Pepperdine University

Pepperdine Digital Commons

Theses and Dissertations

2018

The impact of achievement motivation, job satisfaction and work-life balance among retail managers

Jeremy Daniel Metz

Recommended Citation

Pepperdine University

Graduate School of Education and Psychology

THE IMPACT OF ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION, JOB SATISFACTION AND

WORK-LIFE BALANCE AMONG RETAIL MANAGERS

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction

of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership

Jeremy Daniel Metz

August, 2018

James Rocco DellaNeve, Ed.D. – Dissertation Chairperson

This dissertation, written by

Jeremy Daniel Metz

under the guidance of a Faculty Committee and approved by its members, has been submitted to and accepted by the Graduate Faculty in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

Doctoral Committee:

James Rocco DellaNeve, Ed.D., Chairperson

June Schmieder-Ramirez, Ph.D.

Paul Sparks, Ph.D.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Thank you to my dissertation chair, Dr. James Rocco DellaNeve, and my dissertation committee, Dr. Paul Sparks and Dr. June Schmieder-Ramirez. This has been a long, difficult journey and your guidance helped me successfully accomplish this important goal. Also, thank you to Pepperdine University, my classmates and professors, as this program has changed me as a person and I have gained lifelong friends. I will forever be grateful.

Most of all, thank you to my family. To my wife, Britany, I love you and appreciate that you have supported me in my pursuit of this academic endeavor and all of my other crazy dreams. I wouldn't be who am I without you. To my parents, Daniel & Teri, I love you and my whole life all I have wanted to do is make you proud. I hope that I have and will continue to strive to. To my children, Savanna and Parker, I love you more than you will ever know. My goal in life is to make you happy and provide a good example for you. Always follow your dreams, no matter how challenging they are, as you can achieve anything you set your mind to.

VITA

Jeremy Daniel Metz

<u>Education</u>

Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership   May 2018
Pepperdine University
    Dissertation Topic: "The Impact of Achievement Motivation, Job Satisfaction
    and Work-Life Balance Among Retail Managers"
    Coursework GPA: 3.98

Master of Business Administration   December 2008
Iowa State University

Bachelor of Arts in Journalism and Mass Communication   December 2005
Drake University

<u>Professional Credentials</u>

Certificate in Employee Relations Law   November 2016
Institute for Applied Management & Law

Certificate in Advanced Project Management   January 2010
Stanford University

ABSTRACT

Achievement motivation has been identified as an important element of organization behavior due to the impact it can have on an individual's performance, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. At the same time, work-life balance has become increasingly valuable to employees. There is much literature supporting the positive impacts of achievement motivation, job satisfaction and work-life balance. In addition, theories exist which detail the relationships between the studied variables, but little research has been completed studying the results in corporate and retail settings.

This study evaluated the relationship between an individual's achievement motivation and job satisfaction, the relationship between an individual's achievement motivation and work-life balance, and the relationship between an individual's job satisfaction and work-life balance.

A quantitative study was conducted using three survey instruments. The Achievement Motivation Inventory (AMI) instrument will measure achievement motivation in this study via a modified short version featuring 30 questions. The 18 question Job in General (JIG) scale will be utilized to measure job satisfaction in this study. The 5 question Work-Family Conflict Scale (WFC) will be the instrument used to measure work-life balance in this study. A non-random, as a convenience sample was used to select participants for this study. The population consisted of salaried store management employees who work in multiple store

locations for a large corporation who were willing to voluntarily participate in the study.

Research question one tested achievement motivation and job satisfaction via the Achievement Motivation Inventory and Job in General scale. The analysis indicated that there is a weak positive linear relationship between the two studied variables. This relationship between a salaried retail manager's level of achievement motivation and their level of job satisfaction was found to be a statistically significant relationship. This was the only research question to feature a relationship between the studied variables that was statistically significant.

Chapter 1: Introduction

Background

Motivation may be a broad term, but it is a powerful element of organizational behavior that can impact the success of the individuals within an organization, as well as the fate of any organization itself. Motivation is, "The processes that account for an individual's intensity, direction, and persistence of effort toward attaining a goal" (Robbins & Judge, 2011, p. 204). There are many ways employees can be extrinsically and intrinsically motivated, including recognition of their efforts and accomplishments, opportunities for advancement, the work itself and relationships with other individuals at work (Robbins & Judge, 2011).

One factor that is widely viewed as impacting an individual's level of academic and career success is achievement motivation (Cigularov, 2008). Multiple components are stated to attribute to one's motivation to seek achievement, including work ethic, the pursuit of excellence and acquisitiveness for rewards (Cassidy & Lynn, 1989). Through achievement, individuals seek success to their own ideal level. Motivation is related to the leadership styles and organizational culture reinforced by its leaders, along with the developmental opportunities they provide for others within an organization (Myers, 1991). Promoting individual growth leads to a more productive and healthier organization (Nicholson, 2003).

There are multiple levels of aspiration, as the need for achievement is stronger when an individual seeks to accomplish more difficult goals (Vroom, 1995).

Achievement motivation can include an individual evaluating risk, as they consider their motivation to perform behaviors based on their expectation of success and level of determination to both achieve success and avoid failure (Atkinson, 1957; Cigularov, 2008). Achievement motivation is commonly known to include and be evident by many traits, such as effort, relentlessness, desire to improve and grow, and the fear of failure, among others (Cassidy & Lynn, 1989; Cigularov, 2008; Elizur, Sagie, & Yamauchi, 1996; Murray & Harvard, 1938; Robbins & Judge, 2011).

Job satisfaction is caused by motivation factors, such as achievement (Herzberg, 2003). Satisfaction represents the level to which employees feel that their organization satisfies their needs and wants, depending on the individual's motivation (Nohria, Groysberg, & Lee, 2008). Job satisfaction includes the feelings that an employee experiences and the attitude in which they display in accordance with their career standing, work environment and job tasks. Motivation factors are intrinsic and include achievement, recognition, responsibility, possibility of professional growth, opportunity for advancement, clarity of mission and the work itself (Herzberg, 2003; Mancini, 2008; Robbins & Judge, 2011; Smerek & Peterson, 2007).

"The factors involved in producing job satisfaction are separate and distinct from the factors that lead to job dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 2003, p. 91)." These hygiene factors are extrinsic and can lead to job dissatisfaction (Robbins & Judge, 2011). Hygiene factors can include items such as salary, interpersonal

relationships, technical supervision, company policies and administration, working

conditions, factors in personal life, status, and job security (Tietjen & Myers, 1998).

A Harvard study concluded that the most important factor when selecting a

job was the schedule, with the preference being a typical Monday through Friday

schedule conducive to raising a family (Robbins & Judge, 2011). While many

organizations have been creating flexible work schedules and telecommuting

options, most retail management jobs for brick-and-mortar corporations do not have

these options. In recent years, retail careers have become more demanding due to

wage compression, reduction of payroll hours and increased hours on holidays. This

does not bode well for work-life balance, which includes keeping workload at a

reasonable level (Robbins & Judge, 2011).

While there is literature that discusses the impacts of varying levels of

achievement motivation, job satisfaction and the work-life balance of individuals,

there has not been a significant amount of research completed that details the

impact one's level of achievement motivation can have on others. This study will

explore the relationship between the achievement motivation, job satisfaction and

work-life balance of large-box retail store managers.

