Convergence of Antecedents on Work Motivation and Work Outcomes

Luu Trong Tuan

National University of Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam

Abstract *Numerous factors present in the contemporary organizational environment influence both content and process of motivation. From reviewing theories of work motivation, this paper seeks to construct an integrative motivation antecedents model that integrates the emergence of motivating behavior in work environment, identifies the right antecedents of the desired motivation, and then guides management on loading them into sources from where motivation will emerge. This paper, furthermore, illustrates the dynamic linkages in this model through a case research.*

Keywords: *work motivation; work outcome; motivation antecedents*

1. Introduction

As a living entity, the organization is constantly evolving and changing its characteristics; thus, a dynamic perspective is required to understand human motivation at work. This dynamic nature sets the guidelines for rediscovering, adapting, or updating the theory and practice of motivation. The question now becomes: How does one inspire employees with their work and their employer's goals considering the dynamics of motivation in a work environment?

A number of factors present in the contemporary organizational environment affect both content and process of motivation. It becomes vital for managers to decide how to motivate their employees only after considering these factors as they apply to their organizational environment and, preferably, after making some adaptations specific to each department, section, and employee.

From reviewing theories of work motivation, this paper seeks to develop an integrative motivation antecedents model that integrates the emergence of motivating behavior in work environment, identifies the right antecedents of the desired motivation, and then guides management on loading them into sources from where motivation will emerge. This paper, furthermore, illustrates the dynamic links in the model through a case study.

2. Review on Theories of Work Motivation

Much has been written about motivation in the workplace during recent decades. These theories may be grouped into two categories, each of which pursues one perspective. The first holds that as long as an individual's job contains sufficient "content" variables such as skill variety and challenge, an outcome of high motivation and subsequent job satisfaction will result. The other "process" perspective contends that these outcomes depend not only on content variables, but also on how workers evaluate the pros and cons of undertaking a job. This perspective is embodied in "expectancy theory" and focuses on the worker's perceived relationship between effort, reward and performance and the impact of this relationship on motivation (McShane and Travaglione 2003). Kanfer (1992) reclassifies both content and process theories into "distal" and "proximal" categories. Theories falling into the distal category are figuratively distant from the workplace (personality, environmental conditions impacting on psychologically-based motives and cognitive choice). The proximal category encompasses constructs alleged to have a direct impact on work performance such as Locke's (1968) "goal-setting theory".

Hackman and Oldham's (1975) Job Characteristics Model (JCM) is based on the way workers perceive specific dimensions of their jobs. These variables are conceptualised as discrete "core job dimensions" interpreted in Table 1.

**Table 1**. *Core job dimensions*

Skill variety		Degree to which jobs require a variety of different activities in carrying out work involving using several different skills and talents of employees
Task identity		Degree to which jobs require completion of "whole" and identifiable piece of work, i.e. doing a job from start to finish with a visible outcome
Task significance		Degree to which jobs have substantial impact in lives or work of others, i.e. whether in the immediate organisation or in the external environment
Autonomy		Degree to which jobs provide substantial freedom, independence and discretion to employees in scheduling work and in determining procedures to be used
Job feedback		Degree to which carrying out work activities results in employees obtaining direct and clear information about their performance effectiveness

Source: *Adapted from Hackman and Oldham's (1975)*

If jobs contain "sufficient" amounts of "skill variety", "task identity", "task significance", "autonomy", "job feedback", "agent feedback" and "dealing with others" then three cognitive states are aroused. These are known as "experienced meaningfulness", "experienced responsibility" and "knowledge of results". The cognitive responses then affect an outcome state of "internal work motivation". However, these authors qualify this relationship by proposing that internal work motivation also depends on "growth need strength" (GNS).

The "moderator" GNS influences the above relationships and is conceptualised as the propensity of someone responding favourably (or not) to undertaking jobs which are challenging and offer a chance to "learn and grow". Other studies using Hackman and Oldham's construct as a basis, report that additional variables such as work context (Ferris and Gilmore 1984), locus of control (Lim and Teo 1998), affinity for informal group formation (Lee-Ross 1999) and so on are also indispensable moderators. Thus, the inherent flexibility of the JCM permits the incorporation of alternative research specific variables. The variables and relationships are displayed in Figure 1.

