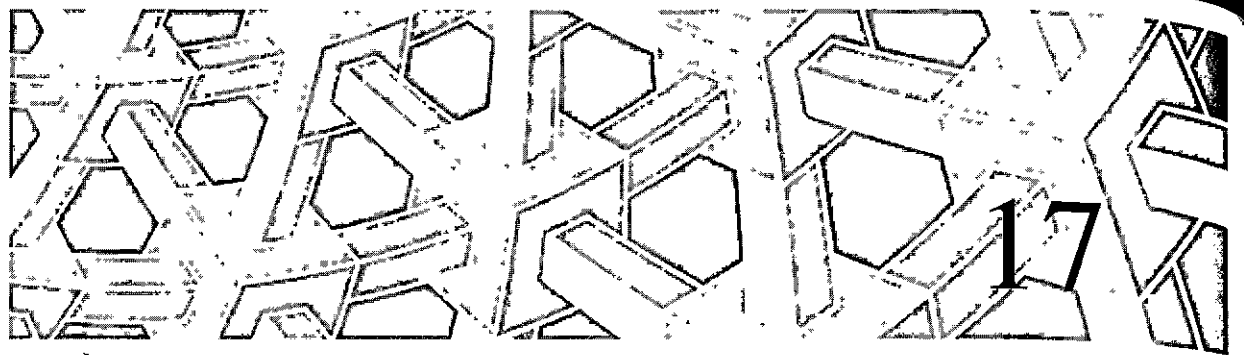




Employee Motivation

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We discover the concept of motivation through our own experiences of desire and aversion. A motive is a physiological or psychological based desire that incites a person to action. Motivation affects choice, effort and persistence (Latham, 2007). Employees make choices as to what they will aim for, the amount of effort they will exert, and how long they will persist in pursuing what it is that they want to attain. A taxonomy for predicting, understanding, and influencing motivation in organizational settings includes needs, traits, values, cognition, affect, and the environment/context (Latham and Pinder, 2005; Locke and Henne, 1986). This chapter examines theories and empirical research that underlie this taxonomy. The value of these theories is that they provide frameworks for selecting employees and developing interventions for ensuring that an organization has a motivated work force.

NEEDS

The conditions required for life as well as an employee's well being are called needs.

When a need is not met, discomfort in the form of anxiety or pain is experienced. In extreme cases, need deprivation leads to death. Hence individuals are incited to take action to fulfill their needs.

Maslow (1943, 1954) developed a need hierarchy theory. This theory posits five needs ranging from physiological to psychological. Specifically, these needs are hierarchically ordered from lower to higher: physiological, safety, affiliation, esteem and self-actualization. A core assumption underlying this theory is that lower order needs must be satisfied before action is taken to satisfy higher order needs. However, all needs are cyclical; thus no need is ever permanently satisfied. The theory implies that needs lower in the hierarchy must be routinely satisfied before one can move up to needs higher in the hierarchy.

Although Ronen (2001) found empirical support for Maslow's taxonomy of needs, Maslow (1965) himself expressed skepticism of a universal hierarchy. Suffice it to say that, ordering aside, needs can be readily dichotomized as physiological (e.g., need for food) or psychological (e.g., need for

self-esteem). Most importantly, people can prioritize their needs in different ways. For example, an employee may quit a much needed job to protest a perceived slight to self-esteem.

Needs provide an explanation for the choice, effort and persistence to seek and retain a paying job. People choose to work in order to fulfil their needs. In fact, working in an organization can help, in different ways, to fulfill all five needs posited in Maslow's theory. For example, to the extent that an employee's on-going choices, effort, and persistence increase knowledge, skills and abilities that foster the attainment of personally valued goals, the need for self-actualization, (that is, maximizing one's potential) may be met. This latter need, although not precisely defined by Maslow, typically incites a long range pursuit for challenging assignments of interest to an employee.

PERSONALITY TRAITS

Among the fastest growing bodies of literature on organization behavior is research on personality (Mitchell and Daniels, 2003). This is in stark contrast to the first 80 odd years of the 20th century. The reasons for this, as Barrick et al. (2001) pointed out, are at least two-fold. First, there was lack of clarity regarding the traits that were assessed. Consequently, researchers often used different names for traits with the same meaning or the converse, they ascribed different meanings for the same trait. Second, the hypothesized trait-performance linkage lacked a theoretical basis. There was not even an accepted classification system for reducing the myriad traits to a manageable number.