Statement of the Problem

Many theories exist which show how achievement motivation is linked to an

individual's performance and job satisfaction. Achievement is, "The desire or

tendency to do things as rapidly and/or as well as possible" (Murray & Harvard,

1938, p. 164). The need for achievement relates to achievement motivation, as it is

the ability to accomplish difficult tasks, overcome obstacles, strive for competence in one's work and become an expert (Cigularov, 2008; Hough, 1992; Murray & Harvard, 1938). Multiple factors are stated to attribute to one's motivation to seek achievement, including work ethic, the pursuit of excellence, status aspiration, acquisitiveness for rewards, or attaining goals to achieve success within one's social environment (Cassidy & Lynn, 1989).

Through achievement, individuals seek success to their own ideal level. There are multiple levels of aspiration, as the need for achievement is stronger when an individual seeks to accomplish more difficult goals (Murray & Harvard, 1938). Organizational behavior and cultural researchers have identified achievement motivation as an emerging variable in reviewing individual performance and motivation (Cigularov, 2008). "Motivators (such as achievement) (relates to) positive job attitudes because they satisfy the worker's need for self-actualization" (Tietjen & Myers, 1998, p. 228).

Achievement is a good predictor of important life outcomes, including job proficiency and educational success (Hough, 1992). The need for achievement focuses on an individual's own success. Achievement can lead an individual to compete with and surpass others within their social environment, with self-regard as the focus as one strives to reach success as their ideal self. The need for achievement includes "The desire for social prestige... determination to win... (and) to be stimulated to excel by the presence of other" (Murray & Harvard, 1938, p. 164). Through achievement motivation, individuals work towards mastering

objects, notions and other people in order to benefit themselves (Murray & Harvard, 1938).

High levels of achievement motivation can lead to individual success and job satisfaction, but it is possible for this to negatively impact others. "A high need to achieve does not necessarily make someone a good manager, especially in large organizations. People with a high achievement need are interested in how well they do personally and not in influencing others to do well" (Robbins & Judge, 2011, p. 11). Despite achievement motivation positively impacting one's own job satisfaction, it is possible that this could impact the achievement motivation, job satisfaction and work-life balance of others, particularly if the individual is in a management role with subordinates.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to test Frederick Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory by comparing the achievement motivation, job satisfaction and work-life balance of retail managers that work in stores for a large corporation. This study will examine the relationship, if any, that achievement motivation has with an individual's job satisfaction and work-life balance. As well as the relationship, if any, that job satisfaction and work-life balance have with each other. The variables will be achievement motivation, job satisfaction and work-life balance.

Achievement motivation is the personal striving of individuals to attain goals within their social environment (Cassidy & Lynn, 1989). Organizational behavior and cultural researchers have identified achievement motivation as an emerging

variable in reviewing individual performance and motivation (Cigularov, 2008).

Satisfaction represents the level to which employees feel that their organization

satisfies their needs and wants, depending on the individual's motivation (Nohria et

al., 2008). Job satisfaction also increases an employee's intent to stay with their

current organization (Chen, 2005; Mancini, 2008). Work-life balance is the

phenomenon of an individual attaining the ideal balance or harmony between all

aspects of their personal and professional lives with minimal role conflict (Clark,

2000; Clark, 2001; Mangels, 2008; Zedeck, 1992). Work-life balance is subjective and

based on perception, as what may seem like balance to one individual may not be

viewed as balance by their family, friends, employer or co-workers (Guest, 2002;

Mangels, 2008).

This study will review the factors that contribute to achievement motivation

and investigate the components of achievement motivation, job satisfaction and

work-life balance. The results of this study may prove to be useful by Corporation X

and other organizations that want to efficiently motivate their employees to seek

achievement and contribute to improved job satisfaction and work-life balance. The

results of this study may also help corporations identify talent to hire or promote by

assessing specific characteristics of achievement motivation or determine the

overall level of achievement motivation of candidates to understand if the candidate

would be fit for the organization or position. In addition, this study may also

inspire organizations to review the current policies and programs they have in place

that may impact job satisfaction and work-life balance to determine if they could

benefit from changing their current policies and programs or adopting new initiatives.

Research Questions

There are multiple research questions in this study:

1. To what extent, if at all, is there a relationship between an individual's achievement motivation and job satisfaction?

2. To what extent, if at all, is there a relationship between an individual's achievement motivation and work-life balance?

3. To what extent, if at all, is there a relationship between an individual's job satisfaction and work-life balance?

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this study is Frederick Herzberg's (1959) motivation-hygiene theory of job attitudes, also known as the two-factor theory. Herzberg's theory examines how employees experience satisfaction and dissatisfaction via motivation and hygiene factors (Robbins & Judge, 2011). These two sets of factors co-exist, as the motivators and hygiene factors measure different outputs (Tietjen & Myers, 1998). The confluence of motivators and hygiene factors in the workplace determine the behaviors of employees (Townsend, 2004).

Within Herzberg's theory, the factors contained in the motivation group include: recognition, achievement, possibility of growth, advancement, responsibility, and the work itself. The hygiene group entails: salary, interpersonal relationships with supervisors, interpersonal relationships with subordinates,

interpersonal relationships with peers, technical supervision, company policies and administration, working conditions, factors in personal life, status, and job security (Tietjen & Myers, 1998).

Job satisfaction is caused by motivation factors, such as achievement, recognition, responsibility, possibility of growth, advancement and the work itself and growth. These motivation factors are intrinsic and only relate to satisfaction. Herzberg describes motivators as the factors in which create positive feelings and a good attitude, mainly task or job related. In Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory, the opposite of job satisfaction is not dissatisfaction; it's no satisfaction, when studying an individual's level as it pertains to motivation factors (Robbins & Judge, 2011).

Hygiene factors create negative feelings and attitude or unhappiness, mainly caused by conditions not task-related, such as policies and organizational climate (Tietjen & Myers, 1998). Hygiene factors are extrinsic and can create job dissatisfaction. When measuring an individual's level of dissatisfaction of hygiene factors, the opposite of dissatisfaction is not satisfaction; it's no dissatisfaction (Robbins & Judge, 2011). Herzberg classified an individual's personal life as a hygiene factor (Smerek & Peterson, 2007). However, work-life balance could be influenced by both motivation and hygiene factors, as company policies and supervisors determine an individual's schedule and workload, while an individual's involvement and desire to achieve may contribute to their time and effort spent at work.

Importance of Study

Studies have shown the correlation between achievement motivation and job performance. Specifically, individuals with high levels of achievement motivation experience increased productivity and efficiency, among other positive impacts (Cigularov, 2008). Both the employees and their organizations can enjoy the benefits that result from increased levels of achievement motivation.

Achievement motivation is also linked to job satisfaction (Tietjen & Myers, 1998). Employees in customer facing roles may provide varying levels of service to their customers based on their own level of job satisfaction (Mancini, 2008). Employees who experience a higher level of job satisfaction have also been shown to be more committed to their organizations than those who are dissatisfied or experience lower levels of satisfaction with their jobs (Mancini, 2008). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment have been linked to increased productivity and overall job performance (Allen & Meyer, 1990). "High levels of commitment allow employees to thrive under challenges and pressures that those who feel no particular loyalty to the organization find only stressful and onerous" (Goleman, 1998, p. 120).

