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By Brooke Watson

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For the degree of Master of Science

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EXAMINING THE INFLUENCE OF AFFECT ON WORKPLACE MOTIVATION

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ABSTRACT

Watson, Brooke, N., M.S. Purdue University, August, 2010. Examining the Influence of Affect on Workplace Motivation. Major Professor: Dennis Devine.

Research has repeatedly shown that when individuals anticipate they are capable of achieving positive outcomes, see outcomes as important, and feel they are on-track toward achieving desired outcomes they are more likely to have higher motivation and approach those tasks. Pleasant mood states have also been shown to influence behavioral motivation outcomes. Organizations have recognized the importance of managing and motivating employees in the workplace. In the current study, mood states were either manipulated in one of two experimental conditions or remained baseline in a control condition for 253 participants. Participants were randomly assigned into one of the three conditions, but all participated in a business game simulation whereby they assumed the role of the President of a Hollywood movie studio. Individuals that reported more pleasant mood states were more likely to approach tasks with the perception that they could achieve positive outcomes. They were also more likely to devote more effort and sustain effort devoted to tasks longer than participants that reported more negative affective states. Several mediating implications for the influence of mood states on behavioral outcomes were noted. Overall, the results did not suggest significant support that mood or affect influenced performance above and beyond motivation. Future research aims and implications are discussed.

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Employees carry their feelings with them to the workplace every day; people have cried in their cubicles and had parties with co-workers, even had disputes with their bosses that left them feeling angry or enlightened. Moods and emotions influence employees in different ways and human beings work in environments full of both internal and external triggers that affect their motivation, behaviors, and performance. Motivation is one of the means in which mood can manifest itself through employees. In fact, mood states have been shown to influence the appraisal process by which motivation is determined. Although workplace motivation has received extensive research attention in the past and much has been learned, the knowledge around motivational effects is narrow in scope and to date, the causal process from mood states-to motivation-to performance is unknown.

Mood states, also known as affect or c*ore affect*, are vital to obtaining a richer understanding of work motivation and are increasingly recognized as an important influence (George & Brief, 1996). Core affect has been shown to influence processes related to goal choice and amount of effort exerted toward obtaining goals; making it capable of directing motivational attention through self-regulatory mechanisms, and allocation of cognitive resources (George & Brief, 1996).

Despite linkages from core affect to both the level and sustainability of motivation, not much has been done to date to combine affect and motivation in the literature. Research on the combination of an individual's affective state and motivation can hold many important implications for motivation in the workplace, and could provide employers with a deeper understanding of motivating employees.

A model was proposed in 2004 by Seo et al., (2004) which proposed theoretical links from the core affective state to three behavioral outcomes by means of both direct

and indirect motivational paths (Figure 1, Appendix A). The purpose of the current study is to provide the first empirical test of this proposed model. To date, research has failed to uncover the sequence or causal process from affect to performance and the model proposes that before appraisal of the current situation occurs, there is an affective state capable of influencing those appraisals.

The process implemented to assess this model consisted of the manipulation of individuals' mood states followed by subsequent measures of their motivation and performance. The current document provides rationale and support for the theory and linkages presented in the model, as well as detailed procedures that were carried out in the experimental phase of the study, followed by results and discussion.

1.1. Previous Research

Motivation

Motivation has been a popular area of research in the past and has fostered many well-known theories. Several definitions of work motivation have evolved from past research, but the one chosen for this study was adopted from Latham and Pinder (2005), who describe the concept as "…a set of energetic forces that originate both within as well as beyond an individual's being, to initiate work-related behavior and to determine its form, direction, intensity, and duration…thus, motivation is a psychological process…" (p 485). It is a process for determining *how* energy is used to accomplish a task. The significance of this concept to organizations was founded with the Hawthorne Studies.

The milestone Hawthorne Studies revealed that management-styles influenced worker morale, behavior, and output (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939); also, that when people are given the opportunity to express preferences, are free from strict supervision, and are given goals that take into account their ability, they work more effectively (Mayo, 1933; Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939). Similar studies proposed that attitudes influence performance and that employees were highly motivated by money (Houser, 1938; Taylor, 1911; Lawler, 1965), as well as many other factors including social status, appreciation and security (Hoppock, 1935). The implications applied to organizations, such that worker productivity, satisfaction, and motivation were related (Roethlisberger, 1977).

Researchers then began connecting motivation to needs and aspirations of employees. Maslow's (1943) Hierarchy of Needs posited a need to achieve basic physiological, safety, love/belonging, esteem, and self-actualization, in order to achieve satisfaction or upper-level capabilities. This stressed the importance of the environment for a person to achieve full potential. Theory X and Theory Y (Douglas McGregor, 1957) categorized Maslow's hierarchy into lower order needs (theory X) and higher order needs (theory Y) and suggested management use two different styles to motivate employees. This was later augmented by Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959 and Latham, 2007 to suggest that job design and characteristics are capable of satisfying needs for growth. These theories attempted to ascertain *why* a person must act, based on environment and needs, but not why specific actions are *chosen*. It became apparent that motivation was not purely implicit, but composed of *choices* and *processes*.

Scholars suggest individuals behave as a result of certain evaluations and that motivation was indeed a *process*. One of the most pivotal cognitive motivation theories was developed by Victor Vroom (1964). Expectancy theory states that *evaluations* of potential outcomes coupled with effort are responsible for directing motivation. This theory contends that the effort people put forth is a function of their expected probability that certain outcomes will occur based on their performance. This is based on a person's expectancies, mood, choices and instrumentality. Expectancy theory as well as other cognitively-based motivation theories, such as Equity and Utility, are based on choice, effort, and persistence and suggest all three influence one's motivation. In other work, Social Cognitive theories (Bandura, 1977; Skinner, 1974) asserted that motivation is a function of perceptions of reward and pleasure. These steps forward for workplace motivation led researchers to consider this as a cognitive process, whereby human beings are constantly evaluating many factors including needs, ability, expected reward, and subsequently using them to direct their efforts.

However, motivation theories also address *intentions* or reasons people behave the way they do. Ryan and Smith (1954) first posited that needs, beliefs, and attitudes shape behavior through goal intentions and this eventually fueled Locke and Latham's 1990 Goal-Setting theory. This theory has received substantial support and suggests

goals influence performance in three ways: (1) by narrowing and directing attention, (2) by increasing effort toward achieving that goal, (3) by increasing persistence. Additionally, Locke suggested that attainability, goal-commitment, self-efficacy, and feedback were capable of influencing the goal-performance relationship (Locke 1996; Locke 2001; Latham & Locke, 2002).

Furthermore, when individuals engage self-monitoring their progress toward goals (Latham & Pinder, 2005), this is considered self-regulation. Researchers remain mixed on the concept of self-regulation such that Gollwitzer & Bayer (1999) argued that this processes mediates the effects of *intentions* on behavior and that it is process of choice and decision-making. Conversely, other scholars have shown support that self-regulation is an automatic process, not requiring significant attention resources (De Shon, Brown, & Greenis, 1996; Lord & Levy, 1994). Regardless, individuals have adjusted behavior in response to this feedback (Aspinwall, 1998).

Research on motivation has left scientists and practitioners with a wealth of knowledge about behavioral choices surrounding employee motivation. The following have been empirically identified as a source of influence on motivation: (1) needs, (2) desired outcomes, (3) attitudes, personality traits and values, (4) judgments, (5) job design characteristics, (6) goals, and (7) feedback. All of which impact the choice, direction, and intensity that an individual will devote toward completing a task.

Research has recently begun to examine mood, emotion, or affect as an antecedent to motivation as well. Erez and Isen (2002) showed that people with higher levels of induced positive affect sustained higher levels of persistence, effort, self-reported motivation, and performance. Lord and Kanfer (2002) argued that moods and emotions influence attainment of long-term goals and more scholars attest to the likelihood of emotion to influence processes underlying motivation (e.g. Erez & Isen, 2002; Forgas & George, 2001; Loewenstein, Weber, Hsee, & Welch, 2001). This literature holds important implications for antecedents to motivation and behavior. Distinguishing among mood concepts will help structure its relationship to motivation.

Affect

Weiss (2002) proposed that affect is comprised of moods, emotions, and stress and that these share four important commonalities with the first being that all members of the affect family are *states* describing temporary psychological experiences. Watson and Pennebaker (1989) indicated positive mood can be measured as a state or as a trait; the trait represents stable individual differences in the level of positive mood generally experienced, whereas the state depicts how a person feels at a given point in time. Thus, state positive *mood* refers to experiences that that occur in the short term and fluctuate over time (Watson & Pennebaker, 1989).

In contrast, *emotions* are explicit reactions to events, objects or persons (Greenberg, 2004) and produce reactions which are intense and short-lived with a distinctive beginning and end (Weiss, 2002). The essential difference between moods and emotions lies in the concept of diffuseness (Cropanzano, Weiss, Hale, & Reb, 2003; Weiss, 2002). In contrast to emotions, moods are less powerfully experienced, existing as a diffused mental background feeling that is often lacking a discrete source or trigger. Mood is a transitory affective state and is relatively mild and long lasting (Rogelberg, 2007). Mood is present at all times in the background of individuals' minds and can vary in terms of pleasant-unpleasant states (Cropanzano, Weiss, Hale, & Reb, 2003; Weiss, 2002).

Trait positive affect is often referred to in the literature as positive affectivity (e.g, George, 1989; Watson & Pennebaker, 1989). Individuals high on positive affectivity have a propensity to experience more positive affect across situations than do individuals low on positive affectivity (e.g., Tellegen, 1982; Watson & Pennebaker, 1989). Most research on positive affect has focused on this as a state. Although disposition impacts positive mood states at work (George, 1989), moods are also influenced by situation.

In order to evaluate this affective state appropriately, two models were reviewed so as to select the one that would best capture the state. Both the Positive Affectivity (PA) and Negative Affectivity (NA) model of mood and the Pleasantness-Activation model were reviewed in detail. The major difference between the two is that PA and NA are considered two distinct constructs which have their own level of activity. The

pleasantness-activation models capture pleasantness, as well as the action associated with an individual's mood state. Past research recommends the pleasantness and activation models when measuring *state* mood, stating they are most useful for describing momentary affect (Weiss, 2005). Cropanzano et al. (2003) suggests the choice depends primarily on the scientific purposes of the investigator and the purpose for this study was to evaluate the pleasantness dimension of temporary mood. As such, the pleasantness-activation model of mood was more appropriate.

Core affect is another term for state mood and is the term to be utilized in the current study to represent individuals' mood. This is described as an accessible, subjective, affective feeling (Weiss, 2002) containing feelings of activation. Russell and Feldman Barrett (1999) say it can be best described as waking up in the morning feeling happy, chipper, depressed, or relaxed for no apparent reason.

Core affective states are capable of providing information about the current psychological situation and therefore have consequences for cognitive and behavior. It is the intent of this study to induce a state-like background feeling capable of these influences. The term *core affect* captures the state of mood as well as a degree of activation associated with initial perceptions of the psychological situation. These feelings represent the two dimensions-pleasantness and activation.

1.2. Current study

The present study was intended to evaluate the model proposed by Seo et al. (2004). This model posits that feelings of pleasantness influence motivation and in turn directs behavioral outcomes both directly and indirectly. The three behavioral outcomes influenced by motivation and affect are Direction, Intensity, and Persistence. *Direction, better known as Goal Orientation* is defined as the behavioral choice a person makes to work toward their goal and is categorized as either *generative* (approach) or *defensive* (avoid). Individuals who adopt generative orientations approach tasks and intend to achieve positive outcomes. Conversely, defensive behavioral orientations aim to avoid potential negative outcomes and avoid situations (Seo et al., 2004). *Persistence* is the

continuation of effort an individual devotes toward a certain task. Lastly, *Intensity* is described as the amount of effort individuals' devote toward completing a task.

Indirectly, core affect is proposed to influence these behavioral outcomes via its impact on the cognitive motivational processes of Expectancy, Utility, and Progress judgments, as well as Goal-setting and Goal Commitment. Earlier it was stated that feelings act as information in forming judgments and directing resources. The pleasantness dimension of core affect has been demonstrated to be capable of sensing psychological threat or lack of threat in a situation and further directing the approach or avoid behaviors based on that evaluation. Research also suggests that motivation is goal-directed and occurs within the context of self-regulation which posits that motivational processes are cyclical and involve distal (processes affecting goal choice) as well as proximal (feedback interpretation and action implementation to attain goals) motivational processes (Kanfer, 1991; Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989). People supposedly reflect on two questions while in goal pursuit: (1) commitment or whether it is worth pursuing and (2) level of progress or remaining distance to attainment (Koo & Fishback, 2008). This suggests humans are constantly evaluating their progress toward achieving their goals.

Additionally, research on mood has suggested workers affective states influence information processing leading to goals (Forgas, 1995). This has been called the congruity effect (Weiss, 2002) and evaluative bias effect (Isen, 2000; Isen & Baron, 1991). In essence, mood states bias a variety of evaluative judgments, also known as affect-as-information theory (Schwarz & Clore, 1983, 1988; Sinclair, 1988). Research has generally supported the notion that an core affect has the capacity to influence goal-setting and commitment, as well as behavioral outcomes, through cognitive motivational judgments. Seo, Barrett, & Bartunek (2004) suggest this occurs via direct and indirect paths. A series of hypotheses will now be presented.

1.3. <u>Hypotheses</u>

Proposed indirect pathways

The first judgment component proposed to be influenced by an individual's core affect is his or her *Expectancy* judgment. Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory predicts

individuals will put forth effort when they perceive effort will result in good performance as a result of their behavior. Past research has shown that individuals in more positive affective states focus on positive outcomes and their ability to achieve them, resulting in more favorable expectancy judgments (Erez & Isen, 2002). Therefore, when consciously evaluating behavioral options, affect can influence an individual's perception of more favorable expectancy outcomes.