Figure 1. *The job characteristics model showing core job dimensions, critical psychological states and affective outcomes moderated by growth need strength*
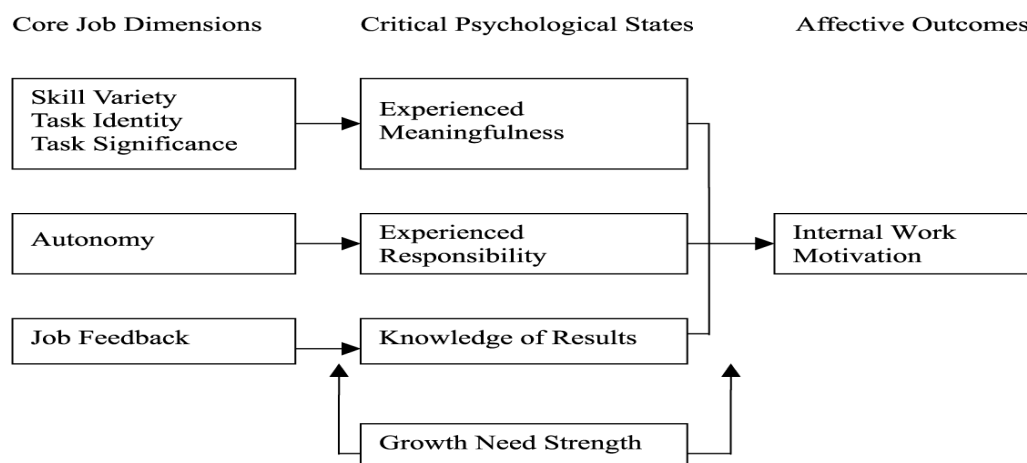
Source: Adapted from Hackman and Oldham (1975, p. 161)

Hackman and Oldham's theory of motivation is concerned with "internal work motivation" (IWM) whereby a self-perpetuating cycle of motivation is established within the worker. That is, the more effort expended on a job rich in related content variables results in an increasingly motivational job. Their notion has found some support from Fried and Ferris (1987), Anderson (1984) and Roedel and Nystrom (1988), who found significant relationships between model-specified variables and other outcomes.

Hackman and Oldham also contend that jobs each have their own motivating potential. Using a formula based on job-related content variables it is possible to calculate this motivating potential index as shown below (Hackman and Oldham, 1975):

$$\text{Motivating potential score (MPS)} = \left(\frac{\text{Skill variety} + \text{Task identity} + \text{Task significance}}{3}\right) \times \text{Autonomy} \times \text{Feedback}.$$

Range =1 (lowest) to 343 (highest)

The formula shows that jobs with a "low" MPS will likely fail to motivate incumbents well unless workers have a "low" need for GNS. That is, where they prefer jobs which do not offer personal challenge or allow an opportunity to "learn and grow" on the job.

In the last decade we witness a shift an individual approach towards a multi-level approach of work motivation on the group, and organizational level. In his Annual review chapter of Organizational Behavior (OB), O'Reilly (1991) pointed that Annual Review authors in 1982, 1984, 1985, and 1987 called for more attention to cross-level research studies that incorporate both individual and group or organizational-level variables. At the present decade, while the micro side of OB seems to be in a dormant period, attention and interest have shifted substantially to the macro side. The subsequent Annual Review of Organizational Behavior by Mowday and Sutton (1993) shifts towards a more macro-level under the title of "Linking Individuals and Groups to Organizational Contexts" (p.195). Moreover, the 1995 Annual Review of Organizational Behavior (Wilpert 1995) focuses on more molar and pervasive aspects of organizational characteristics, antecedents and consequences of practices, as well as structures, and processes in and of organizations.

A significant change has occurred since Cappelli and Sherer (1991) wrote their influential chapter in which they warned that unless OB incorporates contextual factors to explain organizational behavior, and unless it succeeds in bridging the micro-macro relationships, "OB is likely to miss the chance to establish any independent identity" (p. 97).

Interest in the multi-level of analysis has led to three new developments: First, an emphasis on the meso-level of analysis (Cappelli and Sherer 1991; Rousseau and House 1994). The meso level, or the organizational level is perceived to be the bridge between micro-level individual behavior and the macro-level of societal, cultural, and economic factors (Cappeli and Sherer 1991). A meso approach refers to "an integration of micro and macro theory in the study of processes specific to organizations which by their very nature are a synthesis of psychological and socioeconomic processes. Meso research occurs in an organizational context where processes of two or more levels are investigated simultaneously" (Rousseau and House 1994: 15).