While research and theories exist which describe the impact achievement motivation has on an individual's performance and job satisfaction, little research has been completed studying the results in corporate and retail settings. The significance of this study is that organizations may benefit by knowing more about the impacts of achievement motivation. If this study shows there is a relationship

between the level of achievement motivation of a manager has on their level of job

satisfaction and/or work-life balance, organizations may benefit from assessing

achievement motivation to evaluate talent.

Key Definitions

Achievement: "The desire or tendency to do things as rapidly and/or as well

as possible" (Murray, 1938, p. 164).

Achievement Motivation: "The drive to excel, to achieve in relation to a set of

standards, to strive to succeed" (Robbins & Judge, 2011, p. 210), or the personal

striving of individuals to achieve goals within their social environment (Cassidy and

Lynn, 1989).

Job Satisfaction: Satisfaction of one's job caused by motivation factors, such

as achievement, recognition, responsibility and growth, which are intrinsic and only

relate to satisfaction. Hygiene factors also exist, which are extrinsic and can create

job dissatisfaction (Robbins & Judge, 2011).

Motivation: The processes that account for an individual's intensity,

direction, and persistence of effort towards attaining a goal (Robbins & Judge,

2011).

Intrinsic Motivation: The desire to work on something because it's

interesting, involving, exciting, satisfying, or personally challenging (Robbins &

Judge, 2011).

Extrinsic Motivation – Behaving to accomplish a specific goal that provides

satisfaction independent of the actual activity itself (Calder & Staw, 1975).

Work-life Balance – The degree to which an individual is satisfied with their ability to meet the demands of both work and family/personal priorities while minimizing conflict between the two roles (Clark, 2000).

Key Assumptions

It is assumed that results can be generalized to other stores and organizations with similar team structures. Participants' responses will be truthful and accurate. It is planned to mitigate discrepancies in accuracy and integrity via imploring participants to answer honestly and thoroughly. It is assumed that gender differences in motivation and job satisfaction will not skew results, as gender and other variables will not be measured. The participants in the subject company are estimated to be 50% male and 50% female for Store Managers, Co-Managers and Assistant Managers. It is assumed that geographic and demographic differences between the stores will not influence the results of the study.

Limitations of the Study

Additional variables may exist in which impact a participant's achievement motivation, job satisfaction and work-life balance, which will not be measured in this study. These variables could include organizational structure, salary, job performance, type of work, geographic location, tenure, size of team, diversity of team/location, age, marital status, family size, sales volume of store and job responsibilities. In addition, it is possible that the achievement motivation, job satisfaction and/or work-life balance of a manager may be influenced by their managers, peers or subordinates.

It is also possible that the voluntary participants in this study may not accurately represent the population. To mitigate these limitations, each participant's responses will be confidential, as demographic information will not be solicited. Other discrepancies may exist, such as training, hours, opportunities for advancement and level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction at the time of the survey caused by business or personal matters, which may have a relationship with the dependent variables, but are not controlled within this study.

Summary

Achievement motivation can impact an individual's level of academic and career success (Cigularov, 2008). Two types of achievement motivation exist, being the hope for success and the fear of failure (Cigularov, 2008). Job satisfaction is caused by motivation factors, such as achievement (Herzberg, 2003). Satisfaction represents the level to which employees feel that their organization satisfies their needs and wants, depending on the individual's motivation (Nohria et al., 2008). Work-life balance could be influenced by both motivation and hygiene factors, as company policies and supervisors determine an individual's schedule and workload, while an individual's involvement and desire to achieve may contribute to their time and effort spent at work.

This study will explore the relationship of achievement motivation, job satisfaction and work-life balance by testing Frederick Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory by comparing the achievement motivation, job satisfaction and work-life balance of retail managers at a large corporation's stores. This study will

examine the impact achievement motivation has on an individual's job satisfaction and work-life balance.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Overview

This chapter reviews literature related to the study. The purpose of this literature review is to explore relevant concepts, define key terms, introduce relevant research and introduce a foundational understanding of the included topics, as described by the reviewed literature. The literature review focuses the major sections on motivation, job satisfaction, work-life balance and the theories that the study is based on, exploring each on a foundational level.

Motivation

Motivation is, "The processes that account for an individual's intensity, direction, and persistence of effort toward attaining a goal" (Robbins & Judge, 2011, p. 205). "Motivation happens when we emotionally experience the compelling, positive reasons to do something, as well as the painful reasons to avoid the downside consequence. Both must be apparent to foster the creative tension necessary to sustain our motivation" (Cashman, 2008, p. 172). Motivation is a psychological state in which many factors can define goals, influence thoughts and guide behaviors towards desired goals (Berwitz, 1960; Nohria et al., 2008; Senge, 2006).

There are a multitude of motivation theories detailing theoretical platforms of how individuals are motivated, what they are motivated by and what motivation actually is. There are two types of motivation that are known to exist, being extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation. These two types of motivation

encompass a variety of ways to extrinsically and intrinsically motivate people, including the work itself, recognition, opportunities for advancement, money, benefits and relationships with others at work (Robbins & Judge, 2011). Many early theories of motivation were based on the principle of hedonism, which includes the assumption that "behavior is directed toward pleasure and away from pain. In every situation people select from alternative possibilities the course of action that they think will maximize their pleasure and minimize their pain" (Vroom, 1995, p. 11).

Intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation is when an individual acts because of self-interest, enjoyment or for the value of the task or activity itself, without the need to be rewarded by external influencers (Robbins & Judge, 2011). Intrinsic motivation comes purely from within an individual, relative to a person's self-determination and influences their behaviors (Anderson, Chen, & Carter, 2000; Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003; Csikszentmihalyi, 1975). Individuals who are intrinsically motivated have the desire to work on something because it's interesting, involving, exciting, satisfying, personally challenging or for the sake of performing the activity itself (Abuhamdeh & Csikszentmihalyi, 2009; Cameron et al., 2003; Deci, 1972; Lepper, Greene, & Nisbett, 1973; Robbins & Judge, 2011; White, 1959).

The internal need or desire to experience satisfaction is a very strong motivator and typically has a greater impact on the thoughts and actions of individuals than external motivators (Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 2012).

Individuals tend to be more intrinsically motivated with tasks or activities that they tend to perform well at, as they experience satisfaction from the successful accomplishment of the tasks, therefore feel a desire to continue (Calder & Staw, 1975).

When individuals are intrinsically motivated, they tend to seek challenges and the desire to increase their skills and abilities via an interest to learn, grow and succeed (Cameron et al., 2003; Kouzes & Posner, 2003). Eagerness to learn is one example of this, as it is the, "desire and willingness to spend a lot of time enlarging one's knowledge for knowledge sake" (Schuler, Thornton, Frintrup, & Mueller-Hanson, 2004, p. 21 as cited by Cigularov, 2008, p. 42). These intrinsically motivated individuals are performing these behaviors strictly for the enjoyment of doing so or with intention to increase their abilities with no additional extrinsic benefits sought.