The second judgment component influenced by an individual's core affect is his or her *Utility* judgment, or attractiveness of the outcome. The aforementioned evaluative bias effect (Isen, 2000; Isen & Baron, 1991) suggested people experiencing pleasant feelings should perceive positive outcomes as more attractive when evaluating goal setting choices and generating behaviors. Seo et al. (2004) suggest these positive evaluations will result in an individual adopting a more generative behavioral orientation. If individuals perceive they will perform well and perceive those positive outcomes as attractive, they will be more likely to approach the situation. Conversely, individuals perceiving unattractive outcomes will be more likely to avoid the situation or develop a defensive orientation (Seo et al., 2004).

Hypothesis 1: The relationship between core affect and Goal Orientation is mediated by perceptions of Expectancy and Utility judgments.

In addition, Expectancy and Utility judgments are suggested to influence behavioral outcomes through *Goal Level* and G*oal Commitment*. Previous research has shown that persons reporting higher levels of expectancy set higher goals (Klein, Wesson, Hollenbeck, & Alge, 1999). Moreover, more positive Utility judgments have been linked to greater Goal Commitment (Locke, Motowidlo, & Bobko, 1986). Both higher goal levels and commitment have been associated with greater amounts of effort and higher performance (Brett & VandeWalle, 1999; Locke & Latham, 1990; Zetik & Stuhlmacher, 2002). As a result, core affect can influence the *Intensity* or amount of effort devoted to completing a task or goal, through an individual's Expectancy

judgment, and subsequently Goal Level, as well as through an individual's Utility judgment and Goal Commitment.

Hypothesis 2: The relationship between core affect and Intensity is mediated by Expectancy judgment and Goal Level.

Hypothesis 3: The relationship between Core Affect and Intensity is mediated by Utility judgment and Goal Commitment.

The third judgment component proposed to influence the behavioral outcome Persistence is an individuals' *Progress* judgment. If people perceive they are making poor progress toward achieving their goal, they will be more likely to withdraw behavior to complete the task, rather than sustain that behavior (Klein, 1989). An individual's core affect is likely to influence their interpretation of progress, such that, workers in positive moods may judge themselves as making more progress toward a goal than those not in a positive mood (George & Brief, 1996). Elsbach and Barr (1999) furthered this notion and demonstrated how people in more negative affective states devoted more careful attention to evaluating progress and people in more positive affective states evaluated their progress less frequently and with more biased processing, which lead to greater persistence. Accordingly, Seo et al. (2004) suggest that a more pleasant state will result in fewer progress judgments, and those judgments will likely be positive, thus resulting in a greater duration of action.

Hypothesis 4: The relationship between core affect and Persistence is mediated by Progress judgments.

Proposed Direct Pathways

Although the aforementioned cognitive processing of information should result in certain motivational and behavioral outcomes, Seo et al. (2004) proposed that an individual's core affect will directly influence the three behavioral outcomes. As mentioned before the affective system has been suggested to have the capacity to influence behavior (George & Brief, 1996).

Affective states involve tendencies to approach or avoid certain situations (Fredrickson, 2001), such that, core affect is likely to lead to either a more generative or defensive Goal Orientation on its own. Brehm (1999) also suggested that the activation component associated with an individual's affective state creates a motivational state of energy. This energy can lead an individual to devote more effort to a given task without consideration of judgment or goal level and commitment. Finally, the concept known as mood maintenance, which suggests individuals seek to maintain their current affective state (George & Brief, 1996; Isen, 2000) and mood repair, implies a tendency to behave to change current negative states (George & Brief, 1996), and can help to explain a direct effect of core affect on Persistence. Specifically, if an individual feels more pleasant they may be more persistent, whereas if an individual feels threatened or more unpleasant, they may stop current action without considering why. To summarize, an individual's core affect is predicted to have the capacity to direct behavior outside conscious awareness, devote more effort toward a task, and maintain that level of effort for a greater period of time. Therefore the following hypotheses are presented.

Hypothesis 5: The relationship between Core Affect and Goal Orientation will be positive and significant.

Hypothesis 6: The relationship between Core Affect and Intensity will be positive and significant.

Hypothesis 7: The relationship between Core Affect and Persistence will be positive and significant.

Behavior and Performance

The link between motivation and performance has been well-established, such that goal setting has been shown to influence performance by directing attention, mobilizing effort, increasing persistence, and motivating strategy development (e.g. Locke, et al., 1980; Locke 1996; Locke 2001; Latham & Locke, 2002; Renn & Fedor, 2001;). Latham and Pinder (2005) furthered these influences when describing how negotiators who set high and specific goals achieved higher profits. Based on these outcomes, one would assume increased intensity, persistence, and a more generative Goal

Orientation would result in higher levels of performance. Additionally, individuals perceiving negative outcomes and adopting avoidant behavioral orientations, devoting less effort and lacking persistence would be expected to perform at lower levels. Therefore, the following hypotheses are presented.

Hypothesis 8: The relationship between Goal Orientation and Performance is positive and significant.

Hypothesis 9: The relationship between Intensity and Performance is positive and significant.

Hypothesis 10: The relationship between Persistence and Performance is positive and significant.

Overall Fit

It has been predicted that individual Core Affect will influence three behavioral outcomes both directly and indirectly through cognitive motivation processes. In addition to the direct/indirect path hypotheses, the primary goal of this study is a direct test of the model developed by Seo et al. (2004) and is the final hypothesis presented.

Hypothesis 11: The original Seo et al. (2004) model will provide a good fit to the data.

CHAPTER 2. METHOD

2.1. <u>Participants</u>

Participants were recruited from introductory psychology courses at Indiana University Purdue University Indianapolis. A description of the research study was posted on the university's Experimetrix website, a web-based scheduling and tracking system which is available to all introductory psychology students. Students had to be at least 18 years of age and currently enrolled in an introductory psychology course in order to participate. A total of 253 participants completed the study. Seventy-four percent of the participants were female and had an average age of 20 years. Fifty-eight percent were employed and worked an average of 19 hours per week. All students were awarded 3 credits toward their research requirement.

2.2. <u>Task</u>

All individuals participated in the decision-making task called "Tinsel Town", originally developed as a group simulation by Devine, Habig, Martin, Bott, & Grayson (2003). The simulation was designed for team-play but was modified for this study to be an individual task. Each participant assumed the role of President of a Hollywood movie studio and was assigned to choose movies his or her studio would produce and release in the upcoming year. Participants were instructed to complete the task on their own and to choose screenplays to produce and set marketing strategies for each film they chose to produce. Total movie profit was the dependent variable and measured outcome variable for this task. Total profit is equal to the sum of movie revenues minus the sum of movie costs. Movie revenue is comprised of the number of viewers by average ticket price.

The number of viewers a movie attracts is dependent upon the following variables: (1) Viewer Appeal, (2) Movie Quality, (3) Marketing, (4) MPAA rating, and (5) Average Ticket Price. Movie cost is the sum of production and marketing costs. Tinsel Town materials are provided in Appendix B.

Individuals were given the following information in order to help them select and market movies. First, an instruction sheet was distributed which included information on the task at hand and how they would be evaluated on the task. Secondly, script options included a brief synopsis, actors, director and movie cost for the 11 films included in the task. Third, content appeal and star appeal information indicated which movies possessed the largest appeal in these categories. Fourth, script quality information and expected MPAA ratings were provided to indicate a movie's potential for success. Fifth, information on director and actor skill ratings was provided. Sixth, information on marketing strategies informed participants of the cost associated with each strategy as well as impact on viewer appeal. Seventh, impact of movie ratings described how ratings (e.g. G, PG-13) would affect the potential viewer base. Lastly, average ticket prices for each film were provided. A general help sheet, a page for notes, and the final recommendation sheet-where participants indicated their final decisions on which movies to produce and their subsequent marketing strategies were provided as well.

For both iterations of the task, participants were given a spending allowance of $150 million. Their task was to examine and evaluate all the information at their disposal and figure out how to spend the $150 million to maximize total profit for each year. They could spend the $150 million on one blockbuster or divvy it up over smaller or less costly projects –whatever they deemed the best strategy for bringing in the most profit. The goal was to maximize their profit ratio, or the number of dollars in profit received for every dollar spent.

2.3. Design

The study was a between-subjects experimental design with two experimental conditions plus a control condition. Experimental conditions received either a positive or

negative affect induction, while the control group received no manipulation. The affect induction methods employed were movie clips and bogus feedback. Individuals in the positive affect induction group watched a brief series of happy/positive clips and received feedback that they performed in the 95th percentile. Individuals in the negative induction group watched mellow and sad movie clips and received bogus feedback that they performed poorly in relation to others and were in the 8th percentile. The manipulation techniques employed for this study were based on a meta-analysis of affect induction studies conducted by Westermann, Spies, Stahl, & Hesse (1996). Their review of 11 different mood inductions revealed the film/story manipulation had the greatest effect size and was found to be the strongest manipulator of both positive and negative mood (d=.73 and d=.74, respectively). The use of feedback had an effect size of d=.33 for positive mood, and d=.56 for negative mood. Further, when two or more techniques were used, the effect sizes were d=.40 for positive mood and d=.76 for negative mood. Participants in all three conditions were given identical tasks and measures to complete.

2.4. Procedure

The experiment was broken down into three phases which the participants completed. Upon arrival to the experiment locations, all participants completed a sign-in sheet and were administered informed consent statements (ICS). Once ICS forms were read and signed by participants, phase one started the experiment. Phase one began with completion of two measures by participants, the 50-item Wonderlic Personnel Test – Revised (WPT-R) and the 50-item Trait Affect Measure (TAM). After these measures were completed, the experimenter presented instructions for completing the Tinsel Town task and distributed relevant materials. Once instructions and materials were delivered, participants were given time to review Tinsel Town materials and complete the first round of the task. This involved reading 11 movie scripts, evaluating the scripts based on the criteria and information provided in the handouts, and recommending which movies to produce in the upcoming year. The total time for phase one was about 50 minutes: five minutes for welcome and survey instructions, 12 minutes for the WPT-R, 5 minutes for

the TAM, five minutes for Tinsel Town instruction, 15 minutes to review task materials, 10 minutes to complete simulation.

Immediately following the conclusion of phase one, participant's final recommendations were collected. At this time, participants in the control condition proceeded directly to the phase two measures while individuals in the experimental conditions participated in the affect manipulations. These participants were informed their total profit would be calculated and the facilitator gave instructions to watch a brief series of movie clips. Participants were told that the clips were meant to provide inspiration for the next round of Tinsel Town.

The manipulation continued after the movie clip viewing, when the experimenter delivered each participant a slip of paper (identified by participant unique identifier) which contained the percentile in which their achieved profit ranked in relation to the rest of the participants. Participants in the positive group were told that their total profit was in the 95th percentile and they did a great job. Conversely, those in the negative induction group were told they performed in the eighth percentile, and achieved a low profit. Once the manipulations were complete, the facilitator completed phase two by distributing a set of measures, consisting of a State Affect Measure (SAM), the Affect Grid (Russell, Weiss, & Mendelsohn, 1989), and Goal Level, Goal Commitment, Expectancy and Utility. The total time for this phase was 20 minutes: five minutes for instructions and movie clips, five minutes for feedback, and 10 minutes for measure completion.

Phase three began with the distribution of a new set of Tinsel Town materials-new scripts, ratings, etc., as well as a Year Two Recommendation Sheet. Participants began working on the task but were interrupted five minutes into the process. The purpose for the interruption was to gain a "real-time" assessment of how individuals currently perceived their task progression. Participants were told the experimenter forgot to have them complete a set of questions before the new round began. Phase three measures consisted of a few demographic items and the following judgment measures: Progress, Intensity, Goal Orientation and Persistence. Once phase three measures were completed, participants finished the task and made their final recommendations. At the conclusion of this phase participants were debriefed and dismissed. The total time for phase three was

approximately 20 minutes: five minutes for surveys, five minutes to make final recommendations, and 10 minutes for debriefing.   The total experiment time from start to finish, was one hour and 30 minutes.

2.5. Measures

For the purposes of this study both previously established and newly created Measures were used (scale reliabilities located in Table 1). All but one of the measures included multiple items designed to capture the essence of each of the constructs in the model. In order to obtain an overall score for each measure, scale scores were calculated by computing the sum of each of the items in the subscales and then taking the average score. Scale scores were calculated for the following measures: TAM, SAM, Expectancy, Utility, Goal Commitment, Progress, Intensity, Persistence, and Direction. Measures were distributed at each of the three Phases of the experiment.

Phase one measures (Appendix C) assessed the potential confounding variables of Cognitive ability and individual trait affect. Cognitive ability was evaluated using the Wonderlic, developed by Eldon F. Wonderlic in 1937 and revised in 2007. The measure is a twelve-minute, fifty-question intelligence exam with test-retest reliability estimates of .82 to .94. The revised version contains updated questions more appropriate to the 21st century and as such this version was chosen for this study. Scores were calculated by the number of correct responses. Further information can be found on the website, HTTP://WWW.WONDERLIC.COM/.

The Trait Affect Measure (TAM) consists of 50 items aimed to evaluate participant's dispositional mood. Participants used a 7-point, Likert-type scale to indicate their degree of agreement with each statement (1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Slightly Disagree, 4=Not Leaning, 5=Slightly Agree, 6=Agree, 7=Strongly Agree). The first 25 items assess *pleasantness*, or one's dispositional level of positivity, and a sample item is, "Most of the time I am in a good mood." The remaining 25 items assess an individual's valence, or intensity associated with mood. A sample item from this scale is, "I feel things pretty intensely."

Phase two measures (Appendix D) consisted of two measures used to assess participants' core affect, as well as several scales measuring motivational constructs: Expectancy, Utility, Progress, Goal Level, Goal Commitment, Goal Orientation, Intensity and Persistence. Each of the motivational construct measures were designed specifically for this study and all of them, except for Goal Level, utilized a five-point, Likert-type response scale where participants indicated their level of agreement with a series of statements (1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, and 5= Strongly agree). Sample items and a brief description of each measure is provided next.

