice and human rights issues and sports multiple mediums; both film, arts, music and forums. The festival has in 2017 been touring Australia and is currently running for the 10th consecutive year. Since its beginning, the festival has grown to an audience of more than 15 000 attendees and a program of 48 film sessions, 8 art exhibitions, 4 forum events and a whole lot more.

5.2 Questions

With a basis in their individual experiences, the participants were asked to elaborate on their background, their current work and the following questions in a semi-structured manner:

- What would you say is the most important thing providing you with the motivation to do the work that you do?
- Event related work can be truly exhausting when you are in the midst of it. How do you explain why you persist through?
- What do you think is the most important motivational factor for your employees?
- What do you think is the most important motivational factor for your volunteers?
- Why and how do you think they persist through the production?
- In regards to what motivates you, what do you think motivates them?
- The current state of knowledge on motivation focus on how we as humans have an inherent propensity to commit to do things that aren't strictly necessary for our survival. We have volition and are able to visualize and strive towards arbitrary yet explicate goals. How do you feel this kind of thinking aligns with your understanding of how motivation works?
- When we consider if people are motivated by their own intrinsic motivation or by external factors, research show that when external incentives, rewards and contingencies come into play, they can undermine the intrinsic motivation. How do you feel this kind of thinking aligns with your understanding of how motivation works?

5.3 Findings

In this work of creating events, as has been touched on through the thesis, there is a large amount of intrinsic motivation—people are not in it for the money per se and the work in itself does not necessarily pay in accordance with the hours that has to be put in. This specific view was well reflected in all the participants and they all drew on the same ideas of passion, of community, of a purpose and enjoyment in the work. In the interview with Emma Sekules of the UoM ER, she

reflected on her background in amateur theater; in establishing a solid work ethic and where a understanding of contributing beyond what was the immediate scope was critical in being able to put on the best possible production. Tamsin Courtney of the same organisation and department shared a lot of the same views as her colleague and reiterated the importance of work ethic or culture. Lauren Valmadre of the HRAFF on the other hand reflected on the shared experience of starting out as a volunteer and the extent to which a sense of pride, contribution and recognition is different when it originates from a largely altruistic form of intrinsic motivation. Whereas employees are hired and engaged based on experience and merit, volunteers, and the people engaging the volunteers does not necessarily know what to expect. The way in which volunteers feel a sense of meaning, pride and enjoyment may therefore be different from people who are employed. Participant 4, who wished to remain anonymous, reflected on the same passion as the others, but also on the way in which external factors can subsume the intrinsic. While this did present a contrast to some of the other experiences, it still drew on many of the same themes.

It was a very interesting personal finding that I could draw direct parallel experiences with the interview participants—and that what I drew on was different for each of the interviews. With the two first interviews, with Emma Sekules and Tamsin Courtney respectively, I drew on the sense of contributing beyond one's immediate scope; the sense and pleasure of a well-functioning team—and in their own words; a good work ethic. Lauren Valmadre had a parallel experience of growing into the industry after first starting out as a volunteer and being recognized for her effort. With Participant 4, the converse side of this came up, where people feel the need to do more than what is strictly necessary; the sense of doing a solid effort, but not being recognized or attributed enough to feel fulfilled and that the effort has meaning in the end.

5.4 Goal Explication

We do have certain outcomes, KPI's and budget targets that are expected, [...] so there are set and measurable goals, [...] but I think one of my biggest motivation is that people have a very positive experience with our festival.

— Lauren Valmadre (2017, 20:40)

From the broad and simplistic perspective of volitional goals being manifested as highly visualized and explicated thoughts driving motivation; in the way of pursuing very specific outcomes, it is clear that this did not translate into the interviews conducted. The participants rather drew on ideas of the outcome and recognised the uncertainties involved. This did not translate first presumably due to tangible proxy goals being more approachable and engaging than the more obscure main goal and second due to the concept of intrinsic, volitional and arbitrary motives such as passion being more prevalent. Whereas someone producing an event is in the business of creating good experiences, it can be very hard to measure the level to which the entirety of the

production will be of high value to the audience. It is furthermore difficult to discern exactly to what extent any successful experience is due to the efforts of the production, and how much is due to external and circumstantial factors such as the attitude of the audience and weather conditions. In the interviews conducted it rather seems that the day-to-day motivational emphasis and drive lies in producing a solid array of componential experiences. The aspect of a lesser explication, internalization of goals and contingencies translates to an element of stressors that in turn can manifest as stress. Whereas Tamsin and Emma discussed the high stakes of their work, Lauren and Participant 4 touched on the same in terms of the scope and scale of productions.