Second, a hierarchical approach which examines organizations within national cultures, and individuals within organizations has recently been developed (Earley 1994; Earley and Brittain 1992; Hofstede, Bond and Luk 1993; Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohavy, and Sanders 1990; Klein, Dansereau and Hall 1994). Models of this type examine both within and between group variance. The meaning of a personal attribute is determined by its deviation from the mean group.

Third, micro-level concepts such as goals, self-efficacy, affect, and learning are transferred to the group and organizational level-group goals, group efficacy, group affect, and

organizational learning (Crocker, Luhtanen and Blaine 1994; Erez and Katz 1995; Senge 1994; Weingart 1992; Weldon, Jehn, and Pradham 1991; Weldon and Weingart 1993.)

In parallel to the effect of individual goals on individual performance, group goals were found to have a significant effect on group performance (Weingart 1992; Weldon, Jehn, and Pradham 1991). Collective efficacy, in parallel to self-efficacy, is the belief in one's group capabilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources and course of action needed to meet given situational demands. Collective-efficacy becomes meaningful and separate from self-efficacy in groups with a high degree of interdependence among the group members. In highly interdependent tasks collective-efficacy has a stronger effect on performance than self-efficacy. In contrast, self-efficacy has a stronger effect on the performance of low interdependent tasks (Erez and Katz 1995).

3. Antecedents on Work Motivation and Work Outcomes

Every organization has some sources from where employee motivation sprouts. It may depend on how management loads these sources with the factors that energize, direct, and maintain appropriate work behavior in them. These are not what we have earlier known as *contents* of motivation, which are mostly a simple and general compilation of employee needs. In contrast to aiming at the fulfillment of employees' cognitive needs, these factors connect with their psyches. They jolt up their psyches, buoying creativity in their minds and releasing energy in their bodies. Because the presence of these factors will cause motivation in employees, we call them the *antecedents* of motivation. Their successful connection with the employees will excite and energize them rather than create or recognize a need-deficit and then fulfill it, or simply fulfill a preexisting need.

If the right antecedents connect with the employees, i.e. if employees find them exciting, they get motivated. In the alternative, they do not. There are three broad classifications of these antecedents based on the source from where they emerge:

1. Job antecedents.
2. Outcomes antecedents.
3. Organizational system antecedents.

3.1 Job Antecedents

Hackman and Oldham (1980) argued that the most effective means of motivating individuals is through the optimal design of jobs. The authors proposed that the means for increasing internal work motivation is to design jobs that will (1) provide variety, involve completion of a whole, and have a positive impact on the lives of others; (2) afford considerable freedom and discretion to the employee (what action theorists refer to as decision latitude); and (3) provide meaningful performance feedback. The authors further explain that individual differences in the strength of growth needs moderate the degree to which these job characteristics have a positive impact on job performance. Self-determination theory concurs that these job characteristics will tend to promote autonomous motivation, and research is consistent with this view (Gagné, Senécal, and Koestner 1997).

Thus, the most important job antecedent is its job attractiveness – ability to attract and retain employees – in terms of job variety and significance. While designing a job, management can include factors that will glue the employee's mind and effort into the job. The main purpose of loading this job antecedent is to develop a bond between the job and its doer – making the job so inviting and engrossing that its doer would not like to part with it even for a short period of time.

Many employers design unique and responsive factors in jobs to recruit, retain, and keep employees motivated; while others would build up job autonomy and mobility by letting their employees rediscover and redesign their jobs after their recruitment with the aim of letting them construct the job antecedents important to them, and to some extent, job autonomy and mobility relate to job variety.

Job fit with the family requirements is very important to the new employees. A total of 84 percent of them consider a job favorably if it comes with a family-friendly work schedule. Job family-friendliness, which relates to job mobility, has been a very popular job antecedent and most organizations have successfully motivated their employees with it. Since the 1980s, jobs with this antecedent, even with lower financial rewards, have been preferred by a number of employees (CEO Sound-off 1997).