Core affect was measured by the State Affect Measure (SAM) developed specifically for this study. Two subscales were developed to assess this state: (1) a pleasantness subscale to assess the degree of positivity participants were feeling, and (2) an activation subscale aimed at evaluating the level of activation associated with the mood state. The TAM set the precedent and a framework to develop the pleasantness subscale, however, in past research the activation subscale for the TAM did not prove to be highly reliable. Thus, for this particular study a new method for assessing activation was developed.

The first subscale consisted of ten words indicative of a positive mood which assessed an individuals' current level of pleasantness, the dimension of interest for this study. Sample items from this scale are happy, optimistic, and cheerful. Participants responded using a five-point, Likert-type scale to indicate the level at which they experienced each word (1=Not at all, 2=Not much, 3=Some, 4=A little, 5=A lot). Reliability for this subscale was exceptionally good at .95 and no items were dropped. The second subscale assessed the level of activation associated with individuals' feeling states. A scale was provided to participants with a pair of strength-descriptive words at each end of the scale. Participants were asked to circle the number corresponding to the activation they felt with regard to their mood. Examples of the pairs of words are, "weak" to "strong" and "excited" to "calm". The activation subscale originally contained 8 word pairing items; however, reliability analyses revealed if four items were dropped Cronbach's alpha would increase to .39. This subscale did not fare nearly as well as the SAM pleasantness subscale in terms of reliability.

The Affect Grid developed by Russell, Weiss, & Mendelsohn (1989) was also used to assess core affect and consisted of a single-item scale to assess affect along the dimensions of pleasantness and activation. Participants were instructed to place an "x" on a grid to indicate their current mood state. The pleasantness score was taken as the number of the square checked, with squares numbered along the horizontal dimension, counting one to nine starting at the left. The activation score was taken as the number of the square checked, with squares numbered along the vertical dimension, counting one to nine starting at the bottom.

Goal level was identified by one item included on the questionnaire whereby participants completed the following statement: "I am trying to make $_____ million in the next year." A higher profit represented a more difficult, challenging goal, while a lower profit represented a less challenging and more easily achievable goal.

Expectancy is the degree to which individuals *perceive* a certain level of effort will result in a desired level of performance. Participants indicated their subjective probability that their effort would result in a desired level of performance by providing their level of agreement with five statements. A sample item for this measure is, "If I put forth my best effort, I can do well on Tinsel Town."

Utility refers to the attractiveness of potential outcomes and anticipated satisfaction from attainment of those outcomes. Participants indicated this attractiveness by providing their agreement with five statements. A sample item for Utility is, "It is important to me personally that I do well on Tinsel Town." Higher numbers on the agreement scale reflect higher anticipated satisfaction from the attainment of an outcome.

Goal Commitment represents the degree of dedication that individuals feel toward their goals. This was measured by five items on the questionnaire where individuals indicated their perceived dedication to their goal. A sample item of Goal Commitment is, "I am dedicated to reaching the goal I set for myself.

Phase three measures (located in Appendix E) gathered demographic information, performance, Progress, Goal Orientation, Intensity and Persistence. The response format for these cognitive motivational measure was also a five point, Likert-type scale, where 1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, and 5= Strongly agree.

Progress judgment refers to the degree of advancement individuals perceive they are making toward their goal. This was assessed by five items where participants indicate their perceived progress. Higher agreement scores indicate participants perceive they are making more advancement toward their goal. A sample item for this measure is, "I feel that I am on-track toward reaching my goal profit."

Goal Orientation is essentially a dichotomous variable distinguishing between generative and defensive behavioral approaches individuals will assume when approaching tasks. This was evaluated by five items assessing the behavioral orientation participants' felt they adopted. To evaluate this variable, scores of four and five were considered generative and scores of one and two were considered defensive. A sample item from this scale is, "I am actively trying to do well on the Tinsel Town task."

Intensity is defined as the amount of effort individuals perceive they devote to completing a task. This was evaluated by five items as well. A sample item for this variable is, "I am devoting a fair amount of effort to Tinsel Town."

Persistence is simply the perceived continuation of effort over time. This was represented by five items where participants indicate their perceived persistence toward completing the task. A sample item is, "I keep trying to reach the profit I set out to achieve."

The final outcome variable, Performance, was based on the profit obtained by each participant. There were two performance measures based off the total dollar amount achieved through the movie marketing strategies that were evaluated for this task. The dollar amount was calculated by the experimenter using pre-defined algorithms. Total profit combined both iterations of the task and year two profits was the summed cost for the second iteration of the task. Year two profit was the outcome used as the performance measure for analysis purposes.

2.6. Statistical Analyses

All analyses were evaluated as two-tailed tests at the $p<.05$ alpha level for statistical significance, with results at the $p<.10$ alpha level discussed as marginally significant values. Hypotheses 1-4 were testing using the Baron and Kenny (1986)

method for simple mediation via hierarchical linear regression. This procedure requires four steps be demonstrated in order to determine mediation is present: (1) show that the independent variable (X) is significantly correlated with the dependent variable (Y), (2) show that X is significantly correlated with the mediator (M), (3), show that M is significantly correlated with the Y, and (4) establish that M completely mediates the X-Y relationship. The effect of X on Y controlling for M should be zero. The Sobel Test provides a more statistically based method to detect mediation (Mackinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002). In order to calculate this statistic two regressions must be run, (1) regression analysis with X predicting M and (2) regression analysis with X and M predicting Y. The following statistics are then inserted into an equation: the unstandardized regression coefficient for the association between X and M and the standard error, and the raw coefficient for the effect of the M on the Y when X is in the equation and the standard error. The equation calculates the critical ratio as a test of whether the indirect effect of the IV on the DV via M is significantly different from zero. An online interactive mediation tool was utilized to calculate the Sobel Statistic (HTTP://PEOPLE.KU.EDU/~PREACHER/SOBEL/SOBEL.HTM) and details can be found in Baron and Kenny (1986) and Sobel (1982).

Hypotheses 2 and 3 extended this method as they predicted a double mediation effect carried from X to Y. The nature of these relationships indicates a sequence of two mediators, whereby one mediator affects the relationship first, and then the second further carries the mediated effect. For example, these hypotheses predict the affect of A on D is mediated by B, then C sequentially (A→B→C→D). There is ambiguity in the literature on how to best test relationships of this nature, so a two-part Baron and Kenny method was employed. Hypotheses 5-10 were tested using Pearson's correlations as well as linear regression. Although the correlation coefficients provide the necessary test of significance, regression provides a more sophisticated measure of the relationship controlling for external influences.

Hypothesis 11 was tested using 10 observed variables to conduct path analysis. Each observed variable, except for Goal Level, was made up of a composite variable. The composite variables were calculated by summing all the items representing a

particular construct and taking the mean of that composite. In path analysis the goal is to see how well the implied correlation matrix reproduces the actual correlation matrix. Because there is no one definitive test of model fit it is necessary to take multiple criteria into consideration when evaluating fit. The following indices were examined to provide support or lack of support for all of the theoretical linkages: (1) absolute fit indexes: Chi-square statistic, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), and (2) incremental fit indexes: Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) and Comparative Fit Index (CFI).

Absolute fit indexes assess how well a model-*implied correlation* matrix reproduces the *actual* correlation matrix. The Chi-square test is the only test of significance which evaluates whether the population covariance matrix is equal to the model-implied matrix. One weakness of the Chi-square is based on the assumption that the observed variables are multivariate normal and the sample size is sufficiently large. Second, the Chi-square value decreases when parameters are added to the model; therefore, the value for more complex models tends to be smaller. Lastly, as sample size increases the Chi-square value tends to increase which could lead to the issue of plausible models being rejected based on a significant Chi-square statistic.

Tests of absolute fit are typically false and rejected if a sample size is large enough. Therefore, the RMSEA statistic was chosen for this test as well. RMSEA assesses the approximate fit of a model by evaluating the fit in relation to the degrees of freedom. Moreover, the RMSEA provides a good test of the magnitude of residual correlations (Keith, 2006). RMSEA values range from zero (no difference in correlation matrices-perfect) to one and those below .05 suggest close fit or good approximation in relation to degrees of freedom. Further, values below .08 have been said to represent reasonable fit and those above .10 represent a poor fit. Alternatively, incremental fit indexes measure the proportionate improvement in fit by comparing model-implied with an independence model.. The TLI and CFI were chosen for this test because they tend to avoid the issue of underestimation of fit which may affect other incremental fit measures. Incremental fit indexes range from zero (poor fit) to one (perfect fit).

CHAPTER 3. RESULTS

3.1. Preliminary Analyses

Intercorrelations, reliabilities, means, and standard deviations were calculated for all variables and are presented in Table 1 in Appendix A. Correlations are marked with asterisks to denote significance level. A manipulation check was conducted to determine the differences in Core affect pleasantness levels between the three experimental groups. The positive induction group reported statistically significant higher levels of pleasantness (represented by SAM –Pleasantness) than the negative affect induction group ($p<.01$), but not the control group ($p>.28$). This test and the distribution of state affect indicate that variability on this dimension was achieved. One-way ANOVAs were run in order to compare all variables/outcomes by condition to determine if there were any significant differences based on the mood manipulation. The only significant differences between groups were found on the dimension of pleasantness.

3.2. Hypothesis Tests

Hypothesis 1

Baron and Kenny's four-step method was applied to test Hypothesis 1, which predicted the relationship between core affect and Goal Orientation would be mediated concurrently by perceptions of Expectancy and Utility judgments. This hypothesis was broken into two segments to test for mediation through the two channels 1) core affect and Goal Orientation mediated by Expectancy and, 2) core affect and Goal Orientation mediated by Utility.

First, for the relationship mediated by Expectancy, Table 1 was used to determine if Steps one through three were confirmed. Core affect and Goal Orientation were significantly related ($r = .300$, $p<.01$), confirming Step 1. Core affect was also significantly related to Expectancy ($r = .247$, $p<.01$) supporting Step 2. Lastly, Expectancy was significantly related to Goal Orientation ($r = .494$, $p<.01$) supporting Step 3. All three preliminary checks were fulfilled. A hierarchical regression with core affect in Step 1 and Expectancy in Step 2 was run to determine the effect of the mediator. The beta weight for core affect dropped, but remained significant, from $\beta = .308$ ($p<.01$) to $\beta = .202$ ($p<.01$) in the presence of Expectancy. The Sobel Test was also conducted to further determine if Expectancy carried the influence of core affect to Goal Orientation and the resulting statistic was significant ($Sobel$=3.59, $p<.01$). These statistics provide support that Expectancy mediates the relationship between core affect and Goal Orientation.

The same method was utilized for the second segment of Hypothesis 1. Table 1 was used to determine if the first three Steps of the Baron and Kenny method were fulfilled. Steps 1-3 were supported: Core affect was significantly related to Goal Orientation (r=.300, $p<.01$) and Utility (r=.320, $p<.01$), and Utility was significantly related to Goal Orientation (r=.749, $p<.01$). The mediation analysis was completed for Step 4 whereby core affect was entered in Step 1, and Utility was entered in step 2. The beta weight for core affect dropped from $\beta = .284$ ($p<.01$) to $\beta = .038$ ($p<.05$). The Sobel statistic was again calculated and the resulting value was significant ($Sobel$=4.16, $p<.01$). Altogether, these results provide support for Hypothesis 1.

As a follow-up to Hypothesis 1, this mediated relationship was also tested with another version of higherarchical regression to determine if the method employed to test the hypothesis was valid. Rather than running two separate regressions to test for the presence of mediation a single regression was run on Goal Orientation whereby core affect was entered in step 1 and both Expectancy and Utility were entered in step 2, together. This tested for the combined mediation effect of these variables on the outcome. The addition of Expectancy and Utility at step 2 was significance, indicating they explained variance above and beyond what core affect alone explained.

Additionally, the beta for core affect dropped from $\beta = .284$ ($p<.01$) to $\beta = .036$ ($p=.52$). This additional analysis provides further support for Hypothesis 1 and the method by which this hypothesis was originally tested.

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 predicted the relationship between core affect and Intensity is mediated by Expectancy and Goal Level. Hypothesis 2 is depicted differently, such that core affect is suggested to influence Intensity through Expectancy and Goal Level, sequentially through the same channel, rather than concurrently. This was tested using the same method as in Hypothesis 1 and was again broken into two segments to test: 1) Core affect and Goal Level mediated by Expectancy and, 2) Expectancy and Intensity mediated by Goal Level. Table 1 was examined to determine if Baron and Kenny's Steps 1-3 were confirmed. Only Step 2 was confirmed; Core affect was significantly related to Expectancy ($r=.247$, $p<.01$). Steps 1 and 3 were not confirmed; Core affect and Expectancy were not significantly related to Goal Level. It was therefore not acceptable to proceed to Step 4, or support this segment of Hypothesis 2.

This method was repeated for the second segment of Hypothesis 2. Only Step 1 was supported whereby Expectancy was significantly related to Intensity ($r=.434$, $p<.01$). Steps 2 and 3 were not supported and Expectancy was not significantly related to Goal Level nor was Goal Level significantly related to Intensity. Thus lacking support for this segment and overall lack of support for Hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 predicted the relationship between core affect and Intensity was sequentially mediated by Utility and Goal Commitment. This hypothesis was tested through the same methodology as Hypothesis 2. The first segment tested for mediation of core affect and Goal Commitment through Utility and segment two tested for mediation of Utility and Intensity through Goal Commitment. Table 1 was examined to

determine if Baron and Kenny's Steps 1-3 were supported for segment one. All 3 steps were confirmed. Core affect was significantly related to Goal Commitment (r=.332, p<.01) and Utility (r=.320, p<.01) and Utility was significantly related to Goal Commitment (r=.832, p<.01). In Step 4 the Beta weights for core affect dropped significantly (β=.322, p<.01 to β=.064, p>.16) in the presence of Utility. Further, the Sobel test supported the significance of the mediation with a value of 4.26 (p<.01). This suggests support for the first segment of Hypothesis 3.

