

The Importance of Motivation in Training and Development:

The Development of a Motivational

Assessment Tool

by

Joseph D. Miller

**A Research Paper
Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the
Master of Science Degree
in**

Training and Development

Approved: Four Semester Credits



Dr. Katherine Lui

The Graduate School

University of Wisconsin-Stout

August, 2007

**The Graduate School
University of Wisconsin-Stout
Menomonie, WI**

Author: Miller, Joseph D.

Title: *The Importance of Motivation in Training and Development:
The Development of a Motivational Assessment Tool*

Graduate Degree/ Major: MS Training and Development

Research Adviser: Kat Lui, Ph.D.

Month/Year: August, 2007

Number of Pages: 46

Style Manual Used: American Psychological Association, 5th edition

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the issues and theoretical findings associated with the importance of motivation in Training and Development. Training and Development is a continually growing field. In order to promote continuing education and understanding for these changes, Training and Development professionals must stay updated in the relevant theories of our time. The theories of this study focus on the importance of motivation in training and development.

A pre-training motivation assessment tool was developed to focus on the dimensions assumed to underlie several motivation theories: Expectancy Theory, Goal-Setting Theory, Basic Needs Theory, and Self-Determination theory. A comprehensive literature review was conducted to examine the complexities and dimensions of these theories which explain the basis for much of our motivation at work. A pre-training motivation assessment tool was designed to assess the work climate for motivation to learn before training is administered. The proposed assessment tool is to be used in

conjunction with all front end analyses and needs assessments. Furthermore, it is to be utilized when training has been determined to be a solution to the performance gap.

Finally, recommendations were made for administering the assessment tool as well as for maximizing motivation and learning potential.

Acknowledgments

For all their support and encouragement during my academic endeavors, I would like to extend my deepest thanks and appreciation to all my friends and family. I would also like to thank the entire graduate school staff for all your assistance which has greatly enhanced my educational experience. Finally, I would like to thank Dr. Kat Lui for all her advisement, sincerity, and ability to shed light on the many complexities in the field of Training and Development.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ABSTRACT.....	ii
Chapter I: Introduction.....	1
<i>Purpose of the Study</i>	2
<i>Research Questions</i>	2
<i>Limitations of the Study</i>	3
Chapter II: Literature Review	4
<i>Introduction</i>	4
<i>Vroom's Expectancy Theory</i>	4
<i>Locke and Latham's Goal Setting Theory</i>	7
<i>Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory</i>	9
<i>Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory</i>	12
<i>Deci and Ryan's Self-Determination Theory</i>	13
<i>Summary</i>	25
Chapter III: Methodology	28
<i>Introduction</i>	28
<i>Model</i>	28
<i>Step one: Determine Objectives</i>	29
<i>Step Two: Determine Data Needed</i>	29
<i>Step Three: Identify Data Sources</i>	31
<i>Step Four: Design and Develop Instrument</i>	31
<i>Step Five: Review for Content Validity</i>	35
Chapter IV: Recommendations	36

Critical Analysis 36

Recommendations 37

References..... 41

Appendix A: Pre-training Motivational Assessment Tool 44

List of Tables

Table 1: Herzberg's Motivation/Hygiene Factors.....	13
Table 2: Self-Determination Continuum.....	15
Table 3: Data Needed.....	30
Table 4: Demographic Frequency Table.....	32
Table 5: Closed-ended Frequency Table.....	34
Table 6: Open-ended Frequency Table.....	34
Table 7: Expectancy Theory.....	35
Table 8: Goal-Setting Theory.....	35
Table 9: Malsow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory.....	35
Table 10: Motivation-Hygiene Theory.....	35
Table 11: Self-Determination Theory.....	35

Chapter I: Introduction

The Power and Potential of Learning

There are many important factors to consider for the learning process to occur during training. For the most part training occurs on a social level and is enhanced by individual psychological factors. In short learning and training both occur through a myriad of social psychological processes and functions. The same forces that allow us to communicate and socialize from person to person also exist between trainer and trainee. The type of communication, good, bad, lack of, etc. can have great influence over learner motivation and overall positive learning experience. For these reasons careful consideration for social context and learning environmental conditions which maximize the power and motivation to learn must be considered.

The social context and climate of a work environment affects all behavior of an organization. Social written and even unwritten rules about how the organization operates will ultimately shape or have affect on individual desire to learn and perform. Thus the expensive training programs designed to alleviate and eliminate the significant performance gaps we face may be undermined by a negative climate or collective attitude which may transfer over to the training program itself.

After all the initial phases of determining, assessing, and analyzing the need for training have been properly conducted and it has been thus determined that training is indeed a solution to a performance problem etc., there are still a variety of issues to consider before training is ever delivered to the trainee. Training objectives, design, transfer of training (learning), and trainee and trainer characteristics, are all generalized issues that may be of concern while designing a training program. While the above four

generalized issues are of maximum concern for the design and delivery of a training program, perhaps the first questions we may want to ask are whether the trainee wants to learn, what it is that makes a trainee want to learn, how we can assess their desire to learn, and finally what social contexts foster this desire to learn. These questions can be summarized as motivational questions.

The purpose of this study is to examine the current as well as the past theoretical motivational factors which may have influence on training. The study involves a comprehensive overview of the theories that exist, terms and definitions, as well as the social contexts in which training should be delivered. The study also addresses how to assess motivation via use of the proposed motivational assessment tool. Finally, the study provides recommendations to assess, manage, and create contextual training environments that are motivationally stimulating.

Research Questions:

The comprehensive review of social-psychological motivational theories addresses the following questions:

- What is the importance of motivation to the Training and Development field?
- What are the essential motivational theories for training?
- What social-psychological factors foster or thwart motivation?
- In what way can motivation be assessed before training is delivered?

Limitations

The limitations within this study are as follows:

1. The motivational theories analyzed were introduced by Western theorists.
Therefore, the findings may not be universal.
2. The motivational theories analyzed were primarily cognitive based theories.
Therefore, behaviorist approaches may have been minimized for consideration for the design of the motivational assessment tool.
3. There are essentially too many theories for the scope of this study. Instead only a select few which have practical implications for training were selected.
4. The proposed motivational assessment tool was not designed for any one specific organization. It is a generalized tool designed to ask the right questions which will accurately assess a trainee's motivation to learn. The motivational assessment tool may need to be tailored or revised to fit the needs of the situation or of the organization.

Chapter II: Literature Review

Introduction

A literature review was conducted to investigate the critical variables of motivation which might have importance to the field of Training and Development and for the purpose of constructing a motivational assessment tool.

The findings of five theories were investigated. The findings of Vroom's Expectancy theory, Locke and Latham's Goal-Setting theory, Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs theory, Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene theory, and Deci and Ryan's Self-Determination theory will be discussed.

The Findings of Vroom's Expectancy Theory

According to Victor H. Vroom, behavior results from the conscious choices we face when presented with a variety of alternatives (Vroom, 1964). Likewise, the motivation for such behavior is dependent on a myriad of individual factors. Vroom asserts that motivation is based on the perception of the individual (Vroom, 2007). Essentially, before a person becomes motivated to behave or perform they will first ask a series of questions regarding the expected outcome of their behavior or performance should they act on the situation at hand. This process allows a person to actively choose or select from possible ways to behave (Sheridan, 1975). For example, in a work setting a person might ask themselves any of the following:

- Will the task at hand be worth the trouble of striving to complete it?
- How much effort will it require?
- What is in it for me?
- Will there be social recognition for completing the task?

- Will there be external factors beyond my control which might prevent me from completely the task?
- Will there be enough time to complete the task?
- Will I be punished for completing the task?