In the mid-1980s, two influential studies by Staw and his colleagues (Staw and Ross, 1985; Staw et al., 1986) suggested that there is a dispositional source of job satisfaction. This peaked the interest of the research community. This interest was soon followed by progress on the above two issues.

The Five Factor Model

The lack of an accepted taxonomy changed in the 1990s as a result of the development of the Five Factor Model or FFM (Wiggins, 1996). The FFM assesses extroversion, conscientiousness, neuroticism, openness to experience, and agreeableness. Bouchard (1997) found genetic influences on measures of these five personality traits, with heritability estimates ranging from 0.39 for agreeableness to 0.49 for extroversion. These five traits have also been shown to be relatively stable across a person's life-span (Barrick et al., 2001).

In an analysis of previous meta-analyses, Barrick et al. (2001) found that conscientiousness was the best and most consistent predictor of job performance, followed by emotional stability. This was the only other Big Five factor for which the mean validity fell within a positive 90 per cent credibility range. As Barrick et al. (2001) observed, it is difficult to think of a job where it is beneficial to be irresponsible rather than conscientious. The authors (p. 22) concluded that: 'Both the validity of conscientiousness and emotional stability generalize across all occupations and criterion types.' Emotional stability and agreeableness correlate with effective teamwork. Extroversion and openness to experience correlate with training performance.

Several subsequent meta-analyses have revealed that conscientiousness and emotional stability correlate positively with job performance in virtually all jobs (Anderson and Viswesvaran, 1998; Barrick and Mount, 1991). Salgado (1997) reached a similar conclusion based on studies conducted in Europe.

Despite these consistent findings, little is known about the mechanisms through which these distal traits affect job performance. One can argue that the 'Big Five' are simply cluster scores of behaviors, in which case they are predictive but not explanatory. Or one might argue, given the wording of some of the trait items measured in the Big Five, that they reflect a person's underlying values. But traits may reflect temperament which is heritable.

More conceptual work is clearly required here.

Additional knowledge is also needed on how traits lead to action if they are, in fact, causal. There is evidence that self-efficacy and goals mediate trait effects (Locke, 2000). In the domain of academic achievement, there is evidence suggesting that self-efficacy almost fully mediates the relationship between the FFM and performance (Caprara et al., 2004).

Core self evaluations

Judge et al. (1997) proposed a higher order concept related to internal psychological states which they labeled core self-evaluations (CSEs). They defined these evaluations as a broad trait that subsumes four specific traits, namely, self esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control and emotional stability (the converse of neuroticism) that are sufficiently inter-related to be grouped together as a single measure. A subsequent study showed that CSEs are related to employee motivation (Judge et al., 1998). A meta-analytic review revealed that each of these four traits is related positively to job performance in addition to job satisfaction (Judge and Bono, 2001).

Goal orientation

Dweck's (1999) goal orientation theory predicts and explains a person's behavior in terms of an approach-avoidance disposition. People with a learning goal orientation are predisposed to acquiring knowledge and increasing their skill set. Hence, they typically seek tasks that are challenging for them. They view errors as inherent in the learning process, and as valuable to the extent they can learn from each mistake. The theory states that people with a performance goal orientation are predisposed to avoiding tasks that might lead others to question their competence. Consequently, they strive to choose tasks where they can easily excel (Vandewalle et al., 2001).

Research shows that a learning goal orientation correlates positively with performance.

The mediators are goal setting, planning and effort (Vandewalle, 1999; Brett and Vandewalle, 1999). A criticism of this theory is that these two goal orientations are as much a state as they are a disposition. The positive effects of a learning goal orientation are easily induced (Seijts et al., 2004).

Self-determination theory

Self determination theory, developed by Deci and Ryan (Deci, 1975; Deci and Ryan, 1990; Ryan and Deci, 2000), states that motivation, typically measured as the amount of time one persists at a task during one's free time, increases to the extent that the source of motivation is inferred by the person to be intrinsic rather than extrinsic. The theory further asserts that three relatively stable personality traits explain how people initially regulate themselves when striving to attain their goals.

An autonomy orientation leads people to attend to cues in the environment that suggest 'free choice.' Scores for autonomy correlate positively with assessments of a person's self-esteem; they correlate negatively with boredom at work. People with this orientation are said to have an intrinsic motivation to work hard at their job.

People with a control orientation have an extrinsic motivation for work. They see their behavior as constrained/controlled by others. Those with an impersonal orientation are sensitized to signals that suggest their incompetence. Scores suggesting a control orientation correlate negatively with self esteem. People who score high on this trait do not see themselves as being able to control external events. These three personality dispositions, autonomy, control, and impersonal affect performance via the mediating processes of a person's goal orientation as well as the difficulty level of the goal that is set (Ryan and Deci, 2000).