Table 1 was also used to determine if Steps 1-3 were supported for the second segment of Hypothesis 3. Again, All 3 steps were supported. Utility was significantly related to Intensity (r=.668, p<.01) and Goal Commitment (r=.832, p<.01) and Goal Commitment was significantly related to Intensity (r=.597, p<.01). For Step 4 the Beta weights for Utility dropped in the presence of Goal Commitment, but was still a significant Beta (β=.669, p<.01 to β=.540 (p<.01). Further, the Sobel statistic calculated was 1.74, which was not significant (p>.13). This suggests partial support for the second segment of Hypothesis 3. Altogether, these results provide partial support for Hypothesis 3.

Hypothesis 4

The Baron and Kenny's test of mediation was used to determine if the relationship between core affect and Persistence was mediated by Progress. Table 1 was used to determine if Steps 1-3 were supported. Step 1 was supported; Core affect and Persistence were significantly related (r=.264, p<.01). Step 2 was also fulfilled; Core affect was significantly related to Progress (r=.315, p<.01). Step 3 was fulfilled as well and Progress was significantly related to Persistence (r=.672, p<.01). Step 4 involved the hierarchical regression with core affect in Step 1 and Progress in Step 2 to determine the effect of the mediator. Results indicate that the Beta weight for core affect dropped in the presence of Progress (β=.264, p<.01 to β=.060, p>.23). The Sobel Test statistic was significant as well at 4.89 (p<.01). These statistics provide support for Hypothesis 4.

Hypotheses 5-10

Table 1 was examined to determine if Hypotheses 5-10 were supported through. Hypothesis 5, which predicted the relationship between core affect and Goal Orientation would be positive and significant was supported (r=.300, p<.01). Hypothesis 6, which predicted the relationship between core affect and Intensity would be positive and significant was also supported through correlation *(r=.215, p<.01)*. Hypothesis 7, which predicted the relationship between core affect and Persistence would be positive and significant was also supported (r=.264, p<.01). Hypothesis 8, predicted the relationship between Goal Orientation and Performance (Year two sum) would be positive and significant, however, the correlation coefficient was found to be non-significant *(r=.124)*. Alternatively, Hypothesis 9, which predicted the relationship between Intensity and Performance, would be positive and significant was supported (r=.189, p<.01). Lastly, Hypothesis 10, which predicted the relationship between Persistence and Performance, would be positive and significant was supported *(r=.137, p<.05)*.

Hypothesis 11

Hypothesis 11 predicted the Seo et al. (2004) model (Figure 1, Appendix A) would provide a good fit to the data. Before running analyses, the model was constructed in AMOS and scale scores were computed for observed variables. The Chi-square test provided a test for the null hypothesis; that there is no significant difference between the expected and observed results.   The Chi-Square statistic was 550.391 (*df* = 23, *p*<.01). Thus, it is acceptable to reject the null hypothesis. Since this statistic is arbitrary alone, the absolute and incremental fit indexes were examined and the values for all tested models are in Table 2 (Appendix A).

The absolute fit indexes were examined first. The RMSEA was .302 which is outside the acceptable fit range (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Next, the incremental fit indexes were examined. The CFI and TLI were examined and came out to be .566 and .152, respectively. Hu and Bentler (1999) consider the cutoff value of .95 and above to indicate good fit for these statistics. Based on the cutoff criteria suggested by Hu and Bentler (1999) the values reported for the Seo et al. model are not sufficient to conclude

there is a relatively good fit between the hypothesized model and the observed data; therefore lacking support for Hypothesis 11.

Although the SEM analysis did not provide support for Hypothesis 11, individual path coefficients derived from AMOS path analysis were examined to see which linkages did not produce a significant relationship in the model. Of the thirteen paths in the model, five were found to be non-significant. Specifically, the path from Expectancy to Goal Level was not statistically significant (β=.052, p>.43). Also, the path from Goal Level to Intensity was ot statistically significant (β=.082, p>.12). Interestingly, all of the proposed direct relationships between core affect and the three behavioral outcomes Goal Orientation, Persistence, and Intensity were non-significant (β=.044, p>.39, β=.060, p>.23, and β=.014, p>.79, respectively). Ideally, if the aforementioned paths were removed from the model and the model was re-tested, the overall fit should improve.

After examining the findings related to the Seo et al. (2004) model the a priori model was examined based on prior knowledge gained through past research. This model included all of the same paths, plus the outcome variable of performance (Year 2 sum). The addition of this variable was theoretically derived and intended to make the results more useful to practitioners and organizational decision-makers. All of the fit indexes are located in Table 2 under the heading *A Priori Model*. With the addition of this variable, the Chi-Square statistic increased to 619.472 (df=70, p<.01). The RMSEA decreased to .176 indicating better fit than the original model, but still unacceptabel. The CFI and TLI were also somewhat better, but fell below the cutoff (.605 and .407, respectively). As with the initial proposed model, there is a lack of sufficient to conclude there is a relatively good fit between the hypothesized model and the observed data.

The individual path coefficients were again examined to see which linkages did not produce a significant relationship in the model. The purpose of examining these path coefficients was to compare the coefficients of the a priori model to those of the Seo et al. model and propose an empirical model –taking out non-significant linkages. Interestingly, all of the paths that were determined to be non-significant in the Seo et al. model were also non-significant in the alternative model. The path from Expectancy to Goal Level was non-significant (β=.052, p>.43). The path from Goal Level to Intensity

was also not statistically significant (β=.082, p=.124). All of the proposed direct relationships between core affect and the three behavioral outcomes, Goal Orientation, Persistence, and Intensity were also non-significant (β=.044, p>.37, β=.060, p>.22, and β=.016, p>.76, respectively). All of the paths with Performance (Year two sum) as the outcome were found to be non-significant. The paths from Goal Orientation, Persistence, and Intensity to Performance did not indicate a significant relationship (β=.002, p>.98, β=.026, p>.68, and β=.126, p>.06, respectively). A path directly from Cognitive Ability to Performance was included and this path was not significant ($\boldsymbol{\beta}$=.104, p>.09).

Ideally, if all of the aforementioned paths were removed from the model and the model was re-tested, the overall fit should improve. This empirical model, shown in Figure 4 in Appendix A, was also tested to determine if the data fit this model better than either the Seo et al. model or the a priori model. This model removes the five non-significant links identified in the original model, as well as the same five and additional four links identified in the a priori model.

Unfortunately, with the deletion of the nine aforementioned links, the model did not improve and in fact, the fit indexes of the empirical model were similar to those for the original Seo et al. model. All of the fit indexes are located in Table 2 under the heading Empirical Model. With the deletion of these links, the Chi-Square statistic became 550.032 (df=20). The RMSEA value was .324 which is the worst fitting of all three models. The CFI and TLI were still unacceptable at .565 and .218, respectively. As with the original Seo et al. model and the a priori model, there is a lack of sufficient evidence to conclude there is a relatively good fit between the hypothesized model and the observed data.

Additional Analyses

Additional analyses were conducted to determine the total effects of the behavioral motivation outcomes. Moreover, a composite 'Motivation' variable was calculated by summing the total scale scores for Goal Orientation, Intensity, and Persistence, and then taking the mean of this score. The purpose was to determine the relationship of overall Motivation with other variables and outcomes. Motivation was

significantly correlated all variables except for TAM-Activation (p=.36), WPT-R (p=.56, Goal Level (p=.29) and Profit 1 (p=.27). A last test was conducted to see if core affect explained performance outcomes, over and above motivation. A higherarhichal regression was conducted on performance (Year 2 profit) whereby the combined Motivation variable was entered in step 1 and core affect was entered in step 2. In the presence of Motivation, affect did not explain incremental variance above and beyond Motivation (F=.000, 1, 225, p=.99). These results indicate that pleasantness does not add significant value when explaining the effect of motivation on performance.

CHAPTER 4. DISCUSSION

4.1 <u>Major Findings and Contributions</u>

This study sought to provide the first empirical test of the model developed by Seo et al. (2004) as well as test several hypothesis related to the independent paths within the model. The evaluation relationships between core affect and motivational outcomes provided support for findings from past literature, as well as lead to new ideas to improve upon this research while guiding future directions in the area of motivational research.

The results of this study provided support for classic expectancy relationships, such that individuals in a more positive state perceived they could perform more favorably on the task and that the task was more useful. Subsequently, those favorable evaluations influenced the approach individuals adopted toward the task directly, whereas more pleasant individuals tended to approach the task, rather than avoid it. More pleasant mood states were also indirectly associated with longer durations of effort devoted to tasks. Duration of effort was further influenced when individuals perceived more favorable progress was being made toward achieving their goal. These results suggest that core affect is not just a background feeling experienced by individuals, but it precedes and influences the appraisal process individuals go through when determining how motivational resources are utilized. Core affect also directly influenced the three motivational outcomes separately, indicating activation outside of conscious awareness.

Another finding that supports previous research and provide further support for these contentions, is that as the perceived progress toward attaining their goals increased-more pleasant participants also perceived they continued to put forth effort longer. The indirect path from core affect to Persistence as mediated by Progress also provides support for previous research.   This indicates that an individual's mood is likely to influence their interpretation of progress, such that, workers in positive moods may judge

themselves as making more progress toward a goal than those not in a positive mood (George & Brief, 1996). This suggests that these judgments then provide an input to help determine the pursuance of the task. The implications of this finding are particularly important to management. It is important to understand both employees' state and dispositional mood and recognize when it may be important to intervene and give progress feedback or support. This will ensure tasks get completed and effort toward them continues.

This study provided less support for core affect's influence on the amount of effort individuals perceived they devoted to the task. The affective state did account for some of the variance in the amount of effort individual's reported, but other indirect avenues to this outcome that were less clear. Perceptions of Expectancy did help explain the relationship between core affect and amount of effort such that participants that reported a more pleasant state of mood also reported higher levels of expectancy and subsequently perceived they devoted more effort to their task. However, this study did not support previous research (e.g., Klein, Wesson, Hollenbeck, & Alge, 1999) that linked Expectancy judgments to goal-setting, nor did it support research providing support between Goal Level and Intensity (e.g., Brett & VandeWalle, 1999; Locke & Latham, 1990). This is interesting since Expectancy and goal-setting have been strongly linked in past research. It is possible that this is due to the measure utilized for Goal Level. Participants may not have known the potential range of achievable profits for the task and may not have set realistic goals for themselves. Moreover, the directions for the Goal Level measure may not have adequately grounded participants in what they were supposed to do.

On the other hand, the Utility, or perceived importance value of tasks influenced participants to be more committed and devote more effort to their task. The indirect path that proposed core affect's influence on Intensity was mediated by Utility judgments and sequentially Goal Commitment was partially supported. Therefore, participants that reported a more pleasant state of mood also perceived their tasks as important and reported being more committed and subsequently perceived they devoted more effort to their tasks. As with past research, Utility judgments were linked to greater Goal

Commitment (Locke, Motowidlo, & Bobko, 1986) and Goal Commitment was associated with greater Intensity (e.g., Brett & VandeWalle, 1999; Zetik & Stuhlmacher, 2002). The disparity in happenings among the goal variables is interesting considering past research in this area. It is likely that the measure for Goal Commitment was more well developed as suggested by its reliability and relationship to other measured variables, while the measure for Goal Level likely did not capture this construct well.

An addition to the original Seo et al. model, the measure of performance was not significantly correlated with all the motivational outcomes. As expected, amount of effort and greater duration of effort resulted in greater performance. However, individuals that took the 'approach' goal-orientation toward the tasks did not outperform individuals that tended to adopt the 'avoid' goal-orientation. Moreover, those that approached the task with perceived confidence and excitement did not out-perform those that perceived the situation as more threatening and attempted to avoid the task at hand. This suggests that whether or not employees perceive a situation or task as threatening or achievable, they are likely to complete the task anyway and perform at their appropriate level. It also holds strong the contention that sustained hard work leads to higher performance.

Overall, the conceptual model proposed by Seo et al., did not fully capture the essence of core affective experience on work place motivation. Interestingly, when all variables and influences were controlled for in the path analyses, the direct effects of core affect on all three behavioral outcomes became non-significant. This suggests that individual mood states may not be strong enough to influence behavior directly; rather it provides input and is channeled through evaluative components of both the situation and perceived outcomes first. Although many of the paths through which affect influences behavior were supported, the lack of overall support leads to the discussion of why the models did not work.

There are three potential reasons that will be noted for why the model did not provide a good fit to the data. First, it could simply be because the proposed model needs some work. Results suggest that the variance in the motivation processes and outcomes explained by core affect is indeed mediated by other variables that were perhaps missed

in this study. It could also be that certain cognitive evaluations are more important to individuals than others. For example, the perceived success and progress toward achieving that success may outweigh specific goals set for individuals; such that if individuals feel they will be successful it may not matter as much what goals are set for them or their degree of commitment. They may behave and act a certain way regardless.

Second, it could be that the experimental design needs improvement. The items developed for particular scales may not have adequately captured the constructs of interest. For example, it is likely that the measure of Goal Level did not provide adequate instruction to participants or ground them in what they were being asked to do. Furthermore, all of the cognitive judgment constructs that were evaluated are perceptions and the models did not include actual evaluations of progress or success. It could be that these concrete demonstrations influence motivational outcomes differently than self-reflected perceptions. Lastly, it could be that the unique situation related to experimental conditions limit the generalizability of the results. Since a student population was used for the experiment, participants were likely less engaged and devoted to the task than employees would be in their everyday jobs.

4.2 Limitations

Although, the current study led to several promising results and helped provide support for several well-known theories in motivational research, it is not without limitations. The first limitation was with sample size. The nature of the current study left the researcher with limited resources and a larger sample was not attainable at the time. While the sample was large enough to conduct all analyses for this experiment with sufficient power, a larger sample with more participants in each group would have enabled the testing of competing structural models based on condition. In addition, more power in all analyses would have led to a lesser chance of Type II error. Furthermore, there were a few analyses that came out marginally or partially significant. With a larger sample, it is possible these results would have gone in the direction or become wholly significant.