3.2 Outcomes Antecedents

Once jobs have been loaded with the job antecedents discussed above, the question of outcomes from it to its holder follows. It covers all types of extrinsic and intrinsic, real or potential rewards. As it is important from a job motivating perspective to have a job that is well designed, it is as important to so design outcomes from the job that its doer values them. An exciting and inviting job is only one part of the comprehensive motivation system and is not enough by itself to motivate an employee for a long time. If the work system does not have outcomes that motivate, there will be no long-term motivation among employees.

For the earlier generations, the underlining outcome from a job began with wages. It later expanded to organizational trust and commitment, and job satisfaction.

Akintoye (2000) asserts that money – primarily in the form of wages – remains the most significant motivational strategy. As far back as 1911, Frederick Taylor and his scientific management associate described money as the most important factor in motivating the industrial workers to achieve greater productivity. Taylor advocated the establishment of incentive wage systems as a means of stimulating workers to higher performance, commitment, and eventually satisfaction.

However, money can become a good antecedent of motivation if bonus plans are so designed that they establish a clear linkage between what management wants and what its employees can do in their jobs that is within their control (Inc Magazine 2001). It should empower employees while at the same time give the organization what it wants. Such monetary motivators should be designed as a barter system or as a transactional system of clear give-and-take. If employees give the company what it wants, the company will give the employees what it promised to them in return. It works exactly as a business – a price is paid for what the company gets from its employees. It should look at the areas in which the company is weak, set improvement goals where employees can contribute, compute its potential financial gain and how much of this it can share with its employees, and make its plans public.

3.3 Organizational System Antecedents

The third source of work motivation antecedents is the organizational system. For an organization, it includes its work environment, policies and practices, management philosophies, organizational culture, image and the position in its markets and the industry, financial conditions, economic situation as it applies to its products and services, and all other organizational factors that have direct or indirect consequence on workers and work. Like the other two sources in which management loads antecedents of motivation, this source creates a sense of buoyancy that makes workers put their minds and efforts into whatever they do for their organization.

With proper organizational system antecedents, an organization can inspire its employees and encourage them to take initiatives – go out of their way to improve their performance and contribution in the interest of their employers. On the contrary, an environment that leaves employees with a feeling of helplessness works against their work motivation. To reduce or eliminate this feeling, management has to load the organizational system with the motivation antecedents that do not allow helplessness to last for too long in the organization.

In contemporary organizations, managers are busy removing controls in the form of hurdles, obstacles, and barriers to take away the feeling of helplessness from their employees. One antecedent that managers could load all over their organizations to get a positive effect on their employees' motivation is to reduce control exercised on them. While it is true that management has to place controls to guide and monitor activity in an organization, it must also recognize that controls can, and mostly do go against motivation and impede creativity (Amar 1998). Reduced – or a lack of – controls can free employees and give them a sense of empowerment.

In some organizations, management extends the lack of control concept to dress and behavior codes, and to how much money employees can make from their jobs, giving them the ability to adjust their work inputs so they can make as high or as low money as they want, and to reset their monetary goals as frequently as they desire (Hays 1999).

The removal of controls becomes especially important when they are such that they hold an employee responsible for something that is not really in his/her control. Employees get highly demotivated in such a work environment – an anti-thesis of the empowerment concept. An application of this antecedent comes from customer relationship management (CRM). Djokevich (2002) states that CRM sales and other plans that motivate are those that do not hold employees accountable for what they do not control.

Another application of organizational system antecedent draws from the sense of job security an organization offers to its employees. At present, employees see job security in new ways. To them it can come in the form of positive feedback. They are looking for a daily proof that their work matters. This is how they create for themselves a sense of security everyday. They deduce that if they are doing a good job, they are secure, if not with this employer, maybe with a new one.

Sharing is another important organizational system antecedent of motivation in the work environment. Organizations, since 1980s, gave employees' ability to share work (i.e. work in teams) a special consideration at the time of recruiting, training, and promoting them. To be able to prove the ability to work in teams has been a requisite for employment in many of the top 100 best employers for several years (Martin 1998).

The contemporary concept of sharing requires managers to share information, clearly stating what they want so that the employees can set their goals and engage in activities that will help the organization to achieve them. This is how employees feel important, in control, and motivated. They are willing to forgo financial rewards and job security to gain this ability. Based on their experiences with the employees who are coming out of college, managers say that they lack motivation, not because they are lazy, but because they are either not getting the right opportunities or not being asked to use their abilities (CEO Sound-off 1997). If managers give them the opportunities to use their talents, they work really hard.