The above questions are cognitions which allow the person to formulate beliefs about the expected outcome should they behave a certain way. Vroom has categorized these cognitions into three variables which help explain the cognitive processes of motivation (Miner, 2005). Vroom labels these three variables as Expectancy, Instrumentality, and Valence (Miner, 2005).

Expectancy

The first variable is expectancy. In order for a person to make a decision about engaging in an activity, they must believe that their effort can and will lead to some form of accomplishment (Miner, 2005). First a person makes a choice about their ability to perform. Second, this formulated belief in their ability to perform ultimately determines the decision that their efforts can and will lead to good performance. For example if a person believes that they have the ability to perform well they will have higher expectations that their efforts will lead to good performance.

Instrumentality

Instrumentality is perceived likelihood that good performance will actually lead to the desired end result (DeSimone, 2002). Even if a person believes in their own ability to perform they might still need to know that good performance will lead to what they want.

Valence

Valence is nothing more than the anticipated value of the perceived outcome (Vroom, 1964). When encountered with a decision making situation, Vroom asserts that a person will calculate the perceived value of the outcome and this will have affect on his or her motivation to perform the task (Vroom, 1964). For example, the perceived value of the likely outcome can be both positive or negative. As Vroom points out,

“There are many outcomes which are positively or negatively valent to persons, but are not in themselves anticipated to be satisfying or dissatisfying. The strength of a person’s desire or aversion for them is based not on their intrinsic properties but on the anticipated satisfaction or dissatisfaction associated with other outcomes to which they are expected to lead.” (Vroom, 1964)

In other words, a low valued anticipated or preferred outcome is less likely to produce the proper amount of motivation to perform. Instead the person may choose another activity. Likewise, a highly valued anticipated or preferred outcome is more likely to produce the proper motivation to perform the task (Sheridan, 1975).

Training Implications of Conclusions of Expectancy Theory

Expectancy theory has implications for the design and effectiveness of training programs. Employees will be motivated to attend and learn from training programs when (DeSimone, 2002):

- 1) Their efforts will result in learning the new skills or information presented in the program.

- 2) Attending the program and learning new skills will increase their job performance.
- 3) Doing so will help them obtain desired outcomes or prevent unwanted outcomes.

The Findings of Locke and Latham's Goal Setting Theory

Locke and Latham present their Goal Setting Theory as a way of explaining how goals, and setting them, have affect on our motivation to perform. In their research they have concluded that by setting goals, our behavior towards performing changes (Locke, 2006). Likewise, by not setting goals our behavior to perform will not change. The main reason for this change in behavior or motivation to perform is that goal setting allows a person to formulate strategies for directing their effort, attention, persistence, time, and patience (Latham, 2004). Furthermore, it generates a sense of purpose or a clear vision as to what will be accomplished if everything goes according to plan. Locke and Latham describe several factors which enhance the likelihood that goals and goal setting will result in motivation to perform. Goals are mostly likely to result in motivation to perform when (Miner, 2005):

- They are associated with higher self-efficacy (not too difficult)
- They are perceived as challenging (not too easy)
- Situational constraints are low (External factors do not prevent goal attainment)
- They are moderated by informative feedback (They provide timely feedback at each step of the way)
- Ambiguity or vagueness of a goal is at a minimum
- They are associated with valued outcomes

(Miner, 2005)

Self-Efficacy, Situational Constraints, and Task Complexity

If goals are not within the perceived ability level of the performer the goal will not be attained (Bandura, 1997). Essentially, a person will assess their own level of ability to perform the task. If the task is far too complex for their perceived ability, motivation to complete the goal will decline or come to a halt (Bandura, 1997).

If goal directed behavior is perceived to be confronted with the possibility of situational constraints, then motivation to complete the goal will decline or come to a halt (Locke, 2002). Situational constraints include any external factors which might make attainment of the goal too difficult or nearly impossible. Examples would be impossible deadlines, proximity, and lack of tools or resources needed to complete the task.

Informative Feedback

Locke and Latham propose that goal oriented performance is also dependent on informative feedback (Locke, 2002). Essentially what this means is that when we engage in attempting to follow the steps of attaining a goal, regular and informative feedback is needed after each and every step. Positive feedback allows us to know that we are doing the right things to achieve the goal at hand. Negative feedback allows us to know that we are not doing the right things to achieve the goal. It is only with some form of feedback that performance to continue the goal is likely to persist. One effective way to evaluate whether efforts and performance of goal directed behavior are positively on the right track, is to construct feedback or checkpoint check lists (Desimone, 2002). At every step of the way a person can evaluate whether they have successfully completed the step and are on their way to successfully attaining the goal.

Ambiguity or Vagueness of a Goal

When a goal is ambiguous a person is not sure what objectives will be accomplished. Furthermore, it usually contains no informative feedback or clear steps on how to attain it. Thus when a goal is not clear it is not properly planned, it does not contain clear steps on how to attain it, and performance to attain the goal will decline or come to a halt (Latham, 2004).

Valued Outcome

The final variable to goal-setting theory is in agreement with Vroom's Expectancy theory in that the outcome of the goal must hold some kind of perceived value (Vroom, 1964). A conscious decision must be made on whether the outcome of attaining the goal will bring either external or internal rewards. If and when it is perceived that the likely outcome of the goal is not worth the effort, performance will decline or come to a halt. Similarly, when the goal is perceived to bring a favored outcome, performance to attain the goal will be at a maximum (Locke, 2006).

Basic Needs Theories

The Findings of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory

According to Abraham Maslow, human motivations and behaviors can be summarized and understood by categorizing them into five basic needs (DeSimone, 2002). They are physiological, safety, love, esteem, and self-actualization. Essentially our perceived needs determine our behavior. For example, when a person is faced with a physiological need such as hunger or thirst they will be motivated to behave in such a way that will satisfy that need. Furthermore, Maslow organized these needs according to a hierarchy in which there are higher and lower order needs. The lower order needs tend

to be physiological and the higher order needs tend to be psychological. Depending on the person and the situation, there are certain needs that are higher in importance and certain needs that are lower in importance. Likewise whenever a given need is gratified it is no longer as important. Instead the next need of higher importance will serve as the center for motivation and behavior. Essentially Maslow felt that we are always in need of something. Once a need is satisfied the tension is gone and the need is no longer the cause of our motivation (DeSimone, 2002).

Physiological Needs

The physiological category of needs are the basic needs to sustain life itself. Namely these needs tend to be food, water, shelter, clothing, and etc. As these needs are thwarted or left unsatisfied they will become the center for motivation and behavior. According to Maslow, physical needs all things being equal have the potential to become the greatest motivator if person is lacking in them (DeSimone, 2002). This can be illustrated by thinking of a the physical attributes of a work or training situation. In a work or training situation, performance is often contingent on the degree to which the physical environment is ergonomically and physically sound, safe, comfortable, or otherwise neutral. In other words when the environment is uncomfortable, too hot, too cold, etc performance will suffer. According to Maslow, the reason for this is that our biggest driving need at the time we encounter such an unpleasant environment will be for our own physiological well being rather than for performing well on a test or on the task at hand (DeSimone, 2002).

Safety Needs / Security Needs

Accordingly and similar to physiological needs, the next need in the Maslow's hierarchy is the need for safety and security (DeSimone, 2002). Once our physiological needs have become satisfied or have become neutralized, our next focus of thought and motivation will turn to our need to feel free from any anxieties, fears, dangers, or deprivation of whatever it is that causes us to feel safe and secure. In the field of training if there are variables at work which might threaten the security or safety needs of a trainee, for example job security, the trainee may not be as motivated to learn during training. If a person does not feel the security in maintaining or keeping their current job they will not be motivated to learn during the training exercise. Essentially the need for self preservation will be the predominant need before all other needs will cause enough motive or desire to become satisfied (DeSimone, 2002).