A core assumption of this prediction is the 'over-justification effect,' namely, that there is a negative reciprocal relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. Thus, the greater the extrinsic reward (e.g., money), the

lower one's subsequent intrinsic motivation and satisfaction. The theory asserts that people are motivated to the extent that they feel that their actions are chosen by them freely. The administration of a monetary reward for doing what an individual might have done anyway, because of a task's intrinsic appeal, causes the person to make an attributional shift regarding the cause of behavior from self to others. This causal mechanism, however, has yet to be validated.

This theory has been criticized for its naïveté regarding the workplace. Bandura (1977) attacked its logic. Decreases in performance typically reflect a response to how extrinsic incentives are presented rather than to the incentives themselves. It is unlikely, Bandura noted, that concert pianists lose interest in the keyboard just because they are offered high recital fees. If a monetary reward is given for high performance, it does not undermine motivation (Miner, 2002). The feeling of competency appears to negate any feeling of loss of control. Eisenberger and Cameron (1996) attacked the theory for failing to specify the mechanism which explains why dissatisfaction emanating from a decline in perceived self determination decreases a person's intrinsic value for performing a task, rather than anger toward the person who is the source of the external incentive. Fay and Frese (2000) questioned the very relevance of this theory to organizational behavior. Work assignments, they said, are just that — assignments. In organizational settings, one can rarely describe work as being performed 'freely.' Moreover, people expect to be paid by the organization that employs them. It is unlikely that self-determination is the wellspring of employee motivation if it is so fragile that its effects are negated by the most common of life's exigencies (Locke and Latham, 1990). Finally, it is extremely difficult to differentiate situations that are characterized solely by intrinsic vs. extrinsic incentives. A so-called intrinsic setting, for testing the validity of self-determination theory, would have to be completely free of any and all external inducements (e.g., situational, physical and social structures, the materials

they contain, as well as expectations of and recognition from others). Yet, paradoxically, from a competency viewpoint, these factors could enhance an employee's motivation.

VALUES

Values are similar to needs in their ability to affect a person's choices, effort, and persistence. Values, however, as opposed to inborn needs, are an individual's conceptions of the 'good' or 'desirable' which are acquired through learning and experience. As is the case with needs, the satisfaction of values leads to pleasure, and lack of fulfilment is a source of displeasure (Allport, 1951). When the job requires people to behave in ways that are counter to their personality traits, they experience negative affect (Moskowitz and Cote, 1995). The same is likely true for values. Values are the proximal basis for the goals that people choose, though all motivation, as previously stated, begins with needs. Values can be defined as trans-situational goals in that they are relatively enduring, and they serve as guiding principles throughout an adult's life-span (Schwartz and Sagie, 2000). Because values transcend situations, they are able to influence choice, effort and persistence beyond the attainment of an individual's immediate goals to more ultimate goals (Chatman, 1991). Goals, discussed in the subsequent section, are the mechanisms by which values incite action.

Relevant to self determination theory, Malka and Chatman (2003) found that values act as a moderator of one's job satisfaction with respect to the money a person receives. Business school graduates who scored high on a measure of external work orientation valued money far more than those who had an orientation toward the intrinsic aspects of their work. Srivastava et al. (2001) assessed the motives underlying entrepreneurs' value for money. They found that positive motives for valuing money (e.g., enhancing their family's security, gaining a sense of justice) had a neutral effect on a person's self evaluation of one's overall life. However, there was

a negative relationship between the value people attached to money and their self evaluation when their motive for money was negative (e.g., a way to feel superior to others; a way to gain power).

COGNITION

Knowledge is required to identify and satisfy an individual's needs and to choose and attain values/goals. In the absence of knowledge, an employee cannot determine ways to satisfy a need or to behave in ways consistent with, or leading to, the attainment of a value. Hence motivation in the absence of knowledge is useless. The reverse is also true. At least four motivational theories emphasize the important role of cognition in motivation.

Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory states that an employee's choice to exert effort is a multiplicative product of the person's expectancy that:

- (1) effort will lead to performance (E);
- (2) performance will be instrumental to the attainment of one or more outcomes (I); and
- (3) the valence or value of the outcome(s) for that employee (V).

Hence, the theory is often referred to as valence-instrumentality-expectancy or VIE theory. The practical significance of this theory is that it provides a language and framework for formulating questions about the role of an employee's beliefs and values on that person's performance.