5.5 Self-Determination Theory

I think the internal motivation has to be there before any external factors come into play. [...] For this job, I came in fully internally motivated, [...] but then the external factors becomes an overlay over time, [...] and it's hard to separate them sometimes
— Tamsin Courtney (2017, 15:05)

In terms of the SDT and views on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, the participants were asked to what extent they saw their motivation as being intrinsically manifested and if they were able to make any reflections regarding whether they saw their motivation as being affected by apparent extrinsic incentives. All of the participants related this to how they perceived recognition for their work; it is not so much that someone needs to explicitly compliment them. Rather, this recognition was described as a form of trust; colleagues making it apparent that they rely on your contribution.

The SDT explicates the relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and points to multiple studies showing the crowding out effect extrinsic incentives can have on intrinsic motivation. In the case of participants it rather seems that extrinsic incentives, beyond security to fulfill basic needs is not the main motivational drive. To what extent this is specific to the current field of study is hard to say, but there are some aspects of the interviews, the theories and the purpose of the events industry discussed that do overlap very neatly. First, Hackman (1976) and the JCM show the importance and effect of a sense of meaning and purpose in regards to motivation through the focus on ‘task significance’ in their model—and what the interviews reflected more than anything was that these individuals has a great sense of passion for what they do. We should be able to assume that these individuals has chosen this line of work based on an interest, but that does not necessarily mean that they have the level of grit necessary to cope with potentially exhausting aspects. We will come back to the aspect of stress and mitigation of stress, but these interviews adhere to the notion that the factors that would lead to exhaustion are being mitigated by passion.

5.6 Passion

We were all relatively underpaid, but we all loved it. You love what you do; you love working for a year to put on ten days of events. [We loved it because] it is of value to the world in a greater way than what manufacturing of widgets is. You feel directly connected to something that is bigger than you and that you are actually impacting society; you have some agency in impacting society.
— Participant 4 (2017, 08:45)

For passion there was also a strong sense of enjoyment and altruism in its broadest sense; the participants enjoyed creating, building and producing events on behalf of others and with a sense of creating or providing to a larger community. The motivation towards building and executing events and festivals for others seemed for three out of four participants to be in the actual process (enjoy doing what they do) as well as creating events for a purpose they believe in and regard as important. They all appear to have a strong intrinsic motivation for doing what they do but for Participant 4, a larger sense of the motivation was in the outcome. To enjoy what one does is an inherently important factor for personal satisfaction, so is also that the work one does has meaning (Bandura, 1991; Deci, Olafsen & Ryan, 2017; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Passion then goes to be both the participants' sense of purpose, interest and enjoyment in the work they do, and can then be interpreted as the intrinsic rationale and motivation.

5.7 Work Ethic & Culture

It is obviously up to individuals, but because you are working as part of a team your motivation is to help those other people as well. [...] being the best possible team member that you can be, that's your individual payoff; that you can be the excellent team member that helps everyone.
— Emma Sekules (2017, 05:00)

All of the participants understood the importance of culture within the organizations and the impact good culture has on the efficacy towards its goal. Culture in the sense of social culture bridging experiences, competencies and differences towards a more cohesive relationship through the acknowledgement or creation of shared values orients people within the culture towards its presumably specific shared goal. A festival or event production is seldom a solo effort and a culture aimed at providing support multilaterally across departments, sections and domains is largely necessary for ensuring a successful and enjoyable outcome. This was reflected in the interviews with Tamsin and Emma in which it was readily apparent that they shared several values and motives. Lauren of the HRAFF touched on the support and cohesion aspect in stating that her door was open to her employees as well as her volunteers. Tamsin also emphasized the open door to her office and both of them considered it important their respective organizational cultures to

be open. This plays well into Fernet & Austin (2014) findings on the factors leading to burnout in that management style can mitigate the effects of stressors, leading to a prolonged sustenance of motivation for their employees and volunteers and so also their culture.

Work ethic can, as a converse phenomena, be read as the rigidity providing the self-regulation necessary to sustain motivation from the perspective of self-esteem and values. This ethic is simply put the level of professionalism people exhibit. Although a good ethic and professionalism is an important value to an organization, the content of it lies in the individual—exemplified by Tamsin and Emma’s shared view and where Tamsin made a point of hiring team members that exhibited the same values and ethics as herself.

All of the participants related their motivation to a solid work ethic, to understanding bad times and on reflecting well on both the good and bad times in the post of an event. They all prided themselves in creating the best possible event, with high stakes, to do it with the implicit trust of their respective superiors and playing to the uniqueness of each event; having to come up with creative solutions.

5.8 Sustenance & Grit

What pulls me through when things are really tough [is that] I won't be beaten; no matter how hard it is, I'm not going to succumb to that difficulty. It's being willing to face that challenge and not be overcome by that challenge that is a guiding force through those tough times.