Social / Affiliation Needs

Since humans are social-animals the next need once physiological and security needs are sufficiently satisfied will be the need for socialization or affiliation. This need primarily concerns the drive to be accepted by others, to have friends, and/or to have a certain degree of interaction and connection with others. Basically, when all other needs are satisfied or suppressed we will strive to make meaningful relationships with others.

Esteem Needs

Once the physiological, security, and affiliation needs have been met, the need for esteem is the next highest need (Blai, 1964). According to Maslow, it is not enough for us to be well fed, safe, and with friends. Once these needs are met we may still feel the need to feel good about who we are, what we do, or that our place in the world is useful

(DeSimone, 2002). Furthermore, we will be inclined to seek self-confidence, prestige, control, and even power in an effort to maintain our well-being.

Self-Actualization Needs

The fifth and final basic need is the need for self-actualization. According to Maslow this need is the most rare and difficult to satisfy or achieve (Blai, 1964). Essentially, self-actualization is the desire to not only do what we love to do, but to be what we can be. In other words it is the need to maximize our own potential by achieving the highest result of our own individual development (Koltko-Rivera, 2006).

Maslow's Later Findings

In much of Maslow's later work he points out that the order of this hierarchy is not meant to be representative of how every individual is motivated (Koltko-Rivera, 2006). Essentially the needs can be organized in any order to represent what is most important to the person and the particular situation at hand (Koltko-Rivera, 2006). If for example, both physiological needs and self-actualization needs are satisfied, perhaps future behavior can be predicted by anticipating anyone of the remaining needs for esteem, safety, or social interactivity as the source of motivation. Furthermore motivation for behavior can also be the result of any combination of the needs, whereby two or more needs create the drive to behave in such a way as to satisfy what is presently devoid (Koltko-Rivera, 2006).

The Findings of Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory

According to Herzberg, human motivation can be summed into two sets of basic needs. Namely they are Motivation needs and Hygiene needs (Miner, 2005). Motivation needs are the basic needs relevant for personal development (Vroom, 1970). Hygiene

needs are the basic needs that are relevant for survival. In his two-factor theory Herzberg posits that until the basic needs for Hygiene and survival are met, the motivator factors will never promote feelings of satisfaction (Khojasteh, 1993). Also, even when Hygiene factors are met satisfaction is not possible unless motivator factors are present as well (Vroom, 1970). Essentially, when hygiene factors are fulfilled the organism and/or person no longer has to worry about survival (Miner, 2005). They are in a neutralized state and free to worry about higher order needs such as personal development, social status, performance enhancement, and etc. Examples of Motivation needs and Hygiene needs are listed in the table below.

Table 1---Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory

Motivator Factors (Increase job satisfaction)	Hygiene Factors
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Achievement ▪ Advancement ▪ Recognition ▪ Responsibility ▪ Work itself 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Supervision ▪ Working Conditions ▪ Salary ▪ Peer Relationship ▪ Company policy ▪ Security

(Khojasteh, 1993)

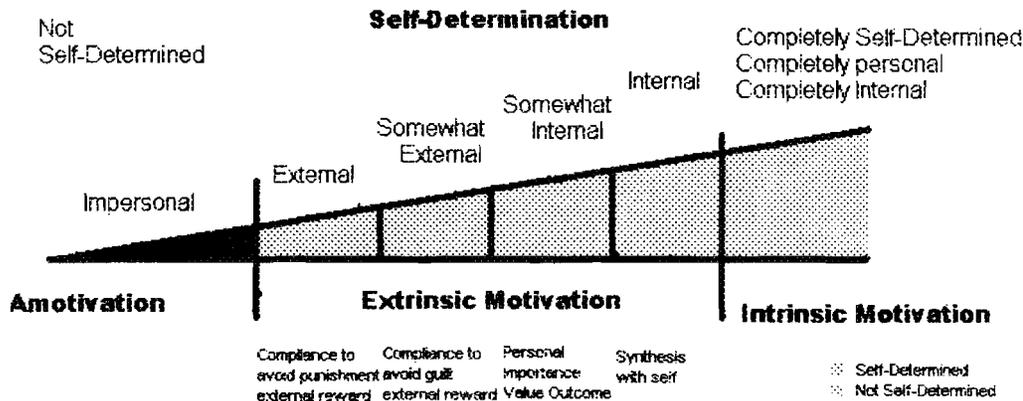
The Findings of Self-Determination Theory

Through out the history of psychology there have been many theories that when boiled down to their remaining elements attempt to explain human motivation. There are also conflicting theories as to the causation of motivation. Mechanistic theories tend to view people as passive or empowered by physiological drives and environmental stimuli (Deci, 1975). These theories including Hullian and Skinnerian, ignored the possibilities for higher needs as motivators by de-emphasizing the role of choice in the determination

of behavior. Skinnerian theory only studied motivation as it was conditioned through reinforcement process. Hullian theory studied motivation as a means for drive reduction but ignored secondary motivations and/or intrinsic motivation (Deci, 1985).

Contrary to the mechanistic or behavioral approach, the organismic Self-Determination theory assumes that humans are active organisms that act on both external and internal environments in accordance to their fulfillment of innate basic needs (Deci, 1980). Self-Determination theory is yet another cognitive theory and is built on the preexisting research of many basic needs theories (Deci, 1985). Self-Determination theory explores the conditions and contexts of which three types of motivation are likely to occur as a direct result of fulfillment of basic needs (Deci, 1985). In particular self-determination occurs as a result of perceived locus of causality, self-regulation, and perceived internalization (Deci, 1985). Self-Determination theory has important implications for studying motivation in the workforce since work is primarily socially controlled. It is precisely the intention of this section to review the contextual as well as personal factors that facilitate extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. First, it is necessary to understand the components of Self-Determination theory. Second, evidence will be provided to suggest that when this approach toward motivation is considered, a more effective training context as well as workplace may result.

Table 2---Self-Determination Continuum



(Ryan, 2000) *This is the authors version of the Self-Determination Continuum

The Model of Self-Determination Theory

Self-Determination theory differentiates types of behavioral regulation in terms of degree to which they represent self-determined versus controlled motivation (Ryan, 2000). The model for Self-Determination theory is a continuum based on types of motivation, regulatory styles or processes, and perceived loci of causality (Ryan, 2000). On the far end and to the left, a person has no self-determination and is thus amotivated. Amotivation is to be without intention or any motivation for a particular behavior. In the middle of this continuum where self-determination begins to emerge, exists four types of extrinsic motivation which vary in terms of their self-regulation styles and perceived loci of causality. Since extrinsically motivated activity is thought of as more controlled or less autonomous it is important to note just how SDT differentiates the types of extrinsic motivation in terms of the degree to which the motivation has been attributed to internal choice (Ryan, 2000). As the activity, which is extrinsically motivated, is more internalized or integrated with ones self it is deemed more autonomous (done by choice).

These four types of behavioral regulation are defined in terms of the degree to which the regulation has been internalized and integrated (Ryan, 2000). Namely and in order from the least to most internalized, they are external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, and integrated regulation (Ryan, 2000). External and introjected regulation are considered to be relatively controlled forms of external motivation. Identified and integrated regulation are considered to be relatively autonomous or self-determined. Finally, there exists a third type of motivation called intrinsic motivation. When a person is intrinsically motivated they are the most self-determined, most autonomous, and perceived locus of causality is internal (Deci, 2000). See table 2.