The habit of sharing information initiated by management filters down to the employee hierarchy and it soon becomes a norm for behavior at the firm. Employees become accustomed to sharing. They share knowledge among each other which fires up the motivation to produce and innovate in the organization. Organizations load this antecedent in their organizational system by engaging in data creating and tracking to keep employees involved and motivated. They believe that data tracking not only provides fast insight but also stokes performance. To share their goals with employees, companies post their goals for all employees, thus allowing them to contribute as well. In return, employees post their goals on the company's intranet for all

interested employees to see, monitor, and regulate each other's actions. Additionally, to perpetually keep employees involved and motivated, firms update their posted goals in response to the changes in the economy and re-posts them, giving insight to their employees about making changes in their goals if necessary (Hawn 2002).

The crux of sharing is to treat employees as *de facto* partners – resulting in an environment that lets them so function in such a way that they can participate in the management of their organization, and share in all the consequences – successes, failures, rewards, and punishments. The sense of collaborating spreads in all employees allowing the sharing process to be facilitated in a time-oriented manner. This motivates everyone in the organization and develops a culture, to promulgate which most firms hire outside consultants (Newman 2000). Through the wide spread sharing in organizations, managers can build empathy with, and among their employees, especially in times when they feel guilt, fear, paranoia, or destructive emotions (Emmerich 2001). Empathy unfreezes the preceding feelings all of which are anti-motivation and unleashes the desire and the action in employees to help their organization achieve its goals.

In an effort to build lasting bonds with their employees, they engage in deeds that convey their commitment to them. This commitment is conveyed in rewards administered in anticipation of the act, or a *priori* of the act. These may come in the form of investiture, inauguration, invocation, initiation, and induction, etc. (Amar 2002b). In contrast, rewards administered after the effect – called a *posteriori* rewards – are fancy entropies of wages. Their function as motivator is too dubious.

The practice of a *priori* reward as a way to win employee commitment and to motivate one to give one's best to one's organization has been quite common. Management can be quite creative in setting a *priori* reward. However, they must meet the following two conditions:

1. The reward is executed *before* the employee to whom it is to be bestowed reflects the intended behavior targeted by the reward.
2. It makes its recipient feel important and special because of the exhibition of the rewarding behavior by the management (Amar 2002a, b).

Based on the multidimensional nature of organizational commitment, there is growing support for a three-component model proposed by Meyer and Allen (1991). All three components have implications for the continuing participation of the individual in the organization. The three components are:

Affective Commitment: Psychological attachment to organization.
Continuance Commitment: Costs associated with leaving the organization.
Normative Commitment: Perceived obligation to remain with the organization.

Guest (1991) concludes that high organizational commitment is associated with lower turnover and absence, but there is no clear link to performance. It is probably wise not to expect too much from commitment as a means of making a direct and immediate impact on performance. It is not the same as motivation. Commitment is a broader concept and tends to withstand transitory aspects of an employee's job. It is possible to be dissatisfied with a particular feature of a job while retaining a reasonably high level of commitment to the organization as a whole. When creating a commitment strategy, Amstrong (1999) asserts that "it is difficult to deny that it is desirable for management to have defined strategic goals and values. And it is equally desirable from management point of view for employees to behave in a way that support those strategies and values." Creating commitment includes communication, education, training programmes, and initiatives to increase involvement and ownership and the development of performance and reward management systems.

Studies on commitment have provided strong evidence that affective and normative

commitments are positively related and continuance commitment is negatively connected with organizational outcomes such as performance and citizenship behaviour (Hackett, Bycio, and Handsdoff 1994; Shore and Wayne 1993). Based on this finding, it is important for employers to identify employees' commitment pattern and map out strategies for enhancing those that are relevant to organizational goals. Meyer and Allen (1991), in an exploratory and confirmatory analysis of factors that can significantly predict job satisfaction and organizational commitment among blue collar workers, reported that promotion, satisfaction, job characteristics, extrinsic and intrinsic exchange, as well as extrinsic and intrinsic rewards, were related to commitment.