The mathematical operations are at best heuristics, as Vroom acknowledged (Latham, 2007: 47-48). People do not actually make these calculations before making a decision. As discussed in a subsequent section, many decisions are based on the subconscious. A further limitation of this theory is that a core assumption is that employees are hedonistic, that is, they consistently choose to act in ways that maximize valued outcomes. This is not always the case (Locke, 1975). Further, the theory says nothing about goals. It is silent on what arouses an employee to take action.

Even if an employee has the cognitive ability to derive complex mental representations of the environment, having no goal or a low one mitigates a person taking action.

GOAL SETTING

Goals are a task and situationally specific outgrowth of an individual's values. Consequently, they are both an end state to attain and a standard by which performance is evaluated. To the extent an employee values education, for example, that employee is likely to go back to school and master the chosen subject matter. Pursuing and attaining a goal that an employee values provides job satisfaction. Given that a person has sufficient knowledge/skill, a primary determinant of job satisfaction, as noted earlier, is cognitive challenge regarding work assignments an employee values (Judge et al., 2000). A specific high performance goal incites effort, and in addition cues an individual to draw upon knowledge that will likely lead to its attainment.

These conclusions are captured in Locke and Latham's (1990, 2002) goal setting theory. This theory, unlike need hierarchy and expectancy theory, was developed inductively rather than deductively from more than 400 laboratory and field experiments. The number of experiments currently exceeds 1000 (Mitchell and Daniels, 2003). In particular, the theory states that

- (1) a specific high goal leads to higher performance than no goal setting or even an abstract goal such as 'to do your best';
- (2) given goal commitment, the higher the goal the higher an employee's performance;
- (3) Variables such as participation in decision making, performance feedback, incentives, and competition increase performance to the extent that they lead to the setting of and commitment to a specific high goal.

Boundary or conditional variables that can limit the effectiveness of goal setting include an employee's lack of ability or task

knowledge, little or no goal commitment, no knowledge of results on goal progress, and situational constraints. If a task is complex for an employee, that is, if an employee has yet to acquire the requisite knowledge or ability to attain a performance goal, a specific high learning rather than a performance goal should be set (Latham and Seijts, 2006; Winters and Latham, 1996). This is because a performance goal, unlike a learning goal, may focus an employee's attention on the desired outcome to the exclusion of the attention required for the discovery of solutions to an impasse, the implementation of one or more appropriate discoveries, and the monitoring of their effectiveness (Latham, 2007; Seijts and Latham, 2001).

Goal setting is a key variable that ties studies of motivation to those of leadership. This is because leadership is a tripod consisting of leader(s), followers, and the common goal they want to attain (Bennis, 2007).

SOCIAL COGNITIVE THEORY

In addition to goal setting, Bandura's (1977, 1986, 1997) social cognitive theory specifies a core set of determinants, the mechanism through which they work, and the optimal ways of translating this knowledge into effective practices. The core determinants include knowledge of risks and benefits of different practices, outcome expectations of the expected costs and benefits for different practices, perceived self-efficacy that one can exercise control over one's performance outcomes, and the perceived facilitators and social structural impediments to the changes they seek. Outcome expectancy stresses the importance of seeing the relationship between what one is doing and the outcome that one can expect from doing it. For example, employees in a forest products company chose to expend a great deal of effort stealing from the company, and persisted in doing so when the outcome they expected from theft was a sense of thrill and excitement. When this expected outcome was removed, the theft stopped (Latham, 2001).

Self-efficacy is the extent to which employees believe that they can perform a specific task effectively. Employees with high self-efficacy not only set high goals, they persist until they attain them despite the obstacles that they encounter. Those with low self-efficacy give up readily when confronted by the same impediments to goal attainment.

Self-efficacy in organizational settings can be increased most readily in one of the following ways.

- (1) Enactive mastery whereby tasks are sequenced in such a way as to increase the probability of skill acquisition, and hence an early win; early wins instill/restore confidence.
- (2) Modeling the behaviors with whom the individual identifies, who has either mastered the task or is in the process of doing so. 'If that person can, so can I.'
- (3) By persuasion from an individual with high credibility. 'If that person believes I can do so, it must be true.'

Persuasion can also involve giving the person task strategy information. Further, persuasion can include an individual's self talk. Displaced managers were re-employed (Millman and Latham, 2001), Native North Americans excelled in a selection interview and obtained employment (Latham and Budworth, 2006), and MBA students increased their team playing skills as a result of training in verbal self guidance (Brown and Latham, 2006). Related to self talk is positive mental imagery, which like self talk, increases self-efficacy. Morin and Latham (2000) found that as a result of this training, supervisors increased their effectiveness in their interactions with union officers. This finding is consistent with Action Theory, discussed next.