Those who are intrinsically motivated have a greater tendency to take initiative and perform new behaviors. These individuals also experience a greater amount of resiliency and willingness to continue their actions despite facing obstacles and adversity, as compared to those who are not as intrinsically motivated. This may prove to be true even when facing greater risks, potential failure or increased odds against them. "Those who have confidence increase their efforts when their performance falls apart. They persevere until they succeed" (Kouzes & Posner, 2003, p. 174).

"Having a strong sense of meaning puts individuals into a more proactive behavioral orientation where they have a desire for making a difference through their action" (Cameron et al., 2003, p. 212). Intrinsic motivation is internal and is not influenced by extrinsic elements, as those who are intrinsically motivated find joy in performing actions for the sake of doing them, not because of external rewards. However, the benefits of intrinsic motivation does not mean that people do not strive to obtain external rewards, rather this simply means that external rewards are not enough to sustain an individual's motivation on their own (Zaman, Nas, Ahmed, Raja, & Marri, 2013).

Those who are intrinsically motivated often experience flow when they are passionate about what they are working on (Cameron et al., 2003). Flow is when an individual becomes completely immersed in what they are doing without distracting thoughts or emotions, when actions feel effortless (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975; Csikszentmihalyi, 1997). This is often described as being 'in the zone'. Flow happens when individuals feel challenged equal to or above their perceived level of abilities and skills, which could be referred to as optimal challenges (Abuhamdeh & Csikszentmihalyi, 2009). Flow often encompasses feelings of happiness, excitement and satisfaction from the level of engagement and concentration in a given task (Cameron et al., 2003).

Extrinsic motivation. Extrinsic motivation is behaving to accomplish a specific goal that provides satisfaction independent of performing the actual activity itself (Calder & Staw, 1975). Extrinsic motivation is when an individual completes

an action or behavior because of an external stimulus, such as completing a task in

order to receive some form of compensation or reward for doing so (Cameron et al.,

2003; Robbins & Judge, 2011). Extrinsic motivation can come from financial

rewards, attention, publicity, awards, promotions, recognition, the joy of winning

and many more factors. In contrast to intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation

represents the act of an individual to perform a task or activity as a means to an

end rather than for their enjoyment or interest in an activity (Abuhamdeh &

Csikszentmihalyi, 2009; Pintrich & Schunk, 1996).

Extrinsic motivation comes from outside of the individual and contains a

specific goal that satisfies the individual besides the task itself (Calder & Staw,

1975). It also includes performing a task to avoid punishment or repercussions for

not completing the activity. This may include performing a task an individual does

not enjoy completing but does so in order to comply to the standards necessary to

gain the extrinsic reward for doing so. Extrinsic motivation can be attributed to

producing negative outcomes, such as low achievement, low participation and

decreased satisfaction or engagement (Deci, 1972).

Employee motivation. Motivation is a topic that has been researched and

written about for decades and many theorists have been particularly interested in

researching employee motivation. As an element of organizational behavior,

employee motivation can impact the success of individuals within an organization,

as well as the fate of an organization itself. Employee motivation has piqued the

interest of researchers and organizations alike since it is based on the belief that

there is incredible value in having highly motivated and committed employees

(Locke & Latham, 1990). Individuals who are more motivated are typically more

productive and organizations with motivated individuals tend to experience a

greater amount of success (Kouzes & Posner, 2003; Nicholson, 2003; Nohria et al.,

2008; Spreitzer & Porath, 2005).

Motivating employees is known to be one of the most difficult tasks that

managers encounter (Berwitz, 1960; Kouzes & Posner, 2003; Nicholson, 2003;

Nohria et al., 2008; Spreitzer & Porath, 2005; Welch, 2005). Motivation theories

often surround several topics when discussing employee motivation. These topics

include employee engagement, job satisfaction, individual commitment and an

employee's intention to quit (Nohria et al., 2008).

Engagement is an element of motivation that is defined by the level of

personal interest and investment individuals experience in regard to strategic

ideas, organizational culture and goals, as well as the desire to contribute and be

involved in the processes. Those who are more engaged tend to work harder and

experience a greater amount of productivity, whether dealing with an individual

hobby or within a group or organization (Haudan, 2008; Nohria et al., 2008;

Spreitzer & Porath, 2005).

Engagement involves an individual's desire to experience a sense of

belonging, be a part of something big, experience a meaningful journey and feel joy

from knowing their contributions make a significant difference (Haudan, 2008;

Kouzes & Posner, 2003). Due to the impact engagement can potentially have, both

positive and negative, organizations often try to determine their employees level of engagement through vehicles such as employee surveys.

"Engagement represents the energy, effort, and initiative employees bring to their jobs" (Nohria et al., 2008, p. 80). Those committed to the vision of their organization and are engaged in their work are more likely to seek how they can also benefit others by understanding the gaps of the overall organization and following their desire to improve the business as a whole (Kouzes & Posner, 2003).

Knowledge can help lead to engagement, as individuals who have a better understanding of situations and solutions tend to be more involved (Knowles et al., 2012; Nohria et al., 2008; Spreitzer & Porath, 2005). Engagement, much like motivation itself, is influenced by both internal and external factors and can change over time. Mood and emotions of both managers and employees have the ability to have an impact on motivation and engagement (Robbins & Judge, 2011).

Adult motivation to learn entails the desire to achieve success, experience a sense of control and choice regarding their learning, a sense of perceived value and an enjoyable experience. Experiential learning is a good way to facilitate learning among adult participants by appealing to their personal or professional interests. This can be done by connecting to their prior experience, which can increase the likelihood that behavioral changes and performance improvements will result from training (Knowles et al., 2012). Experiential learning typically increases an individual's motivation to learn.

Clear communication of expectations, goals, directions and plans, along with sound organizational structure, are factors that enable individuals to identify and align their goals and objectives (Berwitz, 1960; Kouzes & Posner, 2003; Nohria et al., 2008; Spreitzer & Porath, 2005). Employees who experience this are more motivated to contribute to the organization due to a greater sense of belonging, sense of greater security and a belief they will be rewarded for their dedication and contributions (Berwitz, 1960). Instead of pushing objectives and solutions on to employees, they will experience greater motivation and desire to succeed if they are provided a framework but are encouraged to participate in the development of solutions (Nicholson, 2003).

Individuals are more motivated to increase their productivity if they are challenged by specific goals and are informed of performance feedback, reinforcing how their effort aligns with the goals (Kouzes & Posner, 2003). Specific progress feedback regarding a variety of factors, such as quality, quantity, teamwork, reliability and safety enable individuals to better understand their performance and how it connects to the larger goal of the organization.

Motivation within an organization starts at the top and tends to be highest within top levels of management (Berwitz, 1960; Myers, 1991). Motivation is related to the leadership styles and organizational culture reinforced by its leaders, along with the developmental opportunities they provide for others within an organization (Myers, 1991). Promoting individual growth leads to a more productive and healthier organization (Nicholson, 2003).

Managers who support individual and organizational development and empower individuals to make decisions tend to stimulate motivation, while managers who prefer to maintain control of situations and decisions reduce the power of other individuals which tends to inhibit motivation (Kouzes & Posner, 2003; Myers, 1991; Spreitzer & Porath, 2005). "If you give your employees the chance to learn and grow, they'll thrive – and so will your organization" (Spreitzer & Porath, 2005, p. 93).