4. Integrative Motivation Antecedents Model

To connect in a structured fashion all employee motivation concepts developed in this paper, an abstraction is shown in the form of a model shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2. *Integrative Motivation Antecedents Model*
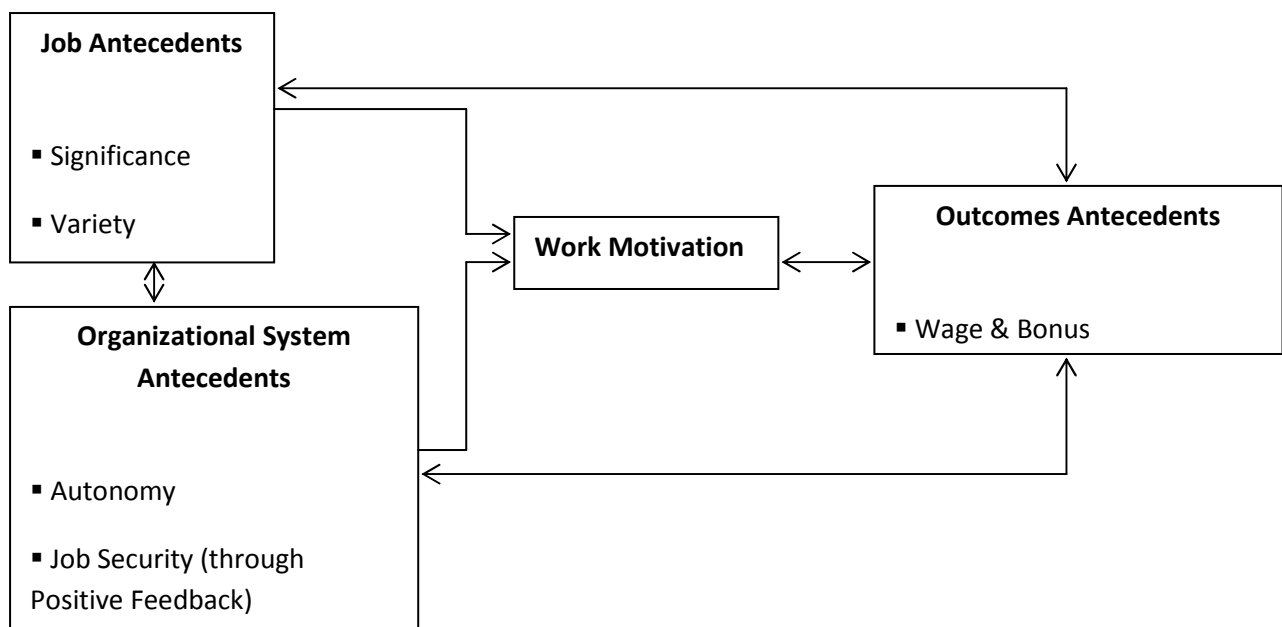
It integrates the emergence of motivating behavior in work environment, identifies the right antecedents of the desired motivation, and then guides management on loading them into sources from where motivation will emerge. Its dynamic links recommend taking regular readings on the updated environmental factors because ignoring dynamics for a long time will leave management with outdated and ineffective motivators of employees.

The model recognizes that in any organization there are three areas from where motivation emerges – the job, the outcomes from the job, and the organizational system. Managers can load motivation antecedents into these three sources of motivation to keep their employees excited about their work.

Owing to the dynamic nature of the motivating behavior, without any let-up, management would need to frequently update and revise motivators it employs in continued excitement of their employees about their work and the organization. The static nature of the available content and process models of motivation are set to fail in the dynamic work environment.

5. Enhancing Employee Motivation: Case of Liven Agrichem (Vietnam)

The golden days of fertilizer chemicals traders in Vietnam have passed since Phu My urea plant – the first gas-based urea plant of the capacity of 700,000 tons per annum – went on stream in 2004. All fertilizer chemicals traders including Liven Agrichem (Vietnam) have struggled to sustain import volume and market share in Vietnam market at this turning point. The key for the market position sustainability is to enhance employee motivation rather than reminding employees over and over of sales targets and market analysis reports. Integrative motivation antecedents model discussed above has been employed to inject some dose of inspiration into employees whose motivation had scattered in the new difficult market context.