In short, self-efficacy is based on the conclusions employees draw regarding their capabilities to attain performance outcomes, including overcoming obstacles to goal attainment. Outcomes expectancies (e.g., rewards) will not affect performance if performance self-efficacy is low. Conversely, self efficacy will not affect performance if a person's outcome expectancies are not perceived as

positive. Napier and Latham (1986) found that managers in a newspaper facility had high self-efficacy that they could conduct fair and objective performance appraisals of their subordinates. Nevertheless, they chose not to conduct appraisals, because the outcome they expected for doing so was 'nothing.' They anticipated that those who received a positive appraisal would be treated no differently by upper management than those who received a negative appraisal. The extent to which people mobilize their effort is determined by the outcomes they expect from the goals that are set, and their self-efficacy that the goal is attainable.

ACTION THEORY

Action theory, developed in Germany by Frese (2005), is consistent with goal setting and social cognitive theories. A goal, this theory asserts, can be an employee's wish or it can be derived from an organizational task. What differentiates a momentary wish from a true goal is whether a person has formulated a plan for attaining it. A core premise of this theory is that a goal is motivating to the extent that an individual can visualize its attainment. Goal importance, opportunity to take action, and knowledge of ways to effectively pursue the goal are moderator variables affecting goal attainment.

The above three theories presuppose the existence of goal commitment. In the absence of goal commitment, goal setting has no effect on behavior. Ways of gaining goal commitment were reviewed by Locke et al. (1988) and subsequently by Locke and Latham (1990). They include external influences (leadership, peer influence, and external rewards), interactive influences (participation) and internal factors (self efficacy, self regulation, goal importance).

When leaders assign a goal, they are implicitly communicating their belief that an employee is capable of attaining it (Salancik, 1977). To the extent that a leader is supportive, people set high goals (Latham and Saari, 1979), and to the extent that a leader is trusted,

the extent to which employees work hard increases (Earley, 1986; Oldham, 1976).

The effect of peer influence on performance is a well-known phenomenon (Kozlowski and Ilgen, 2006). Peers serve as models for one another. If employees commit to a goal, the likelihood increases that an individual, new to the group, will do likewise.

Monetary incentives for attaining goals may increase goal commitment as compared to hourly pay plus goals. Much depends, however, on whether the goals are viewed by an individual as attainable. Monetary incentives may reduce commitment (which may be reflected in lower self-set goals and self-efficacy) compared to hourly pay with goals when the goals with bonuses are viewed as impossible to attain (see Lee et al., 1997, Table 2).

If a goal is assigned curtly, it is unlikely to engender commitment. If a goal assignment includes a rationale, however, it is as effective as one that is set participatively (Latham et al., 1988). Communicating the goals to subordinates in a clear and compelling way is a hallmark of an effective leader who is able to gain the commitment of subordinates (Locke, 2000).

The benefits of participative decision-making, are primarily cognitive rather than motivational. Participative decision making on tasks that are complex for people is effective to the extent that it promotes the sharing of knowledge (Latham et al., 1994; Locke et al., 1997; Quigley et al., 2007). Participation in decision making can sometimes lead to the setting of higher goals than those that are assigned (Latham et al., 1978). The higher the goal, the higher the performance.

With regard to internal factors, a person's self-efficacy, as noted earlier, leads to the setting of, as well as effort for attaining a high goal (Bandura and Cervone, 1983). Studies of self management involving unionized state government employees revealed that self set goals that were accompanied by self generated feedback and self administered rewards brought about an increase in self-efficacy and goal commitment as well as

increased job attendance (Frayne and Latham, 1987). Contrary to self-determination theory, there is no evidence in the organizational behavior literature that a self-set goal leads to better performance than one that is assigned or set participatively.

CONTROL THEORY

Carver and Scheier (1981) developed control theory on the basis of cybernetic engineering principles. This theory too champions the importance of goals on a person's behavior. Nevertheless, this theory differs from the preceding theories in its emphasis on a negative feedback loop. The loop is said to be a primary source of motivation in that a person, similar metaphorically to a thermostat, is incited to take action that will reduce, if not eliminate goal-performance discrepancies. This assertion is in stark contrast to both goal setting and social cognitive theories which assert that goal setting also leads to a discrepancy production process. Once a goal is attained, an employee who has high self efficacy sets an even higher goal rather than becoming complacent. Control theorists try to get around this by claiming there are higher order goals but this only pushes the problem back a step further. Why do people have higher order goals? The answer lies in biological rather than in engineering principles. Life is a process of goal-directed action; thus human life requires a continual process of setting and pursuing hierarchically related goals. Task-specific goals (e.g., achieve X on my job) are tied (in a means-ends relationship) to higher order goals (e.g., keep my job and get promoted) which are tied to yet higher order goals (e.g., earn a 'good living').