Individuals who feel they have the ability to make decisions and experience a sense of freedom tend to be more engaged and experience a greater amount of motivation to increase productivity and contribute to their organization (Berwitz, 1960; Nicholson, 2003; Nohria et al., 2008; Myers, 1991; Spreitzer & Porath, 2005). Everyone has different motivational triggers and desires (Nicholson, 2003). Allowing individuals to explore their interests and encouraging them to think critically in order to develop innovative solutions via unique thought processes allows them to grow as individuals and strategize for the organization (Northouse, 2010). Those who are more constrained to work within specific rules and limits without allowable room for different thoughts or procedures are more likely to be less motivated to increase their productivity and strive for further success.

Along with an organization's structure and culture, organizations can use items such as visions and mission statements as tools to effectively communicate and reinforce their strategic goals. "Effective mission statements balance the possible and the impossible. They give people a clear sense of direction to

profitability and the inspiration to feel they are part of something big and important" (Welch, 2005, p. 15).

Inspirational motivation is used by leaders who can effectively communicate the organization's path and reinforce an expectation of high performance standards by motivating individuals to become committed to and a part of the shared goal of the organization (Northouse, 2010). Inspirational leaders motivate others by appealing to emotional cues to increase the effort of team members to achieve more than they would have on their own accord. Inspirational motivation increases both productivity and team culture, typically creating long-term solutions rather than short-term fixes.

Organizational learning only occurs if individuals within the organization experience learning (Kouzes & Posner, 2003; Senge, 2006). Along with this, organizational growth is based on the motivation of individuals within it. Organizational growth occurs when individuals are sufficiently motivated to challenge the status quo and work towards goals. These can be personal or organizational goals, as long as they positively contribute to the organization. No growth or increase in productivity will be experienced by an organization without properly motivated individuals driving its performance.

Achievement motivation. Achievement is, "The desire or tendency to do things as rapidly and/or as well as possible" (Murray & Harvard, 1938 p. 164), or when individuals seek to, "attain goals within their social environment" (Cassidy & Lynn, 1989 p. 301). Multiple factors are stated to attribute to one's motivation to

seek achievement, including work ethic, the pursuit of excellence and acquisitiveness for rewards (Cassidy & Lynn, 1989). Through achievement, individuals seek success to their own ideal level. There are multiple levels of aspiration, as the need for achievement is stronger when an individual seeks to accomplish more difficult goals (Murray & Harvard, 1938).

Henry Murray, who was an American psychologist and professor at Harvard University, initially conceptualized achievement motivation. One of Murray's professional focuses was studying and theorizing about personalities. Murray's legacy includes being acknowledged as a founder of personality psychology and a leader in personality assessment (Allen & Meyer, 1990). He identified achievement motivation as an element of personality. Murray's conceptualization of personality produced a system of needs (Koertge & American Council of Learned Societies, 2008). This consisted of 20 needs where an individual's behaviors may meet more than one need. Two of these needs relate to achievement motivation, being achievement and infavoidance.

Murray's theorized need for achievement relates to achievement motivation, as it is the ability to accomplish difficult tasks, overcome obstacles and become an expert (Cigularov, 2008; Murray & Harvard, 1938). As described, the need for achievement includes the need to

> Master, manipulate, or organize physical objects, human beings, or ideas. To do this as rapidly, and as independently as possible. To overcome obstacles and attain a high standard. To excel in one's self. To rival and surpass

others. To increase self-regard by successful exercise of talent. (Murray &

Harvard, 1938, p. 164)

The need for infavoidance relates to achievement motivation, as it surrounds

the desire to avoid humiliation and embarrassment. Murray describes infavoidance

as the need to, "Quit embarrassing situations or to avoid conditions which may lead

to belittlement: the scorn, derision or indifference of others. To refrain from action

because of a fear of failure" (Murray & Harvard, 1938, p. 192).

David McClelland described the need for achievement as a motive. According

to McClelland, the need for achievement focused on driving for performance and

achieving success as compared to setting goals and standards (Robbins & Judge,

2011). Murray and McClelland had similar views, as McClelland theorized the

existence of two types of achievement motivation, being the hope for success and the

fear of failure (Cigularov, 2008).

The avoidance or fear of failure has been seen among other theories in

discussion with achievement motivation, as individuals recognize the difference

between achieving success and experiencing shame. John Atkinson's theory of

achievement motivation includes a risk-taking model that weighs an individual's

motivation to perform behaviors based on their expectation of success and level of

determination to both achieve success and avoid failure (Atkinson, 1957; Cigularov,

2008).

Those who display a strong will towards achievement motivation were

described as

To make intense, prolonged and repeated efforts to accomplish something

difficult. To work with singleness of purpose towards a high and distant goal.

To have the determination to win. To try to do everything well. To be

stimulated to excel by the presence of others, to enjoy competition. To exert

will power; to overcome boredom and fatigue. (Murray & Harvard, 1938, p.

164)

Many theorists have built on each other's work to further define where

achievement motivation belongs, how it is implemented and how it is described in

relation to personalities. When applying achievement motivation as an element of

specific personalities, many researchers have attempted to define the difference

between those who experience a high level of achievement motivation versus those

who have little to none. Another description of achievement motivation as a

construct was explained as

The tendency to strive for competence in one's work. The achievement/work

oriented person works hard, sets high standards, tries to do a good job,

endorses the work ethic, and concentrates on, and persists in, completion of

the task at hand. This person is also confident, feels success from past

undertakings, and expects to succeed in the future. The less achievement-

oriented person has little ego involvement in his or her work, feels incapable

and self-doubting, does not expend undue effort, and does not feel that hard

work is desirable. (Hough, 1992, p. 144)

"Although differences in outlook exist, all multivariate conceptualizations of achievement motive agree that it is composed of distinct and relatively independent components" (Sagie et al., 1996, p. 432). Achievement motivation is commonly known to include and be evident by many traits, such as effort, relentlessness, desire to improve and grow, and the fear of failure, among others (Cassidy & Lynn, 1989; Cigularov, 2008; Murray & Harvard, 1938; Robbins & Judge, 2011; Sagie et al., 1996).

Researchers have reviewed individuals with high levels of achievement motivation versus those with lower levels. Costa and McCrae (1992) described findings of individuals who obtained high scores regarding an achievement striving element of their personality trait of conscientiousness as follows

> High aspiration levels and work hard to achieve to achieve their goals. They are diligent and purposeful and have a sense of direction in life. Very high scorers, however, may invest too much in their career and become workaholics. Low scorers are lackadaisical and perhaps even lazy. They are not driven to succeed. They lack ambition and may seem aimless, but they are often perfectly content with their low levels of achievement. (Costa & McCrae, 1992, p. 18)

Achievement motivation is widely viewed as a factor in impacting an individual's level of success regarding academic and career objectives. While achievement motivation can also determine an individual's fortitude to achieve goals in other areas, such as sports, financial well-being, status symbols and visible

appearance, academic and work performance are the most researched (Cigularov, 2008). Achievement motivation is largely seen in a positive light, as it centers around individuals wanting to achieve goals and be a positive contributing member of society.