In addition to sample size, whenever a student sample is used it is cause for critical evaluation and the researcher must be sure not to over-interpret results. This study was conducted in a university setting and participants were offered credit for their participation. The purpose of offering credits is to encourage students to learn more about research to supplement their Psychology courses. However, this limits the generalizability of the results of this study; therefore, application to the working population must be thoughtful and critical. The student sample utilized for this study may not have perceived the task as meaningful or even put forth their best effort. This lack of motivation is likely to have influenced results. In addition, students had the option of completing experiments to fulfill a credit, but any other reward would have been strictly internal since no monetary or recognizable rewards were implemented for this study. Applied in a true work setting, employees are likely to consider job tasks as critical to their careers and performance and it is likely would have behaved differently.

In addition to the sample and the generalizability of the results, another limitation was the type of task used for this study. While the task was chosen based on its decision-making nature and real-world applicability, tasks can vary in organizations and assuming the role of head of a Hollywood movie studio may have put participants in an unforeseeable future role. It is possible that if the desired outcome were something other than highest attainable profit, participants may have responded differently.

Another possible limitation is the manipulation methods employed for this study. Although significant differences in state mood were noted between two of the groups, the manipulation may not have been strong enough to represent the population of mood variation. This may have limited the accuracy of analyses to capture individual mood states on motivation evaluations and behavioral outcomes.

In addition to the manipulation method, a lack of measurement model and overlapping cognitive variables measured via the same method may have limited the results of this study. A measurement model would have mapped measures onto actual theoretical constructs versus the mapping of causal and correlational links between theoretical variables in the structural model. Additionally, all of the cognitive variables used in this study were evaluated via survey methodology and all are overlapping. This

may have limited the participant's ability to distinguish perceptions among the different concepts and provided a clouded view.

A final limitation may have been that this was an experimental study and students often approach experiments with a skeptical eye because they are aware of manipulations that may take place. Although students were made to believe the manipulations were 'real', a general awareness that manipulation was possible could have lessened the effects of the manipulation or even the results of the study. In a work setting, the results would likely be different as employees would not be aware of conditional manipulations.

4.3 Future Direction and Future Research

The task of understanding employee needs and feelings and managing individuals in the work environment is not an easy task and there are several things managers just cannot control. Some practices that they can control revolve around providing appropriate inputs and guiding individuals in the workplace to affect desired behavioral outcomes. Individual mood and evaluations of progress and success influence motivation in the workplace. This study contributes several findings that are consistent with previous research, specifically the influence mood had on several cognitive evaluation constructs and how those evaluations influenced motivation. Practitioners and managers in the workforce can leverage the results of this study when managing employees with the intent to motivate them or direct their efforts. For example, creating an environment that promotes a positive mood in the workplace can predispose employees to interpret their situation more favorably. Employers should also be aware of their employees' moods and adjust tasks if possible so that progress and quality are not lost. Further, helping employees to see their potential for completing tasks and the usefulness of that task to their job can promote a more open and proactive approach to completing work. A final suggestion for practitioners would be to help employees stay committed to goals and tasks and to have consistent reviews of performance and progress with them. These will ensure that amount of effort and duration of effort are sustainable throughout projects.

The current study also lends itself to future research aims. First, since the target population is working employees, a field study utilizing employed individuals in

organizations would be ideal. Employees that are being paid to make decisions reflected in this study would produce a more accurate picture of how this task relates to the process for evaluating and directing behavior. Second, since multiple manipulations were used and several external factors were likely at play, it is difficult to determine which components were responsible for directing motivation. Controlling as much as possible for external influences and ensuring effects on motivation were influenced by a true fluctuation in core affect with help hone in on the factors influencing motivation.

Third, this study should be tested using different tasks. Tasks should include not only decision-making roles, but other organizational roles that apply to a more widespread employee base. Fourth, more research could be completed to determine if there are additional variables that are theoretically-supported in the literature that could help to explain the affect-motivation relationship. Lastly, the majority of measures utilized in this study were developed specifically for this study. Future research should test the measures on a more widespread population and on different tasks to ensure the reliability across situations and persons.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A. Tables and Figures

Table 1 Intercorrelations and reliabilities for all variables

	M	SD	$Items$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1 TAM-Valence	5.28	0.88	25	0.954											
2 TAM-Intensity	4.53	0.90	25	-0.056	0.911										
3 WPT	25.07	5.41	50	-.171**	-.234**	.82-.94									
4 SAM-Valence	3.09	0.88	10	.438**	-0.051	-0.101	0.946								
5 SAM-Intensity	4.03	0.86	4	.184**	.185**	-0.042	.255**	0.394							
6 Affect Grid – Valence	5.66	2.18	1	.355**	-.209**	-0.065	.609**	-0.003	(--)						
7 Affect Grid - Intensity	4.94	2.30	1	.163**	0.042	0.008	.335**	.279**	0.026	(--)					
8 Performance Goal	209.56	158.91	1	-0.025	0.123	-0.003	0.079	0.067	-0.021	0.126	(--)				
9 Expectancy	3.89	0.56	4	.217**	0.027	-0.036	.247**	0.100	.150*	.150*	0.050	0.743			
10 Utility	3.39	0.77	5	.332**	0.104	-0.053	.320**	.169*	.158*	.200**	0.074	.558**	0.817		
11 Goal Commitment	3.56	0.65	4	.349**	0.087	-0.066	.332**	.149*	.164*	.185**	0.006	.507**	.832**	0.75	
12 Progress	3.72	0.56	4	.300**	0.096	-0.053	.315**	.173**	0.111	.206**	0.114	.532**	.689**	.559**	0.738
13 Intensity	3.75	0.63	4	.283**	0.040	0.069	.215**	.147*	0.099	.190**	0.086	.434**	.668**	.597**	.612**
14 Persistence	3.78	0.59	5	.345**	0.082	0.025	.264**	.155*	.161*	.184**	0.081	.467**	.728**	.632**	.672**
15 Goal Orientation	3.77	0.60	4	.361**	0.074	0.010	.300**	.168**	.172**	.158*	0.064	.494**	.749**	.665**	.680**
16 Performance 1	254.86	65.60	1	0.001	0.055	0.041	0.048	0.019	0.068	0.002	0.092	.172**	0.036	0.058	0.072
17 Performance 2	308.52	85.30	1	-0.105	0.066	0.121	0.046	0.024	-0.008	0.064	0.101	0.096	0.027	0.059	0.106
18 Total Performance	282.15	58.76	2	-0.077	0.079	0.117	0.079	0.017	0.030	0.071	.145*	.160*	0.036	0.077	0.117

Table 1 (cont'd). Intercorrelations and reliabilities for all variables

		13	14	15	16	17	18
1	TAM-Valence						
2	TAM-Intensity						
3	WPT						
4	SAM-Valence						
5	SAM-Intensity						
6	Affect Grid – Valence						
7	Affect Grid - Intensity						
8	Performance Goal						
9	Expectancy						
10	Utility						
11	Goal Commitment						
12	Progress						
13	Intensity	0.844					
14	Persistence	.757**	0.887				
15	Goal Orientation	.774**	.807**	0.766			
16	Performance 1	0.050	0.067	0.086	(--)		
17	Performance 2	.189**	.137*	0.124	.209**	(--)	
18	Total Performance	.167*	.149*	.144*	.699**	.845**	(--)

Developed by Seo, Barrett, & Bartunek (2004)

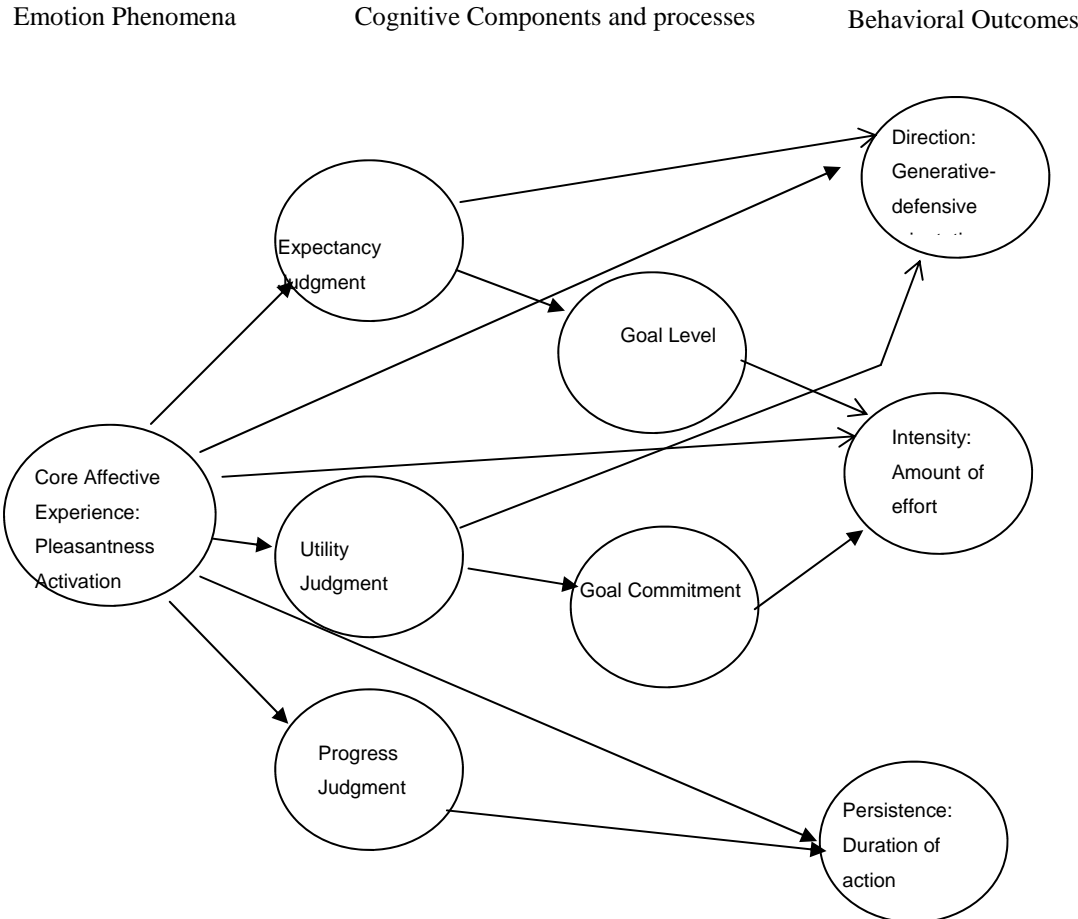Emotion Phenomena   Cognitive Components and processes   Behavioral Outcomes