Vancouver (2005), a control theorist, has been critical of self efficacy. The notion of self efficacy is discordant with the sole belief in a negative feedback loop. Hence, Vancouver has argued that high self efficacy leads to lower effort, thereby decreasing motivation over time within individuals. This may be true if the person becomes over-confident.

But, as noted earlier, people with high task-specific self efficacy routinely set their goals higher following goal attainment. This is a problem with control theory as originally conceived. The theory stresses that it does not model what goes on inside an organism psychologically, that is, consciously. This makes it impossible for the theory to explain action without resorting to unconscious or mechanistic processes. Thus, the cybernetic system is posited to respond mindlessly to its own performance. This is conceptual incoherence.

AFFECT

Emotion is the form in which one experiences subconscious value judgments (Locke, 1976). In the absence of emotion, a value would be experienced as a 'dry' abstraction (e.g., 'another pay raise; so what?'). Inherent in emotion are action tendencies to approach or avoid that which one appraises as beneficial or harmful (e.g., a safety hazard on the job). Emotion reflects cognition as well as values. To fear a safety hazard on the job, an employee must have knowledge of the plant site as well as the required job duties. Thus the causal sequence is: object → cognitive appraisal → value appraisal → emotion. With repetitious experience, the appraisal becomes automatic, namely, object → emotion.

Two cognitive/affect theories that focus specifically on emotion are Adams' equity theory and Folger and Greenberg's conceptualizations of organizational justice.

Equity theory

Few issues are more important to employees' that being treated justly. For example, most employees become angry if they believe that someone is getting paid more than they for performing the same or comparable work. Adams' (1963) equity theory captures this emotional phenomenon. Specifically, the theory states that employees make cognitive appraisals of their inputs (e.g., education level, years of experience, amount of effort)

relative to the outputs they receive (e.g., pay, promotion). They then compare the input/output ratio with that of comparison others, which is a form of value judgment. This process determines the extent to which they experience tension or anger from feelings of over-equity or inequity, and the likelihood they will be incited to take action to reduce that tension. If they feel over-paid, the theory predicts, and the research shows, that they are likely to increase the quantity and/or quality of their work (Mowday, 1991). If they learn that their comparison other is receiving more money than they are for exerting no more effort, and producing no more work, the resulting emotion is likely to be feelings of inequity (i.e., outrage).

Equity theory has been criticized for its lack of precision. For example, Pritchard (1969) pointed out that the theory does not explain how a person decides what constitutes relevant inputs and outputs. Nor does the theory suggest the basis by which an employee chooses a comparison other or when or how an employee will seek to change the situation.

Organizational justice

Folger, whose mentor was Adams, and Folger's colleague, Greenberg, built on equity theory to develop conceptualizations of organizational justice, that is, factors that affect perceptions/feelings of fairness. Whereas the focus of equity theory is on perceptions of distributive justice, that is, what is distributed to whom, Folger (Folger and Cropanzano, 1998) and Greenberg (1987) added the concept of procedural justice. This latter concept emphasizes the importance of developing procedures, processes or systems for determining 'what should be distributed to whom'. The crux of distributive justice is treating people on the basis of merit. Because this frequently requires judgment on the part of a person's manager (e.g., performance appraisal, amount of pay increase, or the lack of a promotion), an employee may feel that an outcome is unfair. When this occurs, the necessity for having the principles of procedural justice in place becomes

paramount (Brockner and Wiesenfeld, 1986). The crux of procedural justice is having a priori, agreed upon, understood procedures in place for determining 'who receives what,' and applying these procedures consistently.

A meta-analysis revealed that the application of distributive and procedural justice increases both job performance and satisfaction (Colquitt et al., 2001). This same meta-analysis also showed that both distributive and procedural justice are unique though inter-related concepts. Justice researchers have suggested a third dimension, namely, interactional justice. This concept refers to the relationship between a manager and an employee, particularly in regard to the extent to which the latter perceives the former as considerate and ethical. Locke (2003), however, has criticized the legitimacy of this term as consideration is arguably, the ethics part aside, no more than an already thoroughly studied variable in the early literature on leadership (Fleishman, 1957). Consideration is not a means to give 'just desserts,' rather it is an appropriate way of treating all employees. A meta-analysis by Judge et al. (2004) found that leader consideration toward employees has a positive effect on group performance.