Organizational behavior and cultural researchers have identified achievement motivation as an emerging variable in reviewing individual performance and motivation. Work performance metrics for achievement motivation include but are not exclusive to individuals receiving promotions and acquisitiveness for financial gains. It also includes other metrics, such as productivity, competitiveness, quality of work and overall economic and personal development, for example. These items, along with the notion of achievement motivation, have been largely seen as western values, but have proven to be valuable in helping implement and sustaining improvement in developing countries and organizations around the world (Cigularov, 2008).

With their Work and Family Orientation Scale, Spence and Helmreich identified three achievement motivation factors, which are work orientation, mastery and competitiveness (Spence & Helmreich, 1978; Spence & Helmreich, 1983). They described the factors by stating

> The work factor represents an effort dimension, the desire to work hard and to do a good job at what one does. The mastery factor reflects a preference for difficult, challenging tasks and for meeting internally prescribed standards of performance excellence. The competitiveness factor describes the enjoyment

of interpersonal competition and the desire to win and be better than others. Unlike mastery, which involves a task-oriented standard of excellence, competitiveness involves pitting oneself against other individuals. (Spence & Helmreich, 1983, p. 41 as cited in Cigularov, 2008, p. 29)

Much like other applications of motivation, achievement motivation in the form of setting challenging but attainable goals for individuals and organizations to achieve will be received and accepted differently, depending on their individual motivation, cultural norms and ambitions (McClelland, 1953). "Traditionally, achievement motivation has been conceptualized and operationalized in narrow terms, as either an implicit unitary motive measured indirectly by projective techniques" (Cigularov, 2008, p. 3).

The correlation between achievement motivation and potential increases in job performance, among other elements and results, has demonstrated the positive impact achievement motivation can produce for employees. Both the employees and their organizations can enjoy these benefits and experience varying levels of achievement motivation. Theories exist in which show how achievement motivation is also linked to job satisfaction. "Motivators (such as achievement) (relates to) positive job attitudes because they satisfy the worker's need for self-actualization" (Tietjen & Myers, 1998, p. 228).

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is feelings that an employee experiences and attitude in which they display in accordance with their career standing, work environment and

job tasks. These experienced feelings and attitude may be based on many factors that an employee encounters at work. These factors include advancement opportunities, current standing of their role, company policies and procedures, the working conditions, benefits available and relationships with their supervisors, co-workers and subordinates (Donnelly, Gibson, Ivancevich, & Konopaske, 2003; Mancini, 2008).

"The factors involved in producing job satisfaction are separate and distinct from the factors that lead to job dissatisfaction" (Herzberg, 2003, p. 91). Job satisfaction is caused by motivation factors, such as achievement, recognition, responsibility, possibility of professional growth, opportunity for advancement, clarity of mission and the work itself. These motivation factors are intrinsic and only relate to satisfaction. In Frederick Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory, the opposite of job satisfaction is not dissatisfaction; it's no satisfaction, when studying an individual's level as it pertains to motivation factors. At the same time, the opposite of dissatisfaction is not satisfaction; it's also no dissatisfaction, when looking at an individual's level of dissatisfaction of hygiene factors (Herzberg, 2003; Robbins & Judge, 2011; Smerek & Peterson, 2007).

These hygiene factors that exist are extrinsic and can create job dissatisfaction (Robbins & Judge, 2011). Hygiene factors that can be present within an organization include items such as salary, interpersonal relationships with supervisors, interpersonal relationships with subordinates, interpersonal relationships with peers, technical supervision, company policies and

administration, working conditions, factors in personal life, status, and job security

(Tietjen & Myers, 1998).

"Satisfaction derives from an activity which is perceived as intrinsically

motivated because of a person's need to feel a sense of personal causation in his or

her action" (Calder & Staw, 1975, p. 599). Satisfaction represents the level to which

employees feel that their organization satisfies their needs and wants, depending on

the individual's motivation (Nohria et al., 2008).

Employees who experience a higher level of job satisfaction have been shown

to be more committed to their organizations than those who are dissatisfied or

experience lower levels of satisfaction with their jobs. Organizational commitment

determines the amount of belief that employees have in their organization's goals,

strategy and culture. An individual who is more committed to an organization is

more likely to experience a higher level of alignment of beliefs and display effort to

help drive behaviors towards reaching the organization's expressed goals (Mancini,

2008).

Job satisfaction and organization commitment have been linked to increased

productivity and overall job performance (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Employees in

customer facing roles may provide varying levels of service to their customers based

on their own level of job satisfaction (Mancini, 2008). Those employees who

experience a higher level of job satisfaction providing better service to customers

display the results of this, as they are more committed to better represent their

organizations in a positive manner (Mancini, 2008; Syptak, Marsland, & Ulmer, 1999).

Along with organizational commitment from a working perspective, job satisfaction also increases an employee's intent to stay with their current organization, rather than seeking employment elsewhere or consider employment options such as unions (Chen, 2005; Mancini, 2008). Increasing employee's organizational commitment and intent to stay with the organization has been a focus of managers across many industries. Organizational commitment leads to increased intent to stay and can also lead to gains in employee buy-in, productivity and a more positive, enjoyable culture (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Increasing employee's organizational commitment and employee retention are two elements that can save money for organizations. In similar fashion to organizational commitment itself, intent to stay is a focus measured by management teams, as keeping current employees saves money by reducing costs associated with recruiting, hiring and training new employees (Mancini, 2008). Retaining current employees also can lead to reduced loss of organizational knowledge through retaining both the explicit and tacit knowledge that these employees have obtained throughout their time of employment.

Organizational commitment can be broken down into three levels of commitment, being affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Affective commitment relates to those who experience an affective or emotional attachment to their organization, leading to the

employee experiencing more feelings of connection with the organization. This affective commitment by employees increases their level of identifying themselves as a member of the organization and enjoying their membership in the group (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Employees who experience higher levels of affective organizational commitment have been linked to also experiencing higher levels of job satisfaction (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Chen, 2005; Mancini, 2008). Affective organizational commitment also involves the individual increasing their level of commitment and belonging within group of individuals that make up their working group of employees (Allen & Meyer, 1990). This could be the entire employee base of the organization or a small group within a department, depending on the organization's size, structure and other factors. No matter which group this may refer to, the employee's affective commitment can be both to the organization itself and their working group or groups.