In terms of job antecedents, despite the appearance of Phu My urea plant, employees are encouraged to focus on the firm's core business – trading in urea fertilizer, so the significance of the staff's current work is sustained; however, the way to perform this core business varies. Employees align their business plans with urea demand of the market, concentrating on urea import into Vietnam when rice paddy crop season comes and on urea export from Vietnam when the crop season goes. Employees are also encouraged to expand sales of non-urea fertilizers such as ammonium sulphate, DAP, and NPK. Even though autonomy to redesign business activity is given to employees, support from top management is always with them, so that they don't feel "left alone" in this autonomy. On the contrary, employees feel more closely bonded to top management and the firm. This bonding retained talents in our firm not only in Vietnam but also in other branches; meanwhile, there was employee relocation in other fertilizer chemicals firms: the regional manager of Ameropa Vietnam left to join BPC, the sales manager of Yara Vietnam left to join Helm, the director of Yara Vietnam left to join AIM, the sales manager of Helm Vietnam left to join United Agro, etc.

The top management sets up a program whereby employees have opportunities to participate in visioning at their own operational levels as far as the vision concerns their responsibilities, in order to motivate them toward successful implementation. Employees feel secure in our firm even in this difficult market context since they find every member from different hierarchy levels forms a solid whole looking and moving forward. The branches actively exchange their market demands and suppliability. It is affective organizational commitment – psychological attachments among firm members – and normative organizational commitment – responsibility for the firm – that motivate employees. The other outcome antecedents, especially wage and rewards, appear to give way to organizational commitment antecedent as, in 2009 annual meeting, one country manager refused pay rise and bonus and even requested for salary reduction to cut down on the branch expenditure.

Even though part of integrative motivation antecedents model has been applied to our firm in the difficult market context, it works to help enhance not only individual employee motivation but also corporate motivation to sustain the firm's market position.

References

Akintoye, I.R. (2000). *The place of financial management in personnel psychology*. A Paper Presented as Part of Personnel Psychology Guest Lecture Series. Department of Guidance and Counselling, University of Ibadan, Nigeria.

Amar, A.D. (1998). Controls and creativity in organization. *The Mid-Atlantic Journal of Business*, Vol. 34 pp.97-9.

Amar, A.D. (2002a). *Managing Knowledge Workers: Unleashing Innovation and Productivity*. Quorum Books, Westport, CT.

Amar, A.D. (2002b). Reward the psyche to motivate the mind: the formula for higher innovation and productivity from knowledge workers. *Knowledge Board, The European KM Community*. Retrieved from www.knowledgeboard.com/cgi-bin/item.cgi?id=9571.

Anderson, C. H. (1984). Job design: employee satisfaction and performance in retail stores. *Journal of Small Business Management*, Vol. 22, No. 4, pp. 9-16.

Armstrong, M. (1999). *Human resources management practice*. London: Kogan Page.

Cappelli, P., and Sherer, P. D. (1991). The missing role of context in OB: The need for a meso-level approach. In B. Staw and L. L. Cummings (Eds.), *Research in Organizational Behavior*, Vol.13, pp. 55-110. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

CEO Sound-off (1997). What entrepreneurs are telling Inc about employee motivation. *Inc Magazine*, Vol. 105.

Crocker, J., Luthanen, R., Blaine, B., and Broadnax, S. (1994). Collective self-efficacy and psychological well-being among whites, blacks, and asian college students. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 20: 503-513.

Djokevich, P. (2002). Motivational moolah. *Bank Marketing*, Vol. 34 No.1, pp.34-8.

Earley, P. C. (1994). Effects of training on self-efficacy and performance. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* 39: 89-117.

Earley, P. C., and Brittain, J. (1992). Cross-level analysis of organizations: Social resource management model. In B. Staw & L. L. Cummings (Eds.), *Research in Organizational Behavior*, (Vol.15, pp. 357-408). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Emmerich, R. (2001). Motivating employees during tough times. *The CPA Journal*, Vol. 71 No.10, pp.62.

Erez, M., and Katz, T. (1995). Effects of self-and collective-efficacy on team performance of independent and interdependent tasks. *A paper presented at the Tenth Annual Conference of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, Orlando, FL. May, 1995.

Ferris, G. R., and Gilmore, D. C. (1984). The moderating role of work context in job design research: a test of competing models. *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 27, No. 4, pp. 885-93.