Regardless of whether interactional justice is a new concept, Inness et al. (2005) found that a failure on a supervisor's part to be considerate can be the source of the most deeply felt types of resentment experienced by an employee. And not surprisingly, it can lead to retaliation by the aggrieved employee.

Affective events theory

Affective events theory (AET), developed by Weiss and Cropanzano (1996), states that environmental events affect a person emotionally, and that emotional consequences influence an employee's job performance. This influence is relatively immediate. Using AET as a framework, Ilies and Judge (2005) showed that goal regulation explains the links among emotions, a person's action tendencies and intentional behavior. For example, the performance feedback that is given to

an employee is typically experienced as an affective event, because it involves a value appraisal of the employee's actions and achievements. This influences the emotions the person experiences, and through the goals this person subsequently sets, job performance.

ENVIRONMENT/CONTEXT

The importance of the environment on an employee's behavior has long been recognized. A person who is motivated in one setting may be demotivated in another. Personality traits typically predict an employee's behavior in 'weak' rather than in 'strong' situations (Mischel, 1977). This is because the job context allows or restricts the extent to which an employee is able to express whatever traits or potentials that person possesses. The job context for an assembly line worker is so highly structured (i.e., strong) that personality differences among employees have little chance to be expressed. The job context for high level managers is much less structured (i.e., weak); hence, their job context allows them much more leeway and therefore does not overwhelm differences in traits.

Behaviorism

The importance of the environment is espoused in the philosophy of behaviorism (Watson, 1913; Skinner, 1953). The underlying thesis is that the environment alone shapes behavior. This is said to occur through operant conditioning. That is, an employee's response, operating on the job environment, is rewarded, ignored or punished. The frequency of desired responses of an employee can be increased by management changing the schedule on which an external incentive is administered. For this reason, the behaviorists argue that an employee's behavior is solely a function of its consequences. Employees learn contingent relationships between what they do and the concomitant result (incentive, punishment, or neither). Behavior that is followed by a valued incentive 'reinforces' or

strengthens the behavior, hence the likelihood that it will be repeated. Behavior for which there is no consequence, or which is followed by punishment, extinguishes. The causes of behavior are said to reside in the structural features of one's environment rather than in needs, traits, values, or goals. The attributes of a person are considered irrelevant. Cognition is said to be an explanatory fiction.

Kaufman et al. (1966) showed that when people are reinforced or rewarded on the same schedule, yet are led to believe (cognition) that they are being rewarded on a fixed interval, a variable ratio, or a variable interval schedule, they behave consistent with their belief. In short, environmental events affect behavior as a function of a person's beliefs, rather than the actual schedule with which an incentive/'reinforcer' is administered. What employees think affects how they act which in turn affects their environment. How the environment affects a person depends upon how it is interpreted (Bandura, 1997).

The philosophy of behaviorism has been discredited (Locke, 1977, 1978). Nevertheless, this does not negate the effectiveness of its techniques. Administering valued rewards on a continuous schedule typically improves the performance of new employees. Changing the schedule from continuous to variable ratio typically increases the performance of their experienced colleagues (e.g., Latham and Dossett, 1978; Komaki, 2003; Saari and Latham, 1982).

Organizational and societal culture

Context affects the extent to which an employee's needs are met and values are fulfilled (Latham, 2007). Context can have a direct effect, or it can interact with traits to affect a person's behavior (Johns, 2006). As a result of the increasing number of organizations who are conducting business globally, Hofstede (1984; 2001) conducted a landmark study regarding the analysis of responses to 32 value questions from approximately 116,000 employees in 50 countries. His results led to the discovery of four basic values, namely, low vs. high power distance (extent to which a

society views inequality, regardless of merit, as acceptable/unacceptable), individualism vs. collectivism (value a society places on enlightened self interest vs. subserving self interest for the overall enhancement of the group), masculinity vs. femininity (value a society holds for assertiveness and competitiveness vs. nurturing and cooperation) and uncertainty vs. certainty (extent to which society is or is not structured, clear and predictable in its use of strict codes of conduct and beliefs in absolute truths).