Besides working on a continuum, Self-Determination is a result of fulfillment of basic needs. These needs appear to be interconnected and dependent of one another especially toward autonomy since autonomy is the main determinant of self-determination or perceived control (Ryan, 2000).

Basic Psychological Needs

As mentioned above, at the basis for all self-determination are three basic needs. They are competence, autonomy, and relatedness. When the fulfillment of these needs is maximum self-determined behavior will occur. Likewise, when fulfillment of these needs are at a minimum, self-determined behavior is less likely to occur. Basic needs facilitate optimal growth, personal expression, personal well-being, and personality integration (Ryan, 2000). The research by Deci and Ryan (2000) suggests that people naturally tend toward contexts, activities, and relationships that support the satisfaction of these needs (Deci, 2000). These needs determine the likelihood that a person will be self-determined or self motivated. When a person's need for competence is fulfilled that

person will feel efficacious and capable of performing. When a person's need for autonomy is fulfilled that person will feel that they are in control and that the perceived locus of causality is their own. When a person's need for relatedness is fulfilled a person feels a sense of acceptance or worthiness and will be more likely to engage in the activity (Deci, 1985).

Intrinsic Motivation

From the time that we are born we possess a certain quality which causes us to seek out novelty, to be naturally curious, to seek challenges, to explore, and to learn. This quality is called intrinsic motivation. We possess it whenever we do an activity for its own sake and not for some tangible external reward. Children have intrinsic motivation when they engage in play or engage in a variety of learning behavior. Adults have intrinsic motivation when they engage in entertainment or leisure activities (Deci, 1975). For example, the artist paints not so much to have painted a picture but to be in an intrinsic state of being which allows him/her to feel a more than ordinary moment of existence. There are a variety of situations people encounter that promote intrinsically motivated behavior. The characteristics of this type of behavior include enjoyment of the task, excitement, a feeling of accomplishment and personal satisfaction. When we experience intrinsic motivation we perceive the causality of the behavior as internal and in accordance to our own personal choice thus we are most self-determined (Deci, 1995). Finally, when we experience intrinsic motivation we are most satisfied in our need fulfillment (Deci 1985).

Cognitive Evaluation Theory

Deci and Ryan (1985) presented Cognitive Evaluation theory as a sub theory of Self-Determination. This sub theory is an attempt to explain the variability in intrinsic motivation. It proposed that external factors such as deadlines, tangible rewards, surveillance, and evaluations tend to thwart feelings of autonomy, cause change in perceived locus of causality from internal to external, and undermine intrinsic motivation (Deci, 1985). On the other hand when external factors such as choice are provided feelings of autonomy prompt a shift from perceived locus of causality from external to internal and an increase in intrinsic motivation results (Deci, 1985). Another component of CET suggests that both fundamental needs for autonomy and competence are important for intrinsic motivation. Competence can enhance intrinsic motivation as in the case of positive performance feedback, but only when accompanied by a sense of autonomy. This means that for intrinsic motivation to be present, immediate contextual support for autonomy and competence must also be present as well. Immediate contextual support for the need for relatedness can also foster intrinsic motivation (Ryan, 2000). For example, teachers who are socially cold and uncaring promote less intrinsic motivation among students (Ryan, 2000).

Extrinsic Motivation and Organismic Integration Theory

Organismic Integration theory is a second sub-theory within Self-Determination theory and is concerned with the variability of extrinsic motivation (Deci, 1985). Extrinsic motivation is performance of an activity in order to obtain some separable or externalized outcome. Although intrinsically motivated people are the most self-determined, self-determined behavior can also occur from being externally motivated.

Much of what we do is not always fully intrinsically motivated (Deci, 1975). Many times what we do is a result of social pressures and a result of responsibilities that are extrinsically motivated. For example, whenever a boss, teacher, or parent attempt to promote certain behaviors from people, the motivation of their behavior can range from amotivation or unwillingness, to passive compliance, to active personal commitment (Ryan, 2000). Extrinsic motivation, according to Self-Determination theory, varies to the degree in which these fostered behaviors are internalized and integrated (Ryan, 2000). Internalization and integration refer to the degree in which a person adopts the cause of the behavior as their own (Ryan, 2000). As people internalize regulations and assimilate them to the self, they experience greater autonomy. There are four varying degrees to which extrinsic motivation is internalized and integrated. Namely, they are external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, and integrated regulation (Ryan, 2000). When extrinsic motivation is maintained by contingencies outside the person it is said to be externally regulated and least autonomous. When extrinsic motivation is introjectedly regulated it is a relatively controlled behavior which is performed to avoid guilt or anxiety. When extrinsic motivation is considered identified regulation, a conscious valuing of a goal and a more autonomous sense of perceived control emerges. Finally, when extrinsic motivation is that of integrated regulation, the perceived control is fully assimilated to the self (Ryan, 2000). Integrated regulation of behavior means that a person will be self-determined even though they are extrinsically motivated.

Evidence for Support of Self-Determination Theory

In this section evidence will be provided that not only depicts the variability of social context, but also depicts the variability in Self-Determination. Since little research

has been done to provide evidence for the need for relatedness, the research provided in this section will primarily focus on the interconnectedness of autonomy and competence. It will also be assumed that within the following experiments the need for relatedness was either held constant by not withholding it, or that it was provided by some inherent social interaction between the experimental figures and subjects.

Evidence for Providing Autonomy: Experiment 1 and 2

In one of his very first experiments in 1969, Edward L. Deci wanted to find out what happens to intrinsic motivation when a person receives an extrinsic reward for doing an activity that they had previously enjoyed doing without any reward (Deci, 1995). He decided that a monetary payment would be one such extrinsic reward. According to Deci, at the time of this experiment contemporary thought was that a monetary reward would increase intrinsic motivation or that extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation might combine in a positive or additive way. With the help of Victor Vroom, Deci's mentor, they developed a general research design that would take place in a laboratory setting (Deci, 1995).

To do the experiment they needed a task that was seemingly novel and intrinsically motivating. They discovered a Parker Brothers puzzle cube game that contained seven different pieces. When fitted together they could form thousands of configurations such as a sitting dog, a couch, or a cube. The fun or what was intrinsically motivating about them was that a person could view a drawn design and then attempt to replicate it. A pilot study was conducted to test the overall intrinsic interest in them and found that they were indeed intrinsically satisfying (Deci, 1995).

The design called for two groups. One group would receive the extrinsic rewards for solving the puzzles and the other group would receive no rewards (control group). The subjects worked on the puzzles for a half hour and then were told by the experimenter that the puzzle solving session was over, that they would have to leave the room to enter their data into a computer, and that they needed to print out a questionnaire for them to complete. In actuality leaving the room was an important part of the experiment because the experiment was concerned with what the subjects did during their free time (Deci, 1995). The experimenter always left the room for exactly eight minutes, via use of a stop watch, and observed through a two-way mirror whether the subjects actually played with the puzzle blocks or engaged in other activities such as reading a current magazine on the near by rack. The main idea is that if they spent their free choice time playing with the puzzle blocks when no rewards were forthcoming and no one was in the room to convince them to do so, then they must be intrinsically motivated to do so (Deci, 1995).

As it turned out those students who had been given a monetary reward for completing the puzzles were far less likely to play with the puzzles just for fun sake during free time than those who had not received any monetary reward. As it seemed if you stopped the pay then you stop the play. This is a classic result of when extrinsic rewards are provided then perceived locus of causality shifts from internal to a more external source. In this case the monetary reward actually reduces autonomy by way of implementation. The feeling of, "I must be doing this puzzle for reward and not for myself" overpowers. This is also a perceived loss of control.