Fried, Y., and Ferris, G. R. (1987). The validity of the job characteristics model: a review and meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, Vol. 40, No. 2, pp. 287-322.

Gagné, M., Senécal, C., and Koestner, R. (1997). Proximal job characteristics, feelings of empowerment, and intrinsic motivation: a multidimensional model. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 27, 1222–1240.

Guest, E. A. (1991). *Human resource management*. London: McGraw-Hill.

Hackett, R. D., Bycio, P., and Hausadorf, P. A. (1994). Further assessment of Meyer and Allen's 1991 three components model of organizational commitment. *Journal of Applied Psychology 79*, 340-350.

Hackman, J. R., and Oldham, G. R. (1975). Development of the Job Diagnostic Survey. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 60, No. 2, pp.159-70.

Hackman, J. R., and Oldham, G. R. (1980). *Work redesign*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Hawn, C. (2002). The man who sees around corners. *Forbes*, pp.72-8.

Hays, S. (1999). Generations X and Y and the art of the reward. *Workforce*, Vol. 78 No.11, pp.44-8.

Hofstede, G., Bond, M. H., and Luk, C. L. (1993). Individual perceptions of organizational cultures: A methodological treatment on levels of analysis. *Organizational Studies*, 14: 483-503.

Hofstede, G., Neuijn, B., Ohavy, D. D., and Sanders, G. (1990). Measuring organizational cultures: A qualitative and quantitative study across twenty organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 35: 286-316.

Inc Magazine (2001). No more 'Etch a sketch' planning: how the smartest strategist in America is preparing for 2002, pp.110-11.

Kanfer, R. (1992). Work motivation: new directions in theory and research. *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, Vol. 7, pp.1-53.

Klein, K. J., Dnasereau, F., and Hall, R. J. (1994). Levels issues in theory development, data collection, and analysis. *Academy of Management Review*, 19: 195-229.

Lee-Ross, D. (1999). Seasonal hotel jobs: an occupation and a way of life. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, Vol. 1, No. 1, pp. 239-53.

Lim, V. K. G., and Teo, T. S. H. (1998). Effects of individual characteristics on police officers' work-related attitudes. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, Vol. 13, No. 5, pp. 334-42.

Locke, E. (1968). Toward a theory of task motivation and incentives. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance*, Vol. 3, No. May, pp.157-89.

Martin, J. (1998). So you want to work for the best …? *Fortune*, Vol. 137 pp.77.

McShane, S., and Travaglione, T. (2003). *Organizational Behaviour on the Pacific Rim*. Sydney: McGraw-Hill.

Meyer, J. P., and Allen, N. J. (1991). A three component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review 1*, 61-89.

Mowday, R. T., and Sutton, R. I. (1993). Organizational behavior: Linking individuals and groups to organizational contexts. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 44: 195-229.

Newman, V. (2000). Victor Newman asks: 'Can you embed knowledge-sharing into everyday work?' *Knowledge Management Review*, Vol. 3 No.1, pp.5.

O'Reilly, C. A. III. (1991). Organizational Behavior: Where We've been, Where We're Going. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 42: 427-458.

Roedel, R. R., and Nystrom, P. C. (1988). Nursing jobs and satisfaction. *Nursing Management*, Vol. 19, No. 2, pp. 34-8

Rousseau, D. M., and House R. J. (1994). Meso organizational behavior: Avoiding three fundamental biases. In C. L. Cooper & D. M. Rousseau (Eds.), *Trends in Organizational Behavior* (Vol. 1, pp. 15-29). John Wiley & Sons.

Senge, P. M. (1994). *The Fifth Discipline*. NY: Currency Doubleday.

Shore, L. M., and Wagner, S. J. (1993). Commitment and employees behaviour. Comparison of affective commitment with perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology 78*, 774-780.

Weingart, L. R. (1992). Impact of group goals task component complexity, effort, and planning on group performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 77, 682-693.

Weldon, E., Jehn, K. A., and Pradham, P. (1991). Processes that mediate the relationship between a group goal and improved group performance. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 61: 555-569.

Weldon, E., and Weingart, L. R. (1993). Group goals and group performance. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 32: 307-334.

Wilpert, B. (1995). Organizational Behavior. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 46: 59-90.