Voluminous studies have shown that these values influence behavior. Motivational techniques used by superiors have a greater effect on employees in high power distance cultures (such as India) than they do in low power distance cultures (such as Canada; Leung, 2001). For example, Sue-Chan and Ong (2002) found that power distance moderated the effect of assigned versus participative goal setting on goal commitment and performance. Commitment and performance were higher for assigned goals in high as opposed to low power distance cultures. Employees in individualistic cultures (e.g., the US) are more motivated when they work alone than when they are members of a team (Aguinis and Henle, 2003). This is because in the West, the self is viewed/valued as a relatively independent, autonomous entity, whereas in the East, self is valued to the extent the person is seen as fitting into a shared network of social relationships (Bagozzi et al., 2003).

The practical significance of these findings regarding the effect of context on values is that they show the importance of adapting a behavioral science intervention to the values of society where it will be implemented.

The context in which one is working also moderates the effectiveness of goal setting. To the extent that a work environment is dynamic, proximal or sub-goals should be set rather than one distal goal. Inherent in proximal goals is additional feedback that enables people to discern whether they are pursuing an effective strategy for distal goal attainment (Latham and Seijts, 1999). Moreover, the attainment of proximal goals

maintains commitment to attaining the distal goal (Bandura, 1997).

When the group's goal is in conflict with an individual's goal, group performance suffers. A social dilemma is a boundary condition for the typical positive effects of goal setting (Seijts and Latham, 2000).

Even the context within which a goal is framed by one's supervisor may moderate its effect on performance. Performance is lower when the goal is framed in terms of avoiding a negative outcome rather than attaining a positive one (Drach-Zahavy and Erez, 2002).

NEW DIRECTIONS

Intriguing findings in social psychology suggest that research in organizational behavior will soon be exploring the subconscious side of an employee's motivation. The subconscious is a storehouse of knowledge and values beyond that which is found in a person's awareness at any given point in time (Locke and Latham, 2002). Because one can only hold about seven disparate items in focal awareness at the same time (Miller 1956), subconscious storage is essential for allowing people to free their attentional resources to focus on new facts and make new integrations

Gollwitzer (1999) and his colleagues (e.g., Brandstatter et al., 2001) found that on tasks that are complex for people, implementation intentions facilitate goal attainment. Implementation intentions are mental links that are created with regard to a specific future situation (context), and an internal goal directed response. An implementation intention specifies when, where and how one's actions are likely to lead to the attainment of one's goal. In short, the implementation intention commits a person to take goal-directed action once the person is in an appropriate situation to do so. Through this formation of implementation intentions, people are able to switch from conscious effortful control of their goal-directed behavior to becoming automatically influenced by their

pre-selected contextual cues. This occurs as a result of the mental act of pairing their desired goal-directed behavior with a pre-determined situation. Subsequently, the environment activates goal directed behavior, without the person being aware of it, as a result of a pre-conscious analysis of what constitutes an appropriate setting for facilitating goal attainment. Gollwitzer (1999) found that implementation intentions affect a person's behavior even after considerable time has elapsed following the formation of them.

Consistent with Gollwitzer, Shah (2005) has obtained similar results through what he called instrumental priming, that is, by surrounding a person with various means to attain a specific goal. This causes a person, without awareness, to move that goal to the center of attention, thus increasing the individual's commitment to pursue it.

Shah (2003) also found that by presenting a person's significant other's name on a screen subliminally, goal pursuit increases or decreases dependent upon that individual's perceived support of goal attainment. Shah labeled this procedure interpersonal priming.

Bargh and his colleagues have studied the effects of semantic priming on performance (Bargh and Ferguson, 2000). People are randomly assigned to (1) a condition where they find words in a matrix or unscramble sentences that are achievement oriented or to (2) a condition where the words they seek/create are neutral. Those in the achievement condition perform better than those in the neutral condition on a subsequent unrelated task. Stajkovic et al. (2006) conducted the first study to compare the effect of subconsciously primed goals with those of consciously assigned goals as derived from goal setting theory (Locke and Latham, 1990). They found that both types of goals significantly affect performance on a brainstorming task, though the conscious goal had a stronger effect on performance. Further, they found that there is an interaction between the two types of goals. The effects of assigned do best and specific difficult goals, but not easy ones, were enhanced significantly by subconscious priming. These findings

regarding the priming of the subconscious beg for replication and extension in organizational settings. To date, it is not known how long priming effects, in the context of a dynamic work environment, last or how priming effects are influenced by conflicting demands.

CONCLUSION

Whereas theory and practice in the 20th century focused on conscious choices, effort, and persistence by employees, research in the 21st century will likely expand our knowledge to the role played by the subconscious in motivating individuals in tomorrow's workforce. There is now a taxonomy of motivation to facilitate this discovery. The taxonomy includes an employee's needs, personality traits, values, cognition, affect and the environment or context in which these variables occur.

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