In 1977, another but similar study involved the effect of whether or not the impact of the reward would depend on how the person interprets it or on the type of psychological meaning the person attaches to the reward (Deci, 1995). It was clear from earlier research that people tend to interpret rewards as controls or means of pressuring them into behaving in some way. However, if it was made clear to the subject that the reward was not given in attempt to control but rather was given as acknowledgment or as an indicator of accomplishment, the reward might not undermine intrinsic motivation or self-determination (Deci, 1995).

The environment that was created was again the same laboratory setting and design as the puzzle block experiment but this time the non-reward group was eliminated and two different interpersonal styles were administered. One interpersonal style would be controlling using words like “you should complete this puzzle” or you “have to complete the puzzle.” The other interpersonal style would be non-controlling and used words liked “If you will.” The results yielded that when rewards were given with a controlling style they had a substantially negative effect on autonomy and self-determination (Deci, 1995). However when the rewards were accompanied with the non-controlling style simply for acknowledgement of good work, they did not have detrimental affect on self-determination, intrinsic motivation, or autonomy (Deci, 1995).

In terms of pragmatic purposes, the findings of these studies suggest that it is possible to administer rewards that minimize negative effects. It also suggests that to minimize certain negative effects such as undermining self-determination, the person, boss, parent, or teacher administering the rewards must be careful and conscientious about how they go about doing it. In other words, if rewards need to be given, provide

them in a way that is personal and not demeaning or controlling. The result will yield a healthier person and overall social environment. The next study focuses on a more work related.

Supporting Self-Determination by Providing Autonomy, Competence, and Relatedness.

In the year 2000, Deci, Ryan, and Connel tested self-determination by exploring the interpersonal work climate by managers for their subordinates (Deci, 2000). According to their earlier research the authors identified three critical factors for promoting self-determination in the work place. They are to support autonomy, to provide non-controlling feedback (competence), and to acknowledge the others perspective (relatedness) (Deci, 2000). The main question that was addressed was whether training provided to the managers that was sensitive to understanding the needs of their employees would help increase self-determination. Before they began the study the authors first explored the relation of managers interpersonal orientations to a variety of subordinate variables. This was to assess the initial interpersonal styles of managers and the overall attitude of employees before the intervention would be administered (Deci, 2000).

The data was provided by over 1,000 employees of the corporate Xerox company. It was comprised of field managers and subordinate field technicians. Of the 1,000 employees, approximately half were from a similar Xerox division from a separate town and the other half were from another town. The experiment was conducted by providing one Xerox division with appropriate managerial training that would be conducive to facilitating self-determination and withholding training to those managers from the other division (Deci, 2000).

Three surveys were used to measure the overall subordinate satisfaction, perceived non-controlling feedback by managers, facilitation of autonomy, acknowledgment of subordinates perspective, and level of self-determination in the two work settings. They were the Problems at Work Questionnaire, the Work Climate Survey, and the Employee Attitude Survey (Deci, 2000).

The results yielded that for the Xerox division that implemented the training program a higher overall positive attitude and an increase in self-determination was a result. For the Xerox division that did not receive training, the result was lower self-determination (Deci, 2000).

It certainly seems that this experiment demonstrated that promoting self-determination requires certain basic needs for autonomy (e.g. promoting group problem solving), competence by providing non-controlling feedback, and relatedness by acknowledging subordinates perspective. It could be said that the need for relatedness was provided in this experiment whether the experimenters knew it or not. Whenever a manager acknowledges the perspective of an employee, they are placing themselves in a position that is not so condescending and thereby increasing the chance for a level playing field. When a manager levels the playing field not only are they more likely to be liked by the subordinates but they are also more likely to be intrinsically motivated, feel more autonomous, and more self-determined (Gagne, 2005).

Results

The results of these three experiments suggest that it is possible to not only administer rewards in a non-controlling or autonomous way but that it is also possible to foster self-determination when considerations and actions to promote basic needs are met.

Another conclusion that can be made is that providing choice is central in supporting autonomy and self-determination. It is thus important that people in positions of authority begin to consider how to provide more choice and less control. The research shows that there are ways to provide self-determination. Other ways might include letting work groups participate in the decision making process, by not putting employees under strict surveillance, attending seriously and respectfully to the concerns of employees and imagining how it may look from their point of view, and by providing plenty of informational feedback (Kohn, 1999). All of which will ultimately provide a work environment that is not only positive and healthy but is more self-determined.

Summary of Literature Review

The literature review provided an analysis of five motivational theories which have practical implications for developing a motivational assessment tool. From the analysis of these five theories a list of common variables which foster or thwart motivation was developed.

Expectancy theory asserts that there are three variables which combined or isolated will foster or thwart motivation. The first variable, expectancy, is the perceived ability or belief in themselves, to perform and that the performance will lead to an intended outcome. The second variable, instrumentality, is the perceived notion that even if they have good performance or believe in their ability to perform that no other non-controllable or external forces will prevent them from completing the task successfully. The third variable, valance, is the perceived notion that the outcome will hold some kind of value to the performer.

Goal-Setting theory asserts that there are four variables which will foster or thwart motivation. The first variable, is the degree to which ability to attain the goal is perceived. Self-efficacy, situational constraints, and task complexity are all variables which a person is likely to consider before they are motivated to perform the steps necessary to attain a goal. The second variable, informative feedback, is the perceived understanding of how a person is doing as they are complete the individual steps of goal. The third variable, clarity vs. ambiguity of goal, is the degree to which the purpose of the goal is understood by the person attempting to attain the goal. The fourth variable, value outcome, is the degree to which the person values the outcome if the goal is attained.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs theory asserts that there are lower order need variables and higher order need variables which foster or thwart motivation. The lower order needs tend to be physiological in nature. The higher order needs tend to be psychological. Physiological needs are variables to motivation such as the need food and shelter. Psychological needs are variables to motivation such as the need for safety/security, social/affiliation needs, self-esteem needs, and self-actualization needs.

Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene theory asserts that there are two variables which will foster or thwart motivation depending on the degree to which perceived needs are fulfilled. The motivating variables, such as recognition for good work, are only motivating when hygiene variables are fulfilled. Hygiene variables such as a clean and safe working environment only prevent job dissatisfaction.

Self-Determination theory asserts that there are three variables which foster or thwart self-determined motivation depending on the degree to which perceived needs are fulfilled. The first variable, the need for autonomy, is the perceived notion that their

behavior is a result of their own will, control, or self-identity. The Second variable, the need for competence is the perceived belief in self-efficacy or ability to perform. The third variable, the need for affiliation / relatedness, is the perceived belief that your social position is equal or at least accepted by others.

Chapter III: Methodology

Introduction

The scope of this study was to utilize a systems approach to construct a Motivational Assessment Tool. The systems approach was adapted from a seven step instrument design model by Lee and Nelson (2006) to ensure a sound and valid instrument. Steps one through five were used to construct the proposed motivational assessment tool. Consequently, as will be mentioned in the recommendations, the instrument may need to be pilot tested and/or revised as indicated by steps six and seven, so that the instrument will be well suited for the requirements of the organization it will be administered to.