The employees who experience the highest levels of affective commitment with stay with their organization despite attractive reasons to leave. Examples of this could include an appealing proposition from another organization or the failure to earn a raise at their current organization. Through their actions, affectively committed employees typically express their job satisfaction and organizational commitment, as opposed to the actions of their peers who may not be affectively committed (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Employees who experience higher levels of continuance and normative commitment to their organization typically have shown to experience lower levels of job satisfaction. These employees are with their organizations due to feelings of obligation (normative) or overwhelming feelings of risk (continuance) when considering leaving the organization. Individuals who are continuance committed to their organization may weigh costs and stay presently committed to their organizations despite their lack of affective commitment to the organization. These individuals stay committed for the time being after deciding the risks of leaving do not outweigh the benefits of exiting the organization. These risks could include a multitude of elements, including financial or personal risk, peer pressure, relocation, the fear of starting somewhere else or the lack of available options (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Individuals who are normatively committed to their organization may feel pressure to stay with the organization and act according to cultural norms and feel as if they are acting appropriately by staying with the organization despite experiencing low levels of job satisfaction. Some of these employees may feel this way due to extended tenures with the organization and make assumptions that the organization wants them to stay committed to the organization, whether factual or not. Some individuals who are normatively committed to their organizations may be conditioned to feel as they do from experiences prior to joining the organization or during their time of onboarding into the organization. Examples would include if an individual had family members with ties to the organization before or during

their time of employment with the organization and friends or family in the organization who may be affectively committed to the organization themselves (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Individuals who are not satisfied with their jobs often time participate in behaviors that would be considered to be unproductive and encourage others to act in a similar manner (Roznowski & Hulin, 1992). Those who are dissatisfied tend to avoid tasks, resist change, demonstrate an excessive amount of passive aggressive behaviors and create additional work for those around them, including supervisors, co-workers and subordinates (Mancini, 2008). These employees who are dissatisfied can affect organizations in many ways, including increased financial costs, cultural implications and impact the job satisfaction of others with the organization.

Studies have shown transformational leadership to facilitate higher levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment than transactional leadership within organizations. "Transformational leadership is the process whereby a person engages with others and creates a connection that raises the level of motivation and morality in both the leader and the follower" (Northouse, 2010, p. 172). Transformational leadership typically produces longer lasting results and impacts job satisfaction through increasing employee morale, trust and organizational culture.

Transformational leaders encourage others to be the best they can be and to create positive impacts on themselves and the greater good of others. This can include encouraging others to develop and seek to achieve goals at levels that an

employee may not have done on their own without the encouragement and intervention of a transformational leader. These transformational leaders authentically support others to reach their full potential without other personal motivations to encourage this behavior. This behavior from transformational leaders often times leads to higher morality, job satisfaction and higher instilled moral values for the leader themselves, the employees and thus the organization in which they are associated with (Northouse, 2010).

Transformational leadership increases intrinsic motivation, leading to increased organizational commitment and thus a higher level of job satisfaction (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Northouse, 2010; Robbins & Judge, 2011). Transactional leadership is based on single, negotiated exchanges and has a greater potential to negatively impact morale and job satisfaction. Transactional leadership can be very direct and impersonal, with the possibility to decrease organizational commitment on an affective level, which could decrease an employee's level of job satisfaction.

"Satisfied employees tend to be more productive, creative, committed to their organizations, a predictor variable to measure satisfied customers, yet few organizations make job satisfaction a top priority for their employees" (Syptak, Marsland & Ulmer, 1999, p. 1). Nearly every other element of employment has demonstrated some sort of a correlation with job satisfaction, through motivation and hygiene factors, organizational commitment, varying leadership styles and more. Increased job satisfaction, as discussed, benefits not only the employee, but

also the other individuals associated with the employee, as well as the organization,

their shareholders and their customer base.

Work-Life Balance

Work-life balance is the phenomenon of an individual attaining the ideal

balance or harmony between all aspects of their personal and professional lives with

minimal role conflict (Clark, 2000, 2001; Mangels, 2008; Zedeck, 1992). Work-life

balance can also be described as work-life integration, as one's work and personal

lives are blended together rather than being split into two separate domains

(Gregory & Milner, 2009; Konig, Langhauser, & Cesinger, 2012; Mangels, 2008).

Work-life balance is subjective and based on perception, as what may seem like

balance to one individual may not be viewed as balance by their family, friends,

employer or co-workers (Guest, 2002; Mangels, 2008).

The risk of conflict increases when an individual is exceedingly involved in

one aspect of life, work or family, and does not have the time, resources or energy to

fully satisfy the needs of the other aspect of life (Gregory & Milner, 2009; Konig et

al., 2012; Mangels, 2008). Employees are often challenged with determining what is

most important for their career, such as good pay, working hours, job security and

opportunities for advancement, which can lead to them having to choose between

work and family life as the most important aspect of their life (Bell & Bryson, 2005;

Perrons, 2003). Work-life balance priorities typically fall into three categories:

working time; and for those who have dependents, parental leave availability; and

childcare options. Working time can include both the total working hours, schedule

and flexibility, while childcare options could be the availability of either a subsidy or direct supervision (Gregory & Milner, 2009; McDonald, Brown & Bradley, 2005; Thornthwaite, 2004).

To help employees achieve their need for work-life balance many employers have instituted a variety of organizational changes and implemented programs and benefits. These benefits are typically designed to attract and retain employees, and support the opportunity for an employee to have both a successful career and a healthy family life. Work–life balance initiatives are, "Those that, intentionally or otherwise, increase the flexibility and autonomy of the worker in negotiating their attention (time) and presence in the workplace, while work–life balance policies exist where those practices are intentionally designed and implemented" (Gregory & Milner, 2009, p. 1).

These programs and benefits can encompass a wide variety of things, such as job sharing, telecommuting, flexible schedules, and providing or reimbursing for child care (Caudron, 1997; Clark, 2001; Flynn, 1997; Mastri, 2007). Even more progressive programs, such as casual dress codes, free food, games at work and allowing pets in the workplace, have other benefits such as promoting creativity, but are designed to reduce the transition between work and personal/family aspects of life.

Achieving an effective work-life balance makes an individual happier and more content, which leads them to maintain the level of energy, creative and critical thinking and commitment they put into their career and family life in order to stay

satisfied (Mukhtar, 2012; Overbaugh, 2011; Veenhoven, 1991). Work-life balance

can benefit the individual, their personal relationships and responsibilities and

their employer. An employee's perception of an employer's organizational support

increases when work-life balance initiatives are offered, whether or not the

employee chooses to participate, which leads to increased employee performance

(Muse, Harris, Giles & Field, 2008).

Family-friendly work cultures feature multiple characteristics, including

flexible work schedules, flexible work processes and an organizational appreciation

that an employee's personal and family needs are important (Bailyn, 1997; Clark,

2001; Mastri, 2007; Regan, 1994). Flexible work schedules, or the power to have

discretion over one's schedule at work, is known as temporal flexibility (Bailyn,

1997; Clark, 2001). Employers have reported that flexible schedules for employees

result in increased productivity (Bell & Bryson, 2005; Kingston, 1990; Solomon,

1996). Productivity gains could be attributed to reduced stress, absenteeism and

turnover, in addition to increased job satisfaction (Bailyn, Drago, & Kochan, 2001;

Kingston, 1990; Robbins & Judge, 2011; Ronen, 1984). Employees who have the

autonomy to work flexible schedules often spend more discretionary time working

when compared to employees with more rigidly defined work schedules (Galinsky &

Stein, 1990). Increased job satisfaction that comes from having a flexible schedule

may result from both the ability to resolve family issues and appreciation of the

autonomy provided by their employer (Bohen & Viveros-Long, 1981; Clark, 2001).

A sense of control over their schedule also leads to an employee having improved

mental health (Gregory & Milner, 2009; McDonald et al., 2005).