Figure 1. The Conceptual Model: The Influence of Core Affective Experience on Work Motivation
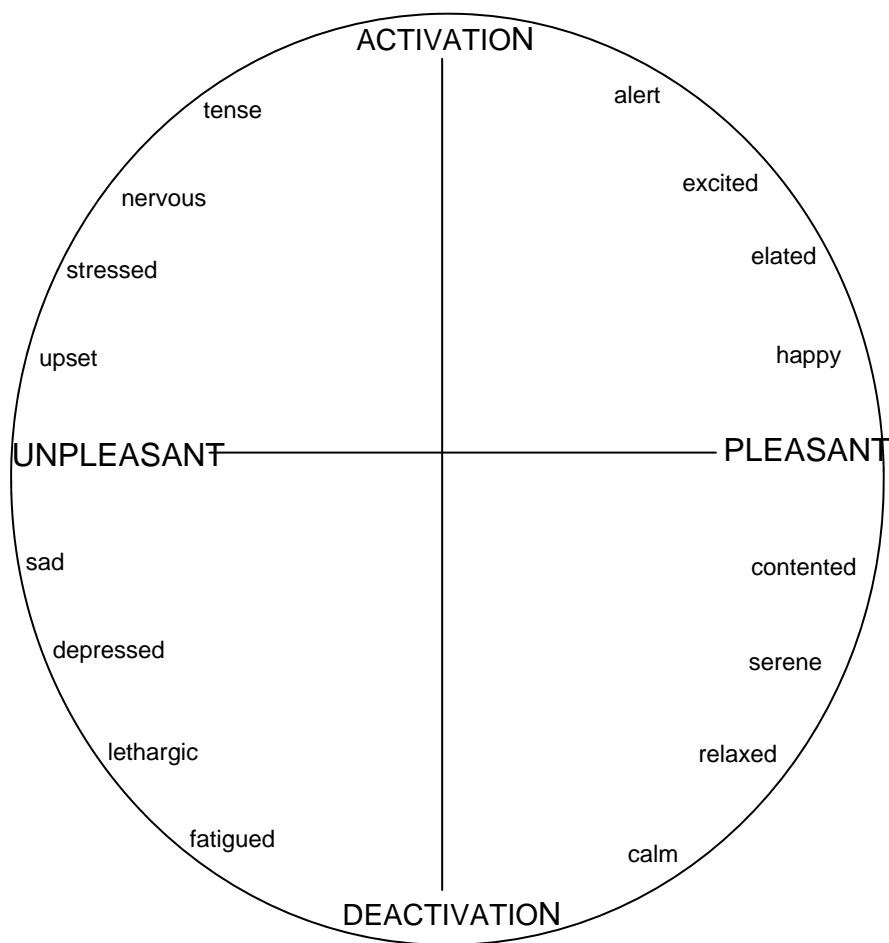
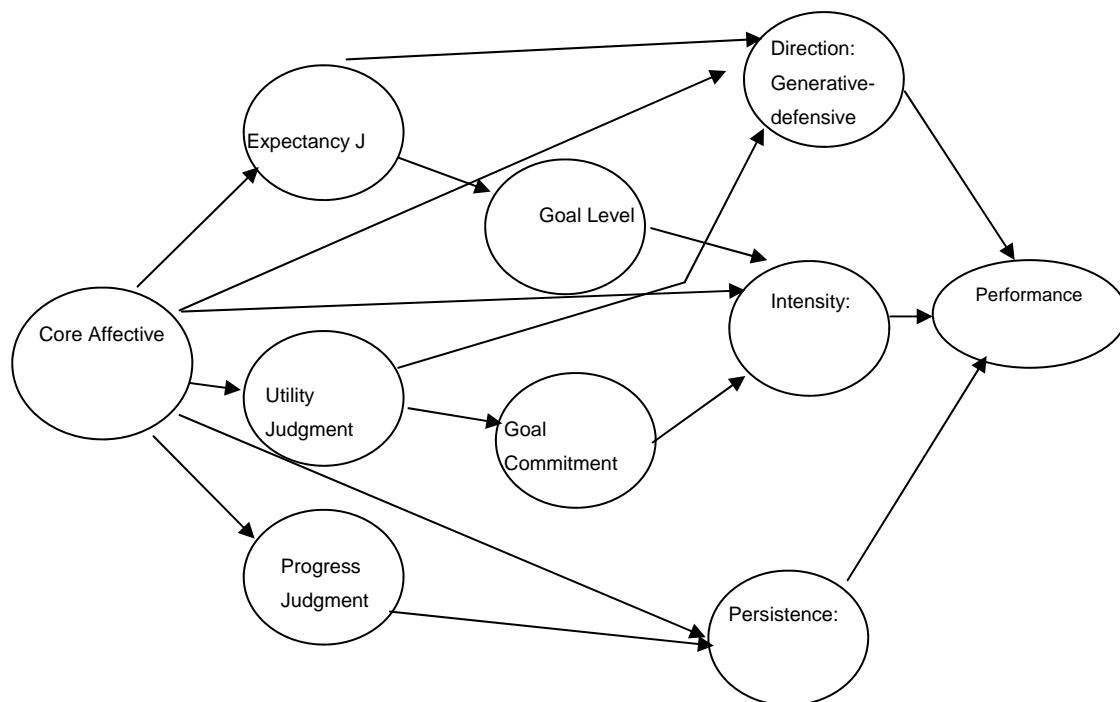Figure 2. Schematic map of Core Affect from Russell and Feldman Barrett (1999)
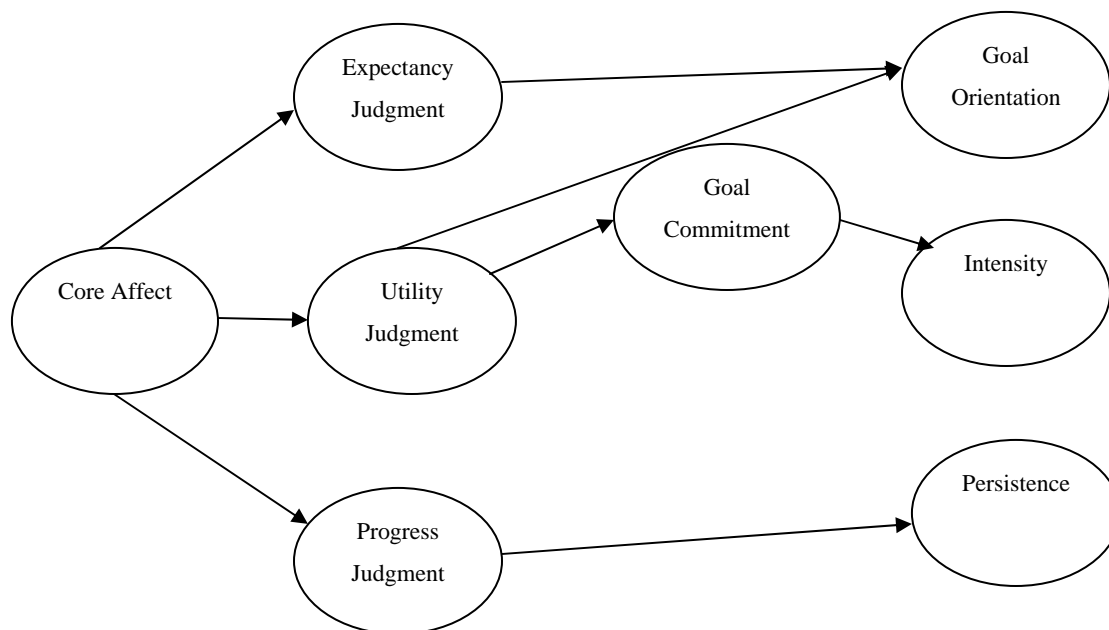
Figure 3. A Priori Model

Figure 4. Empirical Model

Tinsel Town Participant Sheet

You are the Vice President of a Hollywood movie studio. The task in front of you is to pick the movies that your studio will produce and release in the upcoming year. The profits of your studio are riding on the decisions you make. Pick the best movies and you (as well as the stockholders) will be swimming in profit; pick the wrong ones and the studio may go belly up. Profit from the movies the studio makes is determined by taking the revenue earned by each film and subtracting its cost:

Movie Profit = Movie Revenue – Movie Cost

Movie cost is estimated by adding the production cost (which is fixed) to the marketing cost (which is under our control):

*Movie Cost = Production Cost + Marketing Cost

Movie revenue is estimated by multiplying the number of viewers by the average ticket price for a particular film:

*Movie Revenue = # of Viewers * Average Ticket Price

The number of viewers for any given film depends on five main factors: **(1) Viewer Appeal, (2) Movie Quality, (3) Marketing, (4) MPAA rating, and (5) Average Ticket Price.**

Viewer Appeal is basically a function of popular interest in the film's content (i.e., setting, plot, special effects), as well as the popularity of the talent involved (i.e., director and actors/actresses). *Movie quality* is a function of the script quality, director's skill, and actor/actress' skill. All of these things interact with one another, and each one is important. *Marketing* obviously increases public awareness of the movie, and the *MPAA (Motion Picture Association of America) rating* constrains the size of your audience base. The *average ticket price* reflects the age of the average viewer and, to a certain extent, the time of day that the typical viewer goes to see the movie. *All five factors must be considered when estimating how much revenue a film will bring in.*

Your spending allowance for each year is $150 million. Examine the information at your disposal and figure out how to spend the $150 million to maximize total profit for the year. It's up to you whether you spend the $150 million on one blockbuster or divvy it up over 10 smaller projects – just figure out the ones that will bring in the most profit. While a film's total revenue is important, keep in mind that it's return on investment that is critical. In other words, the most important value to estimate is a potential film's profit divided by its cost (i.e., profit/cost, or profit ratio). Profit ratio reflects the number of ollars of profit we get for every dollar we spend. A good film will end up making about twice as much as it cost (including marketing), and a great film may end up making three to four times as much. And don't bother trying to save any money – it's there to be spent, so use as much as you can.

<u>SCRIPT OPTIONS</u>

Title: Southern Accents

Genre: Drama

Audience: Couples; females

<u>Plot Summary</u>:
This movie shows 10 years in the life of a young Southern girl, born and raised in a town of less than 300 people by her conservative parents. The film tracks the girl from her suppressed childhood into her young adulthood, when she meets an older boy from the other side of the tracks. She and the boy fall in love, but struggle to stay together through the pressures of a pregnancy and abortion.

Talent	Role	Type
Eliza Dushku	Girl	Lead
Heath Ledger	Boyfriend	Lead
Robert Duvall	Father	Support
Ann Margaret	Mother	Support

Director: Mimi Leder

<u>Cost</u>: $23 million

<u>Title</u>: A Lifetime of Anger

<u>Genre</u>: Drama

<u>Audience</u>: Diverse

<u>Plot Summary</u>:
Two brothers grew up in a dysfunctional family, learning to battle life's problems with hate and bitterness. Pulled back together for the funeral of their grandmother, they try to reconcile their differences and bitterness toward one another.

Talent	Role	Type
Alec Baldwin	Brother	Lead
Nicolas Cage	Brother	Lead
David Morse	Bartender	Support
Liv Tyler	Waitress	Support

Director: Billy Bob Thornton

<u>Cost</u>: $20 million

Title: Rikki-Tikki-Tavi

Genre: 3-D Animation

Audience: Kids; families

Plot Summary:
Set in India and using state-of-the-art 3-D technology, the movie follows the exploits of the beloved mongoose, Rikki-Tikki-Tavi, and his friends, Darzee and Chuchundra.

Talent	Role	Type
Cuba Gooding Jr.	Rikki-Tikki-Tavi (Voice)	Support
Hallie Kate Eisenberg	Anna (Voice)	Support
Tim Allen	Chuchundra (Voice)	Support
Roseanne Barr	Nagaina (Voice)	Support
Regis Philbin	Nag (Voice)	Support

Director: Stanley Eider

Cost: $65 million

Title: Sex Ed

Genre: Comedy

Audience: Diverse

Plot Summary:
When the class valedictorian becomes pregnant, all hell breaks loose at a small suburban high school. Instigated by a student advocate and the local Planned Parenthood, a push is made to teach sex education in the classroom and sell condoms on school property, but is met by strong resistance from the community.

Talent	Role	Type
Natalie Portman	Valedictorian	Lead
Christina Ricci	Student advocate	Lead
Cheech Marin	Principal	Support
Andy Dick	PTA President	Support
Richard Simmons	PE Teacher	Support

Director: Barry Levinson

Cost: $29 million

Title: Fast Food

Genre: Comedy

Audience: Diverse

Plot Summary:
Milo's is a typical fast food restaurant with the usual assortment of teenagers and retirees on their way up or down. The movie is a comic look at the slowest, most inefficient "fast food service" restaurant in the business and one thief's misfortune to come across it.

Talent	Role	Type
Mena Suvari	Employee	Lead
Steve Buscemi	Manager	Lead
Daman Wayans	Robber	Lead
Wilford Brimley	Hostage	Support
Michael Richards	Hostage	Support

Director: Harold Ramis

Cost: $25 million

Title: Rio

Genre: Drama

Audience: Adults; couples

Plot Summary:

A couple vacationing in Rio discover a body washed up on the shore in a clump of trees. After alerting the authorities, the woman is identified as a missing Washington D.C. attorney. An investigation ensues and police begin to suspect one of her political clients may be to blame.

Talent	Role	Type
Sharon Stone	Lobbyist/Girlfriend	Lead
Gene Hackman	Lead Investigator	Lead
Richard Dreyfuss	President	Lead

Director: Mike Nichols

Cost: $40 million
Title: Light Years

Genre: Science Fiction

Audience: Diverse

Plot Summary:
In the year 2045, a tremendous explosion destroys the earth without a trace. A peaceful humanoid alien society, Yzizor, records the explosion and sends a ship to explore the mystery. On the journey, we learn what life is like in this alien civilization and see how many of the issues facing humanity were also faced (and dealt with) by another species.

Talent	Role	Type
Len Randall	Alien Commander	Lead
Jason Owens	Alien Security Director	Lead
Amber Valletta	Alien Anthropologist	Lead

Director: Ridley Scott

Cost: $90 million

Title: On Campus

Genre: Documentary

Audience: Older teens; young adults

Plot Summary:
Shot as a pseudo-documentary, this film follows a group of five college students from their high school graduation through four years at Southern Illinois University. We meet each individual and their families in the early part of the film as the students head off for college, and watch as they struggle with independence, relationships, choosing a career, and the temptations of the modern college campus.

Talent	Role	Type
Tom Skelton	Chad	Lead
DeWayne Stevens	Marcus	Lead
Emily Cryton	Tonya	Lead
Teri Miller	Roxanne	Lead
Ronda Nelson	Amy	Support

Director: Neil LaBute

Cost: $12 million

Title: Renegade

Genre: Science Fiction

Audience: Diverse

Plot Summary:
It's the year 2192. Todd McCullock, a CIA agent returning from a three-year overseas assignment, comes back to find that everyone is just a little…different. After witnessing a bizarre mating ritual between two former friends, Agent McCullock realizes that everyone in the agency is an alien life form, and that the infiltration extends to the highest levels of government.

Talent	Role	Type
Kevin Bacon	Agent McCullock	Lead
Jessica Alba	Agent Jones	Lead
Gene Hackman	CIA Director	Support
Goran Visnjic	Agent Palmer	Support

Director: Joel Schumacher

Cost: $38 million

Title: Chosin Reservoir

Genre: War

Audience: Diverse

Plot Summary:
November 1950. Winter approaches as U.S. troops chase the fleeing remnants of the North Korean army towards the Chinese border. A realistic war film, the movie calls attention to one of the most ferocious and little-known battles of the Korean War.

Talent	Role	Type
Tom Berenger	Sgt. Mino	Lead
Vin Diesel	Lt. Hathaway	Lead
Chris O'Donnell	Pfc. Reynolds	Lead
Nick Nolte	General Smith	Support

Director: Simon West
Cost: $46 million

Title: Degeneration

Genre: Horror-comedy

Audience: Diverse

Plot Summary:
In 2004, the U.S. begins closing down research programs initiated at the height of desperation during the Cold War. At a top-secret research laboratory in Colorado, orders come through to suspend the activities of Project Big Bang, a biological warfare super, but while shutting the laboratory down, an accident exposes members of the town to the toxin. The victims don't die, but become walking zombies ruled by animalistic thought processes and characterized by extreme fury towards normal humans.

Talent	Role	Type
Linda Fiorentino	Project Director	Lead
Kurt Russell	Vacationer	Lead
Ray Romano	Mortician	Support
Jaime Foxx	Town Barber	Support

Director: John Carpenter

Cost: $51 million

CONTENT AND STAR APPEAL

Table 1 contains two separate estimates of a film's appeal based on its *content* and *stars*.

- **Content Appeal** concerns a movie's premise, plot, character development, and special effects; the film's genre and emergent themes play a role as well. Content Appeal values range from 0-200, with a value of 200 indicating a very broad appeal, and a value of 0 indicating no appeal.

- **Star Appeal** has to do with the popularity of the actors/actresses as well as the director. Industry research suggests that content is roughly twice as important as stars in determining who goes to see a movie, so we scaled Star Appeal values from 0-100, with a score of 100 meaning that basically every role in the film has A-List stars that people want to see; a score of 0 means that the cast is essentially unknown to the audience.

- A good overall index of the "buzz" surrounding a potential movie is to add up its Content Appeal and Star Appeal.

Table 1. Focus Group Research on Viewer Appeal of Potential Movies.