Instrument Design Process (Lee, Nelson 2006)

Step One—Determine the purpose of the study and objectives

Step Two—Determine what data is needed

Step Three—Identify Data Sources (Employees who will go through training)

Step Four—Design and Develop the instrument

Step Five—Review for Content Validity and Efficiency

Step Six—Pilot test

- Check validity
- Check reliability

Step Seven—Revise as needed

Step One: Purpose and Objectives

The determined purpose of this instrument is to assess and provide insight for a trainee's overall motivation to learn in a given training context. From the literature review, it was determined that five theories of motivation would accurately assess a trainees desire to learn. After careful analysis it was determined that these five theories contained many common themes. Furthermore, it was determined that these common themes could be generalized into three broad categories. Namely they are: Goals and Expectations, Basic Needs, and Self-Determination. Finally, because the motivation theories were categorized into three comprehensive categories, objectives for the motivational assessment tool could be made.

Objective 1: To assess motivation by asking trainees specific questions which correspond to their goals and expectations for the future training.

Objective 2: To assess motivation by asking trainees specific questions which correspond to their basic need fulfillment.

Objective 3: To assess motivation by asking trainees specific questions which correspond to Self-Determination.

Step Two: Determine what data is needed

From the determined purpose and listed objectives the type of data needed to assess the objectives was determined. Given the full range of possible data collecting techniques such as interviews, focus groups, case studies, archival data and etc., it was determined that the best way to assess and collect data for trainee motivation is to utilize a questionnaire format which specifically addresses the above objectives. A questionnaire has the capability of assessing the needed data in that it includes both

quantitative data (data obtained from rating scale response) as well as qualitative data (data obtained from open ended questions). Furthermore, the type of data which will be collected while utilizing the proposed tool is commonly known as Self-Reported data. Self-reported data can provide insight as to what the trainee is feeling, attitude, personality, or even perceptions on future training effectiveness (DeSimone, 2002). Ultimately the data collected from the questionnaire responses will be used to determine if an employee is or is not experiencing the motivational variables as described by each objective. According to Lee and Nelson (2006) content validity can be accounted for by constructing a table similar to the one below. A table was constructed to ensure that the needed data is related to the objectives of the study. The first two columns were used to determine the contents of the instrument.

Table 3---Data Needed

Objectives	Data Needed	Instrument Items
1. Assess goals and expectations for future training	1a. Expectancy 1b. Instrumentality 1c. Valance 1d. Self-Efficacy 1e. Complexity of goal 1f. Situational Constraints 1g. Informative Feedback 1h. Clarity vs. Ambiguity of goal 1i. Value of Outcome.	1. Items 1-15 Open-ended # 1
2. Assess basic need fulfillment	2a. Physiological Needs 2b. Safety/Security Needs 2c. Social/Affiliation Needs 2d. Esteem Needs 2e. Self-Actualization Need 2f. Motivator Needs 2g. Hygiene Needs	2. Items 16-30 Open-ended # 2
3. Assess Self-Determination	3a. Autonomy Needs 3b. Competence Needs 3c. Relatedness Needs	3. Items 31-45 Open-ended # 3

Step Three: Identify Data Sources

The determined data source will be the designated employees that are expected to undergo training in the near future. Essentially they are the determined subject matter experts and will provide the needed self-reported information.

Step Four: Design and Develop the Instrument

From the determined objectives and data needed columns of table 3 a motivational assessment tool was made. These two columns determined the essential content needed for the construction of the instrument. The finalized version of the motivational assessment tool includes three areas for collecting and organizing data. They are the demographic information, the likert scale questions, and the open-ended questions.

Directions

An effort was made to ensure that the directions were clear and concise. If and when a survey is difficult to understand response rates will suffer (Lee, Nelson 2006). Thus, the general language of the survey needed to be easy for the trainee to understand. As a result no terms, words, acronyms, or extended sentences which might make the directions difficult to understand were used. Basically the directions were kept at an 8th grade reading level. Additionally, included within the directions was an answer key for the likert response questions. (e.g. 1 = SD = Strongly Disagree, 5 = SA = Strongly Agree)

Demographic Information

A demographic information section was included to provide any needed information about who has completed the instrument. The data obtained from the motivational assessment items can then be cross-tabulated or regrouped according to who

has filled out the instrument (ASTD, 1990). For example, the responses of those trainees who have worked at the organization for less than 1 year could be compared to the responses of those who have worked there 1-2 years, 3-5 years, 6-10 years, and so on. Additionally, by including the demographic information further conclusions can be made about who is motivated and who is not. For example, those from a particular department who have been in the department longer may be less motivated to learn new material vs. those who are new to the department. The demographic information that was included for the purpose of this survey are number of years with the company, part-time/full-time, 1st shift/2nd shift, and department. Each demographic item has a corresponding number to make data entry less difficult. Once the motivational assessment tool has been administered a frequency table can be constructed to show the results of each demographic item (Anastasi, 1988). The table below provides an example of how the demographic item for "How many years have you worked here?," can be analyzed according to frequency of response and percentage of response. For example, the total number of people reporting to have worked at this company for less than 1 year are 54 which is about 29.8% of those who took the survey. See the example table 4 below.

Table 4---How many years have you worked here?

	Frequency	Percentage
1. Less than 1 Year	54	29.8%
2. 1-2 Years	32	17.7%
3. 3-5 Years	46	25.4%
4. 6-10 Years	31	17.1%
5. 11-20 Years	10	5.5%
6. 21 or More Years	8	4.4%

Likert Scale Response Questions

Because the majority of the questions which would assess motivation were attitude or opinion based, a likert response scale was used for the instrument. Another reason a likert scale was used is for simplicity. Many people are familiar with how to respond to such items on a questionnaire (Lee, Nelson 2006). Since many people already know how to use a likert or rating style of survey, reliability will be high.

The three major sections of the instrument (goals / expectations, basic needs, and self-determination) utilize likert response questions. For each section, fifteen likert questions were formed to ask about the given theoretical variables which determine motivation. A five point rating scale was used ranging from 1 Strongly Disagree, 2 disagree, 3 undecided, 4 agree and 5 Strongly Agree. It was determined that an uneven number such as a five point rating scale would benefit the study in that the middle response choice “undecided” would also be important for determining information about all those who are unsure about the particular variable of motivation.

Given the wording of the items and the variable in which it specifically addresses a conclusion about whether trainees agree with the statement can be made. For example in the section which assesses motivation by asking about basic needs at work two questions address the physiological need for safety. The first question, item number 16, states “My working environment is safe.” The second question, item number 18, states “My working environment is dangerous to my health.” Also, these questions can be cross-referenced for reliability given that they essentially assess the same thing. In other words, respondents should consistently respond to these items even though they are

worded the opposite. (e.g. Strongly Agree for “my environment is safe” and Strongly Disagree for “my environment is dangerous”)

The likert scale response portion of the survey can be quantified using a frequency analysis. Essentially the results to each question can be entered into a table to indicate the frequency of response. See Table 5 below.

Table 5---Item #16. My working environment is safe...

	Frequency	Percentage
1 = Strongly Disagree	20	11%
2 = Disagree	30	16.6%
3 = Undecided	31	17.1%
4 = Agree	46	25.4%
5 = Strongly Agree	54	29.8%

Open-Ended Questions

Three open-ended questions were also included in each of the three objective specific sections. Essentially these questions were designed to supplement the closed-ended likert response questions. Additionally, these three questions were included at the end of each section to summarize what the respective section was assessing. Inferences and additional information that was not included in the closed-ended questions can be made by reviewing the open-ended responses and categorizing them into common themes. The frequency of the responses categorized in common themes will give indication of areas of interest or concern pertaining to each section. See the example Table 6 below.

Table 6---What are your expectations or goals for future training?