— Emma Sekules (2017, 07:52)

For sustaining motivation there is also a clear theme that can be drawn from the interviews; they were all able to draw on their experience of past setbacks, how they overcame them, and on their intrinsic motivation for the enjoyment in what they do—all in the sake of putting on good experiences for their respective audiences. Again the participants drew from the enjoyment of the process as well as acknowledging the contingencies present in terms of e.g. key performance indicators. In terms of Duckworth & Paterson’s (2007) aspect of grit, the people interviewed sustain motivation partially on being gritty; being resilient to letting failure, adversity and plateaus to progress stop them from carrying on and being motivated to do so—or knowing that motivation will come back. In the interview with Tamsin and Emma, they both reflected on the fact that dips in motivation do occur, and that a good team balances out the dips. Sustenance was reflected on by all the participants in terms of factors that we have already discussed; passion, enjoyment and a sense fulfillment and meaning in experiencing the end result. The drive, grit and resilience that these few agents within the events industry in Melbourne exhibit point towards a solid sense of self-regulation on an individual and team level. Emma attributed the understanding of

how to be resilient to setbacks to experience in amateur theater and for my personal experience I attribute the same resilience to the long grind of hours and hours of road racing in teen age years. The common factor is a sense of training in patience.

5.9 Stress

It's festivals; things are always going to happen; last minute, when you least expect it or by accident. You just need to be calm and ensure the capacity to do whatever changes you need to. You just learn to stay a little motivated even though you feel crushed.
— Lauren Valmadre (2017, 35:32)

Following Fernet & Austin's (2014) propositions regarding stress within the context of the SDT—that stressors leads to strain, that motivation buffers the effect of the stressors and that the management style influence the perception of stressors—we can again reflect on the effect of personal satisfaction, enjoyment and fulfillment. All of the participants drew on culture (management style), enjoyment, fulfillment and satisfaction (mitigation/perception) and on the complexity and contingencies (stressors). To a fair extent, they enjoyed the fact that their work has high stakes, but there is still a limit to how well one can mitigate stress if the stakes are high enough. There is an exhilaration in knowing that in order for the festival and the event to best contribute to the goal of e.g. communicating the value of specific forms of arts, one has to take chances and commit. Only when people fully commit are they able to provide in the fullest extent and reap the benefit of the set goal. From Ryan & Deci (2000) and Ryan, Olafsen & Deci (2017) we can also point to the aspect of autonomy. Although it was not explicitly covered in the interviews, autonomy as mentioned in regards to the SDT, the JCM, in Fernet & Austin (2014) and in Bandura (1991) and is an important factor in alleviating and mitigating stress because of the leeway in the handling of contingencies. As from Ryan & Deci (1985) and autonomous motivation—in which there is scope and latitude for intrinsic motivation under a share of extrinsic incentives or contingencies—build on the aspect of autonomy. For the event context and the interviews, the finding here was that trust of their superiors, a mandate and autonomy (provided by the management style) can go a long way in mitigating the effect of stressors such as contingencies in the form of deliverables.

6 Conclusion

At the outset, this thesis aimed to study the way in which agents within the events industry in Melbourne, Australia sustain motivation in a field that is riddled with contingencies and unknowns that stand to burn one out. The interest in this study is the result of years of observation on individual differences and over multiple and diverse productions.

We have looked at the history of motivation and how sustenance of motivation can be understood from the theoretical perspective and how it aligns with a practical understanding. We then conducted a set of interviews with current and former managers within the cultural festival space in Melbourne to see how the theoretical understanding of motivation and sustenance of motivation aligned with the practical understanding and experience. Reflecting on the origin of motivation in the sense of goals in proximation is not something people do, but the experience was still that it was something that the participants found interesting and captivating. For the aspect of intrinsic motivation, the locus of control and extrinsic motivation there was a clear trend towards a strong intrinsic and, in the broadest term, altruistic form of motivation towards creating something to the enjoyment of others. As we have reflected on in regards to the stressful aspect of this line of work and how the effects of stressors are mitigated, a strong intrinsic motivation seems necessary for prolonged sustenance of motivation. This strong intrinsic motivation was touched on through the interviews as passion, specifically passion towards contributing positively towards a community. For the events industry and the agents within it, the strong intrinsic motivation and sense of purpose function as a mediator for the aforementioned contingencies. Under its limited scope and sense of representation, the findings of this thesis support the importance of an intrinsic locus of control for the sustenance of motivation.

From a theoretical perspective, the understanding of how motivation in humans work has gradually shifted from an all external, to an all rational and currently to an understanding that we are both not truly rational and are susceptible to external input. We have recognised that all action essentially carry a form of motivation. The current theoretical understanding focus on the efficacy of set goals and on our locus of control in regards to external input. Within the organizational context, research has promptly followed the same lines and on how one balance the concerns of the individual with the concerns of the organization. It seems difficult in the contemporary context not to consider volition and autonomy an integral part of human motivation and the means and extent to which anyone or anything should sway someone seems to be a fine balance in the long run in regards to sustenance. We saw that the sense of external motivational factors not being as strong as intrinsic factors resonated well with the participants while the sense of very explicated goals did not resonate as well.

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