Movie Title	Content Appeal	Star Appeal	Staff Comments
Rikki-Tikki-Tavi	200.00	75.00	Families will eat this stuff up; the famous mongoose is loved by all. Focus groups liked the voices.
Light Years	185.00	30.00	Offbeat science fiction story from an A-list director. Story is intriguing, and will have great special effects.
Chosin Reservoir	150.00	50.00	Older viewers were intrigued by the history; younger viewers liked the realistic battle scenes.
Degeneration	130.00	55.00	Everyone loves a good zombie pic. Should provide nice mix of humor and special effects.
Renegade	130.00	80.00	A modern update of *Invasion of the Body Snatchers*. The huge *X-Files* fan base will love it, especially with Jessica Alba.
Rio	110.00	45.00	Mystery involving sex,

			murder, corruption – and the President. Should appeal to older viewers.
Sex Ed	80.00	40.00	Sex in the schools is a perfect target, and focus groups responded well. No headliners, but good cast.
Southern Accents	75.00	30.00	Gritty realism – story appealed more to women, but men really liked Eliza Dushku.
Fast Food	70.00	70.00	Spoof of typical fast food joint scored about average on content; perfect casting in this one.
A Lifetime of Anger	65.00	45.00	A biting tragedy; this may be the tear-jerker of the year. No major female roles hurts appeal some.
On Campus	50.00	0.00	Documentary-style exploration of college life. Viewer appeal will be somewhat limited to older teens and young adults.

SCRIPT QUALITY

Table 2 displays information regarding the script quality of the potential movies for next year.

- **Script Quality** includes factors such as quality of the dialogue, plot coherence, pacing, and factors appropriate to each type of movie. <u>Script Quality ratings are made on a scale of 1-10, with a score of 1 indicating a very poor script, and a score of 10 representing an excellent script.</u>
Script Quality is very important to the success of a movie. We can have all the big-name stars we want but if the script is terrible, it's not going to make back the money needed to pay all those stars

Table 2. Script Quality Ratings and Expected MPAA Ratings for Potential Movies

Movie Title	Script Quality	MPAA Rating
Degeneration	10	PG-13
On Campus	10	R
Southern Accents	10	R
Fast Food	9	PG
Sex Ed	8	PG-13
Rio	8	R
Chosin Reservoir	7	PG-13
Light Years	7	PG
Renegade	6	PG-13
Rikki-Tikki-Tavi	5	G
A Lifetime of Anger	4	PG-13

DIRECTOR AND ACTOR SKILL

Table 3 displays information regarding skill ratings for film directors.

- **Director Skill** pertains to the ability of a director to create a unified artistic vision and get the most out of the actors and actresses Director ratings were made on a scale of 0-5, with 0 indicating a true hack with no talent and 5 indicating a director who could make an Oscar-winner with volunteers from regional theater.

Table 4 shows the acting skill ratings for lead actors.

- **Acting Skill** is primarily a function of an actor/actresses' ability to credibly display a range of emotions. Actors and actresses are rated on a 5-point scale, with 1 indicating an actor/actress who would be challenged to do well on a soap opera and 5 indicating an actor/actress that can do any role with convincing authority. Acting Quality can be estimated by *averaging the Acting Skill ratings for the Lead Roles*; the Acting Skill of supporting actors can pretty much be ignored.

Table 3. Director Skill Ratings

Director	Skill Rating (0-5 stars)	Director	Skill Rating (0-5 stars)
John Carpenter	3.5	Harold Ramis	3
Stanley Eider	3	Joel Schumacher	1.5
Neil LaBute	4	Ridley Scott	5
Mimi Leder	3.5	Billy Bob Thornton	3.5
Barry Levinson	4	Simon West	2
Mike Nichols	4		

Table 4. Acting Skill Ratings for Lead Actors (0-5 Stars)

Actor/Actress	Skill	Actor/Actress	Skill	Actor/Actress	Skill
Jessica Alba	3 ½	Eliza Dushku	4	Christina Ricci	5
Kevin Bacon	4	Linda Fiorentino	4	Kurt Russell	4
Alec Baldwin	4 ½	Gene Hackman	5	Tom Skelton	4 ½
Tom Berenger	4	Heath Ledger	3 ½	DeWayne Stevens	4
Steve Buscemi	4	Teri Miller	4 ½	Sharon Stone	3
Nicholas Cage	3 ½	Chris O'Donnell	2 ½	Mena Suvari	3 ½
Emily Cryton	5	Jason Owens	5	Amber Valletta	4 ½
Vin Diesel	3 ½	Natalie Portman	4 ½	Damon Wayans	3
Richard Dreyfuss	4	Len Randall	4 ½		

MARKETING STRATEGY

As shown in Table 5, there are four feasible marketing strategies you can employ, each with a given cost and impact. Basically, <u>the more expensive the strategy, the more effective it is</u>. It is important to note, however, that marketing is most effective when there is a movie with high Viewer Appeal – marketing doesn't help much if the content of the film isn't all that intriguing or if there are no big-name stars. Overall, a good strategy is to <u>spend money marketing a movie in proportion to its cost – cheap ones we can get away with little or no marketing; expensive ones can benefit from saturation TV marketing.</u>

Table 5. Marketing Strategy Information

Strategy	Cost (in millions)	Impact on Viewer Appeal
Word-of-Mouth	$0	+0%
Print + Outdoor	$5	+30%
Pre-Release TV	$10	+55%
Saturation TV	$20	+75%

IMPACT OF MOVIE RATINGS

Table 6 shows the impact of movie ratings on the size of your potential viewer base. As you can see, "R" or "NC-17" movies take a big hit in that a good proportion of people who go to see movies are excluded from the start. Obviously, "G" films give you the largest possible base, so you should keep an eye out for any of those.

Table 6. Impact of MPAA Movie Rating on Size of Potential Viewer Base

MPAA Rating	Projected Impact
G	0%
PG	-10%
PG-13	-15%
R	-25%
NC-17	-40%

AVERAGE TICKET PRICES

Table 7 shows the projected average ticket price for each potential movie based on various demographic factors. The potential movies for next year are predicted to have average ticket prices ranging from $6.00 to $7.

Table 7. Average Ticket Price in Dollars for Potential Movies

Movie Title	Average Expected Ticket Price
A Lifetime of Anger	$ 7.50
Rio	$ 7.50
Southern Accents	$ 7.50
Chosin Reservoir	$ 7.25
Degeneration	$ 7.00
Light Years	$ 7.00
On Campus	$ 7.00
Renegade	$ 6.75
Fast Food	$ 6.50
Sex Ed	$ 6.50
Rikki-Tikki-Tavi	$ 6.00

Appendix C. Phase 1 Measures

Phase 1: Trait Affect Measure

Instructions: The following phrases are descriptive of a person's typical, day-to-day **mood**. Please read each phrase and, using the scale provided below, write the number that corresponds best with how you feel **most of the time** next to each phrase.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	No Leaning	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

1. _____Most of the time I am in a good mood.
2. _____I am a happy person.
3. _____I could be described as "upbeat."
4. _____I am generally optimistic.
5. _____You might say I have a "sunny" disposition.
6. _____I am in a good mood more often than most people I know.
7. _____At any given moment, I'm more likely to be happy than unhappy.
8. _____There are many things that put me in a good mood.
9. _____I get lots of joy from the little things in life.
10. _____I usually don't stay in a bad mood for very long.
11. _____I am cheerful.
12. _____It comes naturally to me to see the bright side of things.
13. _____At times I find myself joyful for no obvious reason.
14. _____I am almost always in a good mood.
15. _____Most of the time I am pleased with life.
16. _____People really seem to enjoy being around me.
17. _____I am rarely unhappy.
18. _____I smile a lot.
19. _____I have a good feeling about my future.
20. _____The quirks of others generally don't bother me much.
21. _____My bad moods are infrequent.
22. _____I'm easy to please.
23. _____It's pretty uncommon for me to be pessimistic.
24. _____I am known for having a positive attitude.
25. _____I have a knack for making other people happy.

Instructions: The next set of phases describes how intensely or strongly a person's mood is <u>typically</u>, on a <u>day-to-day</u> basis. Please read each phrase and, using the scale provided below, write the number that corresponds best with how strongly you experience moods **<u>most of the time</u>** next to each phrase.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	No Leaning	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

1. _____My good moods as well as my bad moods tend to be intense.
2. _____I have strong emotional reactions to many things.
3. _____I'm not a "mellow" person.
4. _____When something good happens to me, I tend to get pretty excited.
5. _____I feel many things more strongly than most people I know.
6. _____I am fairly emotional.
7. _____My good moods tend to be *very* good.
8. _____I cry at the sad parts in movies.
9. _____When something goes wrong, I often get quite upset.
10. _____Good things cause me to feel great joy.
11. _____I can get quite worked up while watching sporting events.
12. _____When I am sad, I am *very* sad.
13. _____Just hearing one of my favorite songs can really put me in a good mood.
14. _____I can get pretty emotional at times.
15. _____I feel things pretty intensely.
16. _____When I'm in a good mood, I am on top of the world.
17. _____I do have quite a temper.
18. _____It doesn't take much for me to become choked up.
19. _____I sometimes get too happy or too sad about little things.
20. _____I feel passionately about many things.
21. _____A sad story in the news can really make me feel bad.
22. _____When something scares me, I get *really* scared.
23. _____I experience emotions very deeply.
24. _____I often have strong feelings.
25. _____When I get mad, I can be a terror.

Phase 2: State Affect Measures

Instructions: The following list of words represents feelings that may or may not be how you are feeling at this very moment. Please review the list of words and, using the scale below, write the number that corresponds to how much or how little you are experiencing that feeling AT THIS MOMENT.

Not at all	Not much	Some	A little	A lot
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

1. _____Happy

2. _____Optimistic

3. _____Cheerful

4. _____Light hearted

5. _____Content

6. _____High spirited

7. _____Positive

8. _____Elated

9. _____Joyful

10. _____Good

Please choose a word or a short phrase that would describe your <u>current mood</u> and write it in the space below.

Now, indicate how <u>STRONGLY YOU FEEL</u> the way you just described, by circling the number that corresponds most highly with your current mood.

Weak	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**strong**
a little	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**a lot**
Slight	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**powerful**
Active	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**passive**
Intense	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**moderate**
not very	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**a great deal**
Hardly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**plenty**
Excited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**calm**

Affect Grid

Use the "affect grid" to describe your current state of feelings with a checkmark.

The grid is a kind of map for feelings. The center of the square (marked by X in the grid below) represents a neutral, average, everyday feeling that is neither positive nor negative. The vertical dimension of the map represents wide awake, alert, or activated you person feel—independent of whether the feeling is positive or negative. The top half is for feelings that are above average in arousal and the lower half for feelings below average. At the top of the square is maximum arousal. The horizontal dimension of the map represents pleasant feelings. The farther to the right the more pleasant and the farther to the left, the more unpleasant feelings.

Stress			High Arousal				Excitement
Unpleasant							
Feelings			X				Pleasant Feelings
Depression			Sleepiness			Relaxation	

Phase 2: Pre-task survey

Instructions: The next 15 items questions are designed to judge your feelings about the Tinsel Town task that has presented to you and gauge your overall profit goal. Please first indicate your desired personal goal by filling in a dollar amount in the statement below. Then respond to the following statements based on what you are thinking <u>AT THIS TIME</u> Read each item and then mark the degree to which you feel in agreement with that statement in the space next to it.

PERSONAL GOAL: I am trying to make $_____ million in the next year

Now, keeping that goal in mind, think specifically about how your effort toward reaching this goal could help you in Tinsel town when responding to the next set of questions.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. If I put forth my best effort, I can do well on Tinsel Town	1	2	3	4	5
2. No matter how hard I try, I don't think I'll do well	1	2	3	4	5
3. Working hard on Tinsel Town will lead me to reach my goal	1	2	3	4	5
4. If I really try to reach my desired profit, I will make it	1	2	3	4	5
5. I am confident I can make the profit level I chose for my goal	1	2	3	4	5

Expectancy is the degree to which individuals perceive a certain level of effort will result in a desired level of performance.

Think about how you will feel if you do well (i.e. achieve a high profit level or reach your goal) on Tinsel Town. Read each item and then mark the degree to which you feel in agreement with that statement in the space next to it.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
6. It is important to me personally that I do well on Tinsel Town	1	2	3	4	5
7. It doesn't matter to me what my final profit is	1	2	3	4	5
8. I foresee a positive outcome in regard to my goal for Tinsel Town	1	2	3	4	5
9. It will make me feel good if I perform well on this task	1	2	3	4	5
10. I would be a little upset if I didn't achieve the profit I want	1	2	3	4	5

Utility, is representative of Vroom's (1964) concept of valence; the attractiveness of potential outcomes. Therefore, higher utility judgments reported by individuals will be reflective of more anticipated satisfaction from the attainment of an outcome

Think about how devoted you feel toward reaching the goal you indicated for yourself. Read each item and then mark the degree to which you feel in agreement with that statement in the space next to it.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
11. I am dedicated to reaching the goal I set for myself	1	2	3	4	5
12. I am fairly determined to achieve the profit I desire	1	2	3	4	5
13. I am not going to try hard to reach the profit level I set for myself	1	2	3	4	5
14. I am committed to making a certain amount of money	1	2	3	4	5
15. I will try as best I can to reach the profit level I set for myself	1	2	3	4	5

Goal commitment represents the degree of dedication that individual's feel to their goal.

Appendix E. Phase 3 Measures

Phase 3: Mid-Task Survey

Instructions: The next few pages contain several scales consisting of a number of statements related to the goal which you set for yourself at the beginning of this task. For this scale, think about your current progress toward that goal and how you approached Tinsel Town. Please respond to the following statements based on what you are thinking **at this time**. Read each item and then mark the degree to which you feel in agreement with that statement in the space next to it.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I feel that I am on-track toward reaching my goal profit	1	2	3	4	5
2. I am making progress toward successfully completing Tinsel Town	1	2	3	4	5
3. I think I am going to reach my desired profit level	1	2	3	4	5
4. I am further along toward making my final recommendation than I was at the start of Tinsel Town	1	2	3	4	5
5. I feel like I am not going to reach the profit I set for myself	1	2	3	4	5

Progress judgment refers to the degree of advancement individuals perceive they are making toward reaching their goal.