	Frequency	Percentage
Theme 1—To do really well	20	11%
Theme 2—To learn new things	30	16.6%
Theme 3—To improve my work performance	31	17.1%
Theme 4—To improve my future at the company	46	25.4%
Theme 5—To earn respect and recognition	54	29.8%

Step Five: Review for Content Validity

Each question was carefully considered for content validity by examining each of the corresponding theory variables which have affect on motivation. Each question was designed to assess one or more variables of each theory (See tables 7-11).

Table 7---Survey Section: Goals / Expectations

Expectancy Theory	Corresponding Question Number
▪ Expectancy	1,3,4,5,7,8,9,11,12
▪ Instrumentality	1,2,3,4,5,7,8,9,11,12
▪ Valance	1,6,10,14,15

Table 8---Survey Section: Goals / Expectations

Goal-Setting Theory	Corresponding Question Number
▪ Self-Efficacy	1,2,3,4,6,11
▪ Complexity of Goal	1,2,3,4,5,7
▪ Situational Constraints	1,2,3,4,7,11,12
▪ Informative Feedback	8,11,12
▪ Clarity vs. Ambiguity of Goal	1,5,7,9
▪ Value Outcome	1,6,10,14,15

Table 9---Survey Section: Basic Needs

Maslow's Hierarch of Needs Theory	Corresponding Question Number
▪ Physiological Needs	16,17,18,19
▪ Safety / Security Needs	16,18,20,21
▪ Social / Affiliation Needs	22,23
▪ Esteem Needs	20,23,25,26,27
▪ Self-Actualization Needs	20,27,28,29,30

Table 10---Survey Section: Basic Needs

Motivation-Hygiene Theory	Corresponding Question Number
▪ Motivator Factors	22,23,26,27,28,29,30
▪ Hygiene Factors	16,17,18,19,20,21,23,22

Table 11---Survey Section: Self-Determination

Self-Determination Theory	Corresponding Question Number
▪ Autonomy	31,32,33,34,35,36,37,38,39,42,44,45
▪ Competence	31,32,33,34,35,35,37,39,43,44,45
▪ Relatedness / Affiliation	31,33,34,36,41,42,43

Chapter IV: Recommendations

Introduction

Chapter four presents a critical analysis of the five research questions that were addressed in this study as well as recommendations for utilizing the motivational assessment tool.

Critical Analysis

There were four research questions that this study addressed;

- 1) What is the importance of motivation to the Training and Development field?
- 2) What are the essential motivational theories for training?
- 3) What social-psychological factors foster or thwart motivation?
- 4) In what way can motivation be assessed before training is delivered?

The following is a critical analysis of the research questions.

What is the importance of motivation to the Training and Development field? The importance of motivation within the field of Training and Development is evident whenever the need to change employee behavior is present. Because training programs are generally attempts to change workplace learning, performance, and behavior it is essential to know the theoretical findings which present the variables that have influence on behavior.

What are the essential motivational theories for training? The essential motivational theories for training are cognitive based. They were divided into three categories for the purpose of simplifying the survey. Goal / Expectancy theories are essential in that they address the reasons why an employee might be willing to put forth the motivation and effort to attain goals given expectations for likely outcomes. Basic

needs theories are essential in that they address the physiological and psychological needs which employees strive for or in which need to be present to maximize performance, learning, and behavior. Self-Determination is essential because it addresses the reasons why a person might feel either extrinsically or intrinsically motivated to learn, perform, or behave.

What social-psychological factors foster or thwart motivation? The factors which foster and thwart motivation were addressed during the literature review. Essentially the factors also listed in tables 7-11 are the controlling variables in which allow motivation to work. Some factors are cognitive perceptions of how interpret what is needed to be done to complete a task. Other factors are determined by the degree in which our basic needs are fulfilled. Finally, factors which foster or thwart motivation typically involve a myriad of situational, contextual, as well as cognitive and internal circumstances.

In what way can motivation be assessed before training is delivered? Motivation can be assessed before training by administering a motivational assessment tool which effectively and efficiently gauges the variables which determine motivation. Self-reported data can be collected and processed in a frequency analysis which will allow a trainer to make inferences and judgments about the trainees generalized desire to learn.

Recommendations

Recommendations for Pilot Testing (Step 6)

- 1) It is recommended that a pilot test be conducted by administering the assessment tool to a small sample of employees.
 - a. The proposed assessment tool does not take into account the complexities which are only specific to a particular organization.

- b. A pilot test will provide information on whether the assessment tool is appropriate for the specific needs of the organization.
- 2) It is recommended that the assessment tool be pilot tested and reviewed for predictive validity.
 - a. Check to see if level of motivation predicts transfer of learning

Recommendations for Revising the Assessment Tool (Step 7)

- 1) It is recommended that the assessment tool be revised as needed
- 2) It is recommended that a systems approach is used to revise the instrument
 - a. A systems approach utilizes a model such as Lee and Nelsons (2006) for any revisions

Delivery of the Motivational Assessment Tool

- 1) It is recommended that the proposed motivational assessment tool be delivered as a supplement to all other training assessments (e.g. climate assessment).
- 2) It is recommended that the motivational assessment tool be delivered in such a way that is consistent with the motivational findings of the research
 - a. Administer the tool after lunch so that physiological needs for food will not overpower the motivation to complete the survey.
- 3) It is recommended that adequate time be allowed to fill out the survey.
- 4) It is recommended that the proposed motivational assessment tool be delivered before training is administered.

The Training Environment

- 1) It is recommended that the training environment is comfortable and free from distractions which might subtract from any of the basic needs or ability to achieve goal of learning.
- 2) It is recommended that the training environment is a classroom setting.

The Trainer (The social conductor of Training)

- 1) It is recommended that the trainer be socially engaging, friendly, and related to the trainees.
- 2) It is recommended that the trainer is not intimidating.
- 3) It is recommended that the trainer is not the boss, manager, or anyone that is “in charge” of the organization
- 4) It is recommended that a person from the Human Resources or Training Department deliver the training.
- 5) It is recommended that the trainer does not make it appear as though he/she is watching over the trainees. Strict surveillance decreases autonomy and comfort.
- 6) It is recommended that trainer is knows the proper procedures of how to administer and deliver instructions for completing the survey
- 7) It is recommended that if more than one trainer is used that they all deliver the survey in a similar and standardized manner.

Recommendations for results of assessment

- 1) It is recommended that the survey results be used to identify problem areas in motivation to learn

- 2) It is recommended that the survey results be used to identify problem areas in motivation to perform
- 3) It is recommended that the survey results be used to identify problem areas in motivation to transfer training back to the job
- 4) It is recommended that the survey results be used as a supplement to all post-training evaluations. Ask "Did training work?" "Was it from motivation to learn?"