For the next scale, think about the amount of effort you have put into working on Tinsel Town. Please respond to the following statements based on what you are thinking **at this time**. Read each item and then mark the degree to which you feel in agreement with that statement in the space next to it.

	Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
1. I am devoting a fair amount of effort to Tinsel Town	1	2	3	4	5
2. I have really been concentrating on the task at hand	1	2	3	4	5
3. I am putting my best effort into choosing which movies to produce	1	2	3	4	5
4. I am quite focused on the task	1	2	3	4	5
5. I don't think I could try any harder than what I'm already doing	1	2	3	4	5

Intensity is defined as the amount of effort participants devote to completing the task.

For this scale, think about your determination throughout the task. Please respond to the following statements based on what you are thinking **at this time**. Read each item and then mark the degree to which you feel in agreement with that statement in the space next to it.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
6. I continue working toward my goal	1	2	3	4	5
7. I keep trying to reach the profit I set out to achieve	1	2	3	4	5
8. I have maintained my effort the whole time I have been working on Tinsel Town	1	2	3	4	5
9. I have not let up on my attempt to reach the profit level I hope to	1	2	3	4	5
10. I am persistent in trying to reach my personal goal	1	2	3	4	5

Persistence is the continuation of effort over time.

For the last scale, think about whether or not you approached Tinsel Town with the attitude you were going to try or not try. Please respond to the following statements based on what you are thinking **at this time**. Read each item and then mark the degree to which you feel in agreement with that statement in the space next to it.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
11. I am actively trying to do well on the Tinsel Town task	1	2	3	4	5
12. I am working to achieve a high profit-level	1	2	3	4	5
13. I approached Tinsel Town thinking I could make a high profit	1	2	3	4	5
14. I am not even trying to do well on Tinsel Town	1	2	3	4	5
15. I think I can do well on this task, therefore I am trying to do a good job	1	2	3	4	5

Direction, is defined as a categorical variable whereby a person chooses to work toward their goal (generative) or not (defensive). A generative orientation is associated with approach behaviors, and will be measured by whether or not individuals were active in working toward achieving positive outcomes. A defensive orientation is associated with avoid behaviors and will be measured based on whether individual's perceived negative outcomes and thus acted to avoid those potential outcomes.

Appendix F. Proposal Introduction

Previous Research

Motivation

Workplace motivation has been a popular area of research in the past and has fostered multiple well-known theories. Many definitions of work motivation have evolved from past research, but the one chosen for this study was adopted from Latham and Pinder (2005), who describe the concept as "…a set of energetic forces that originate both within as well as beyond an individual's being, to initiate work-related behavior and to determine its form, direction, intensity, and duration…thus, motivation is a psychological process…" (p 485). Hence work motivation is a process for determining how energy is used to accomplish a task. The importance of motivation to organizations was essentially founded with the Hawthorne Studies.

The landmark Hawthorne Studies measured the impact of different working conditions on productivity, but what they discovered was that management-style changed the response in worker morale, behavior, and output (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939). Furthermore, they demonstrated that when people are given the opportunity to express their preferences, are free from strict supervision, and are given goal that take into account their ability, they work more effectively (Mayo, 1933; Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939). Similar studies during this time suggested that attitudes influence performance and that employees were highly motivated by money (Houser, 1938; Taylor, 1911; Lawler, 1965), as well as many other factors including social status, appreciation and security (Hoppock, 1935). The takeaway from the first studies of motivation applied

to organizations was that productivity, satisfaction, and motivation of workers were all interrelated (Roethlisberger, 1977).

Shortly after this period, researchers began to see motivation as a connection between a person's needs and aspirations and their influence on behavior. Originally, Maslow's (1943) Hierarchy of Needs theory posited a need to achieve basic physiological, safety, love/belonging, esteem, and self-actualization, in order to achieve satisfaction. Maslow's theory recognizes that the environment must be right for a person to achieve full potential, and that humans strive for upper-level capabilities. The original Theory X and Theory Y (Douglas McGregor, 1957) grouped Maslow's higherarchy into "lower order" needs (theory X) and "higher order" needs (theory Y) and suggested management use two very different sets of needs to motivate employees. This was later augmented by Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959 and Latham, 2007 to further suggest that job designs and characteristics are capable of satisfying needs for growth. These theories attempted to ascertain why a person must act, based on environment and needs, but not why specific actions are chosen. It became apparent that motivation was not purely implicit, but composed of choices and processes.

Cognitively-based motivation theories of the time further suggested that individuals behaved as a result of certain evaluations and that motivation was a process. Equity theory (Adams, 1965) ascertained that unequal ratios produce tension within a person and can lead to that individual quitting a job, reducing his or her quality of effort and so on. Rather, the perceived proportion of individuals' inputs into and outcomes derived from the relationship in comparison with the inputs and outcomes of relevant

others was said to shape motivation and satisfaction (Adams, 1965;Walster, Walster, & Berscheid, 1978). This is known as distributive justice.

Another cognitive theory developed by Victor Vroom (1964) ascertains that evaluations of potential outcomes coupled with effort are responsible for directing motivation. Expectancy Theory states that the effort people put forth is a function of their expected probability that certain outcomes will occur based on their performance. This theory is based on a person's expectancies, mood, choices and instrumentality. Both Equity and Expectancy Theories are based on choice, effort, and persistence and suggest all three influence one's motivation.

In other work, Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory (1977) and Behavior Modification Theory (Skinner, 1974) formed the knowledge that motivation and behavior are functions of reinforcement and pleasure. These fueled the concepts of feedback and reward (Latham & Pinder, 2005) and created a huge step forward for workplace motivation and led researchers to think of motivation as a cognitive process, whereby human beings are constantly evaluating many factors including needs, ability, expected reward, and subsequently using them to direct their efforts.

Up to this point, no motivation theory has directly addressed intentions. In 1954, Ryan and Smith posited that needs, beliefs, and attitudes shape behavior through intentions (i.e. goals), which eventually developed Locke and Latham's 1990 Goal-Setting Theory. This theory has received much support and suggests goals influence performance in three ways: (1) by narrowing and directing attention, (2) by increasing effort toward achieving that goal, (3) by increasing persistence. Additionally, Locke suggested that attainability, goal-commitment, self-efficacy, and feedback were capable

of influencing the goal-performance relationship (Locke 1996; Locke 2001; Latham & Locke, 2002).   Further research has shown that feedback seeking increases effort and goal difficulty (Bandura, 1997; Locke & Latham, 2002) and subsequently performance (Renn & Fedor, 2001).

When individuals engage in self-monitoring of their progress toward goals (Latham & Pinder, 2005), the process is considered self-regulation. Gollwitzer & Bayer (1999) offered the perspective that goal-striving and self-regulatory processes mediate the effects of intentions on behavior and that self-regulation is a four-step process of choice and action decision-making. Conversely, other scholars have obtained support that self-regulation was an automatic process, not requiring significant attention resources (De Shon, Brown, & Greenis, 1996; Lord & Levy, 1994). Cognitively demanding or not, individuals have been shown to adjust their behavior in response to feedback (Aspinwall, 1998).

Last of all, personality traits and values have also been influential in motivational direction (Latham & Pinder, 2005). Specific traits, such as self-regulation (Kanfer, Wanberg, & Kantrowitz, 2001), self-monitoring (Day & Schleischer, 2006), and self-efficacy have all been linked to higher performance. Goal orientation (Brett & VandeWalle, 1999), values (Locke & Henne, 1986), and cultural background (Erez & Earley, 1993) have all been shown to influence choices such as goal-setting and directed behavior, resulting in higher performance.

Research on motivation has left scientists and practitioners with a wealth of knowledge about behavioral choices surrounding employee and workplace motivation. To recap, the following have been linked to an individual's motivation and have been

labeled as a source of influence on work motivation: (1) needs, (2) desired outcomes, (3) attitudes, personality traits and values, (4) judgments, (5) job design characteristics, (6) goals, and (7) feedback. All of which impact the choice, direction, and intensity that an individual will devote toward completing a task. However, this is not a comprehensive picture of behavioral or motivational influencers.

. In recent attempts to identify antecedents of motivation, research has recently included mood, emotion, or affect. Erez and Isen (2002) showed that people with higher levels of induced positive affect sustained higher levels of persistence, effort, self-reported motivation, and performance on two tasks. Lord and Kanfer (2002) argued that moods and emotions influence the attainment of long-term goals and are related with other motivational constructs. Additional scholars attest to the likelihood of emotion to influence processes underlying motivation (e.g. Erez & Isen, 2002; Forgas, 1995; Forgas & George, 2001; Isen, 2000) and human thought and behavior (e.g. Izard, 1993; Loewenstein, Weber, Hsee, & Welch, 2001). In addition to its effects on motivation, the seminal work on attitudes (job satisfaction) and performance set the proxy for study in affect and performance since attitudes have both cognitive and affective components (Wright & Cropanzano, 1997). This literature holds important implications for antecedents to motivation and behavior. Distinguishing among mood concepts will provide a more salient understanding on the construct of affect and help structure its function and relationship to motivation.

<div align="center">Affect</div>

As a result of past research, many feeling-related constructs utilized in psychology are overlapping. Weiss (2002) proposed that affect is comprised of moods,

emotions, and stress and that these share four important commonalities with the first being that all members of the affect family are states describing temporary psychological experiences. Watson and Pennebaker (1989) indicated positive mood can be measured as a state or as a trait; the trait represents stable individual differences in the level of positive mood generally experienced, whereas the state depicts how a person feels at a given point in time. Thus, state positive mood refers to moods that are experienced in the short term and fluctuate over time, whereas trait positive mood refers to stable individual differences in positive affect levels (Watson & Pennebaker, 1989).

Trait positive mood is often referred to in the literature as positive affectivity (e.g, George, 1989; Watson & Pennebaker, 1989). Individuals high on positive affectivity have a propensity to experience more positive affect across situations than do individuals low on positive affectivity (e.g., Tellegen, 1982; Watson & Pennebaker, 1989). Most research on positive affect has focused on this as a state. Although affective disposition impacts positive mood states at work (George, 1989), moods are also influenced by situational factors and the interaction between the person and the situation.

The second commonality of affect states is the subjective element that results from temporary experiences; these feelings are experienced in association with an affective state that informs an individual that he or she is experiencing some digression from normalcy (Weiss, 2002). Third, all of these states have a physiological component; supplemented by activation or deactivation of some bodily component. Fourth, all of the states presented involve an evaluative component; people prefer some to others. Based on the four components, it is possible for moods and emotions to mutually be described as falling under the umbrella of affectivity.

Emotions, however, are explicit reactions to events, objects or persons (Greenberg, 2004) and produce reactions which are intense, punctual, and short-lived with a distinctive beginning and end (Weiss, 2002). They are typically classified easily based on feelings with terms such as anger, fear, or joy (Greenberg, 2004). The essential difference between moods and emotions lies in the concept of diffuseness (Cropanzano, Weiss, Hale, & Reb, 2003; Weiss, 2002). In contrast to emotions, moods are less powerfully experienced, existing as a diffused mental background feeling that is often lacking a discrete source or trigger. Mood is a transitory affective state and is relatively mild and long lasting (Rogelberg, 2007). Mood is present at all times in the background of individuals' minds and can vary in terms of pleasant-unpleasant states (Cropanzano, Weiss, Hale, & Reb, 2003; Weiss, 2002).

Core Affect is another term for state mood and is the term to be utilized in the current study to represent individuals' mood. This is described as an accessible, subjective, affective feeling (Weiss, 2002) containing feelings of activation. Russell and Feldman Barrett (1999) say it can be best described as waking up in the morning feeling happy, chipper, depressed, or relaxed for no apparent reason. State induced positive mood has been shown to be related to higher levels of performance, quality, innovation, and efficiency (Cote, 1999). Further, studies have demonstrated a causal effect between positive moods and two indicators of performance, supervisory ratings and pay (assessed 18-20 months later) (Staw, Sutton, & Pelled, 1994).

Core Affective states are capable of providing information about the current psychological situation and therefore have consequences for cognitive and behavior. It is the intent of this study to induce a state-like background feeling capable of influencing

motivational processes and behavior. The term Core Affect and its definition captures the state of mood as well as a degree of activation associated with initial perceptions of the psychological situation. The feelings just described for Core Affect represent two dimensions which comprise an individual's Core Affect: pleasantness and activation. Different models have been presented for classifying moods and the type of state which individuals are experiencing.

Models of mood

In order to classify and evaluate the Core Affect state appropriately, two models were reviewed in an effort to select the one that would best capture an individual's Core Affect. Both the Positive Affectivity (PA) and Negative Affectivity (NA) model of mood and the Pleasantness-Activation model were reviewed in detail. The major difference between the two is that positive and negative affect are considered two distinct constructs which have their own level of activity associated with each. The pleasantness-activation models capture pleasantness or positivity, as well as the action associated with an individual's mood state. Past research recommends the pleasantness and activation models when measuring state mood, stating they are most useful for describing momentary affect (Weiss, 2005). Cropanzano et al. (2003) suggests the choice depends primarily on the scientific purposes of the investigator. For the purposes of the current study the Core Affect circumplex variation of the pleasantness-activation model will be employed, as it was adopted by Seo et al. (2004) in the development of their model. In everyday life, Core Affect is said to be a result of individuals continually evaluating their ongoing experiences relative to their goals. In as sense, they argue that Core Affective

experiences are thought to be informational and motivational based on goal evaluations. The model best captures the dimensions of Core Affect for this study.

The Core Affective circumplex was developed by Russell and Feldman Barrett (1999). At any one time an individual's Core Affect is said to lie somewhere in the circumplex as an integral blend of pleasant and activated feelings. Figure 2 in Appendix A is an illustration based on the schematic map of Core Affect according to Russell and Feldman Barrett (1999).