References

- American Society for Training & Development (1990). *ASTD Trainer's Toolkit: Needs Assessment Instruments* (E. L. Allen Editor). Alexandria, VA: Author.
- Anastasi, A., (1988). *Psychological Testing* (6th edition). New York, New York: Macmillan Publishing Company
- Bandura, A., (1997). *Self-Efficacy: The Exercise of Control*. New York: W.H. Freeman and Company
- Blai, B. Jr., (1964) An Occupational Study of Job and Need Satisfaction. *Psychological Reports*, Vol 14(1), pp. 81-82
- Deci, E.L. (1975). *Intrinsic Motivation*. (Edited by Elliot Aaronson) New York: Plenum Press
- Deci, E.L (1980). *The Psychology of Self-Determination*. Massachusetts; Lexington Books.
- Deci, E.L., Connell, J.P., & Ryan, R.M. (2000). Intrinsic Need Satisfaction: A Motivational Basis of Performance and Well-being in Two Work Settings. *The Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. 21, 755-775.
- Deci, E.L., & Flaste, R. (1995). *Why We Do What We Do; Understanding Self-Motivation*. New York: Penguin Books.
- Deci, E.L., & Ryan, R.M. (1985). *Intrinsic Motivation and Self-Determination In Human Behavior*. New York: Plenum Press.
- DeSimone, R.L., Werner, J.M., & Harris, D.M. (2002) *Human Resource Development* (3rd edition). Mason, OH: Thompson South-Western

- Gagne, M. & Deci, E.L. (2005). Self-Determination Theory and work Motivation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26, 331-362.
- Khojasteh, M. (1993) Motivating the Private vs. Public Sector Managers. *Public Personnel Management*. Vol. 22(3) pp. 391-401
- Kohn, A. (1999). *Punished by Rewards: The Trouble With Goldstars, Incentive Plans, A's, Praise, and Other Bribes*. New York; Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Koltko-Rivera, M.E. (2006) Rediscovering the Later Version of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs: Self-Transcendence and Opportunities for Theory, Research, and Unification. *Review of General Psychology*. Vol. 10(4) pp.302-317
- Latham, G.P. (2004) The Motivational Benefits of Goal-Setting. *Academy of Management Executive*, Vol. 18, Issue 4 pp. 126-129
- Lee, H.D., & Nelson, O.W. (2006). *Instructional Analysis and Course Development*. Homewood, IL: American Technical Publishers
- Levesque, C., Staneck, L.R., et al. (2004). Autonomy and Competence in German and American University Students: A comparative study based on self-determination theory. *Journal of Educational Psychology* 96(1), 68-84.
- Locke, E.A. (2004) Guest Editors Introduction: Goal Setting and Its Applications to the World of Business. *Academy of Management Executive*, Vol. 18, Issue 4 pp. 124-125
- Locke, E.A., & Latham, G.A. (2002) Building a Practically Useful Theory of Goal Setting and Task Motivation: A 35-year Odyssey. *American Psychologist*. Vol 57(9) pp. 705-717

- Locke, E.A., & Latham, G.A. (2006) New Directions in Goal-Setting Theory. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, Vol 15(5) pp. 265-268
- Meyer, J.P, Becker, T.E. (2004). Employee Commitment and Motivation: A conceptual analysis and integrative model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(6) 991-1007
- Miner, J.B., (2005). *Organizational Behavior 1: Essential Theories of Motivation and Leadership*. Armonk, N.Y., London, England: M.E. Sharpe Inc.
- Ryan, R.M. & Deci, E.L. (2000). Self-Determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation; social development and well-being. *American Psychologist*, 55(1), 78-86
- Salvia, J., & Ysseldyke, J.E. (1991). *Assessment (5th edition)*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Sheridan, J.E., & Slocum, J.W., Min, Byung (1975) Motivational Determinants of Job Performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol 60(1), pp. 119-121
- Tobey, D. (2005). *Needs Assessment Basics*. Alexandria, VA: ASTD Press.
- Vroom, V.H., (1964). *Work and Motivation*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Vroom, V.H., & Deci, E.L. (1970). *Management and Motivation: Selected Readings*. Baltimore, MD: Penguin Books
- Vroom, V.H., & Jago, A.G. (2007) The Role of the Situation in Leadership. *American Psychologist*, Vol 62 pp. 17-24

Pre-Training Assessment Survey

Directions: Respond to each of the following statements based on your experiences at work. The information obtained for this survey will be used to further improve the training program.

- 1 = SD = Strongly Disagree
- 2 = D = Disagree
- 3 = U = Undecided

- 4 = A = Agree
- 5 = SA = Strongly Agree

Demographic Information:

How many years have you worked here?

- 1. Less than 1 Year
- 2. 1-2 Years
- 3. 3-5 Years
- 4. 6-10 Years
- 5. 11-20 Years
- 6. 21 or More Years

- 1. Part-Time 1. 1st shift
- 2. Full-Time 2. 2nd shift

What Department do you work in?

- 1. Shipping
- 2. Receiving
- 3. Office

Goals / Expectations:

SD	D	U	A	SA
1	2	3	4	5

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. I expect the training will improve my performance..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. Past training programs have improved my performance..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. I will get a good score on my quiz..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. In the past I have done well on training quizzes..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. I believe the training will be hard..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. It is my goal to learn as much as I can during the training..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. I believe the training will be easy..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. I believe the trainer will give adequate feedback | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. The purpose of the training will be clear... .. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. In general I am a goal oriented person..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. In the past I have accomplished most of my goals at work..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. In the past my company has provided support for my goals at work | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. I expect the training will improve my goals in the future | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. I value continuing education and training at work..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. I value learning how to improve my performance..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

What are your expectations or goals for future training at work?

Pre-Training Assessment Survey

Directions: Respond to each of the following statements based on your experiences at work. The information obtained for this survey will be used to further improve the training program.

1 = SD = Strongly Disagree
 2 = D = Disagree
 3 = U = Undecided

4 = A = Agree
 5 = SA = Strongly Agree

Basic Needs:	SD	D	U	A	SA
	1	2	3	4	5
16. My working environment is safe.....	1	2	3	4	5
17. I feel well rested after my breaks.....	1	2	3	4	5
18. My working environment is dangerous to my health.....	1	2	3	4	5
19. My working conditions are comfortable.....	1	2	3	4	5
20. I worry about loosing my job in the future.....	1	2	3	4	5
21. I believe my job security is high.....	1	2	3	4	5
22. I feel I get along with other co-workers.....	1	2	3	4	5
23. I have friends at work.....	1	2	3	4	5
24. I feel other co-workers get along with me.....	1	2	3	4	5
25. I feel good about my self-esteem at work.....	1	2	3	4	5
26. In general, I have a positive attitude at work.....	1	2	3	4	5
27. I believe I perform my job to the best of my ability.....	1	2	3	4	5
28. I feel my job is suitable for the kind of person I am.....	1	2	3	4	5
29. My job does not allow me to be all that I can be.....	1	2	3	4	5
30. My job brings out my full potential.....	1	2	3	4	5

Are your basic needs satisfied at work?

Pre-Training Assessment Survey

Directions: Respond to each of the following statements based on your experiences at work. The information obtained for this survey will be used to further improve the training program.

1 = SD = Strongly Disagree
 2 = D = Disagree
 3 = U = Undecided

4 = A = Agree
 5 = SA = Strongly Agree

Self-Determination:	SD	D	U	A	SA
	1	2	3	4	5
31. I feel my ideas are considered by upper management.....	1	2	3	4	5
32. I often have strict deadlines to complete all my work.....	1	2	3	4	5
33. I feel I will be punished for poor performance.....	1	2	3	4	5
34. The deadlines for completing my work are flexible	1	2	3	4	5
35. I feel good in my ability to do my work.....	1	2	3	4	5
36. I feel that upper management is always watching over me.....	1	2	3	4	5
37. I have a personal sense of pride in my work.....	1	2	3	4	5
38. I only work to pay the bills.....	1	2	3	4	5
39. I feel a sense of self-accomplishment when I work.....	1	2	3	4	5
40. My boss is a fellow team member	1	2	3	4	5
41. I feel as though my boss could be a friend outside work.....	1	2	3	4	5
42. I feel as though my boss uses fear to motivate me.....	1	2	3	4	5
43. My boss makes me feel accepted at work.....	1	2	3	4	5
44. I feel determined to fix any problems at work.....	1	2	3	4	5
45. My boss provides positive feedback about the quality of my work.....	1	2	3	4	5

Are you self-determined at work?