Flexible work processes could be referred to as operational flexibility. This is

different than flexible work schedules, as this includes the autonomy to dictate how

work tasks are completed without restrictions or unnecessary managerial

involvement (Bailyn, 1997). Employees who are provided with high levels of

flexibility are often more involved with work processes and experience increased job

satisfaction, but this could depend on the individual's aptitude and attitude (Clark,

2001; Parker, Wall, & Jackson, 1997; Schneider, Reichers, & Mitchell, 1982). This

autonomy can positively impact an employee's well-being and reduce the conflict

that work could have on an individual's family life, which increases the level of

satisfaction of their family life and family functionality (Bailyn, 1997; Clark, 2001).

While employers may have concerns about implementing flexible work processes

and schedules due to the reduced control they may have, workplace flexibility is

good for both the employee and employer since the gains in employee retention,

engagement, motivation and productivity typically lead to a more productive

organization (Beauregard & Henry, 2009; Bell & Bryson, 2005; Gregory & Milner,

2009; Mastri, 2007).

An organizational appreciation that an employee's personal and family needs

are important is another element that supports a family-friendly work culture. Top

down support from a powerful champion of company culture, such as a CEO or high-

ranking executive, can help engrain the support of employee's families into the

organization's culture. However, it is particularly impactful for an employee's direct supervisor to understand the importance of their family needs (Bailyn, 1997; Clark, 2001; Galinsky & Stein, 1990; Mastri, 2007; Regan, 1994). Without direct supervisors understanding an employee's family needs and support them in making use of the company provided benefits designed to help with work-life balance such as paid time off, leave policies, flexible schedules, and flexible work processes, these benefits will have little or no positive impact (Bailyn, 1997; Clark, 2001; Gregory & Milner, 2009; McDonald et al., 2005).

The positive impacts of work-life balance initiatives can only be realized if the employees are aware of the benefits and feel supported by the organization's culture and by their manager to use the benefits (Beauregard, 2014; Eaton, 2003; Ryan & Kossek, 2008). If employees are not supported to use the benefits provided it may even lead to increased dissatisfaction and lower engagement compared to if the benefits were not provided to employees due to the false nature in which they exist in an unsupportive culture (Beauregard, 2014). In this type of culture, employees are often judged based on the time they are present at work rather than their actual productivity, contributions and results (Bailyn, 1997; Clark, 2001). "When treated favourably by others, individuals feel obligated to respond in kind, through positive attitudes or behaviours... When treated poorly, employees will reduce or withdraw their positive attitudes and behaviours and may instigate negative ones in their place" (Beauregard, 2014, p. 2). When unfairness regarding work-life balance is perceived by an employee they may retaliate with counterproductive behaviors,

including reduced effort, poor attendance and acting rudely to others (Beauregard, 2014). An example of what could be perceived by employees as unfair would be if an organization's work-life balance initiatives are all intended to help employees with family responsibilities, as it could create a backlash from employees who aren't parents (Gregory & Milner, 2009; Haar & Spell, 2003).

Due to the importance of direct supervisors being supportive of the family needs of their employees, the well-being of many families lie in the hands of first-line supervisors. These supervisors are often inexperienced in leading people but can have a significant influence on the actual culture of an organization, more than the executives who may have the best intentions when they sign off on the company policies (Bailyn, 1997; Clark, 2001; Rodgers & Rodgers, 1989). Workplace flexibility and a perceived supportive work environment have a direct correlation with the probability of employee turnover (Beauregard, 2014; Beauregard & Henry, 2009; Mastri, 2007).

Some employees who use the flexible working processes and schedules provided by their employer may not experience any gains in work-life balance due to the flexibility, just as some individuals who experience work-life balance issues may continue to experience work-life balance issues even when provided with workplace flexibility. However, the work-life balance of all employees who do make use of the provided flexibility could have experienced a greater amount of conflict had the flexibility not been provided (Bell & Bryson, 2005). An individual's perception of their work-life balance may be based on their level of control. They are more likely

to experience better integration of competing work and family priorities, and therefore a positive view of work-life balance, if they are able to determine or influence when, where and how they work (Konig et al., 2012; Marks & MacDermid, 1996; Pocock, 2005). In addition to flexible work processes and schedules, employer benefits which support work-life balance can include leave benefits to take time off for personal or health reasons, dependent care benefits to provide savings accounts or direct assistance watching an employee's dependents, and mental health and wellness programs, such as stress management classes or gym memberships, to help employees reduce stress and lead healthy lifestyles (Mastri, 2007).

Time, family structure, job type, education and salary are some of the elements that can contribute to an individual's perception of their work-life balance (Bailyn, 1997; Clark, 2001). The number of hours or which schedule an individual works is a commonly discussed element of work-life balance, as the hours can be objectively compared to hours spent on personal, non-work priorities. Working a reduced number of hours, including part-time employment, could improve an individual's perception of their work-life balance, but also could result in reduced wages, leading to other conflicts or struggles in their personal life (Pearson, 2015). Since work-life balance is based on an individual's perception, these variables or changes in an individual's working status can produce varying outcomes.

Most organizations schedule the majority of their employees to work on first shift, which is typically between 8 a.m. and 5 p.m. Due to this, work-family schedules are best suited for individuals who work a first shift schedule, as most

non-working activities, such as sports, church, family functions and other extra-curricular activities are typically scheduled on weeknights and weekends to accommodate their work schedule (Pearson, 2015). In addition, most medical, dental, financial, repair and other services operate with the assumption that someone is available during the workday to take care of appointments and errands (Bailyn et al., 2001; Clark, 2001; Parsons & Bales, 1955).

Individuals who work evenings, nights, atypical or random schedules often face increased difficulties when trying to balance family obligations and work commitments, which causes tension between work and personal life (Bell & Bryson, 2005; Pearson, 2015). In addition to the work-life balance challenges, evening and night shift employees often can feel disconnected from the organization they work for and are often viewed in a negative or judgmental way by their day shift peers (Banks & Dinges, 2007; Hallett, 2003; Pearson, 2015). Working an atypical schedule can lead to additional challenges when trying to maintain proper well-being.

An employee's level of health can have a significant impact on their job performance. "Any employee in sound health contributes more effectively to the organization because of fewer sick days and more job productivity" (Pearson, 2015, p. 79). Cognitive function is impacted by an individual's diet and sleep. Maintaining a regular schedule for eating, consuming nutritious food and getting proper sleep are important, but can be challenging when working evening or night shifts (Humphries, 2009; Pearson, 2015). "Fatigue and greater incidents of

insomnia are not uncommon among atypical shift workers" (Oyane, Pallesen, Moen, Akerstedt, & Bjorvatn, 2013 as cited in Pearson, 2015, p. 79). When deprived of nutrition or sleep, an individual can experience a loss of critical thinking ability and is more likely to cause or experience workplace accidents (Banks & Dinges, 2007; Humphries, 2009; Nakata, 2011; Pearson, 2015).

Work and family associations are typically most central to an individual's life (Mortimer, Lorence & Kumka, 1986). Work and family have been viewed and treated as two separate, independent systems since work and family activities often occur at different times. Historically it was thought that men assumed the primary duties of working while women were responsible for the home (Clark, 2001; Parsons & Bales, 1955). Over the past few decades, the number of individuals who have responsibilities both at work and home have increased. A rising number of dual-career couples, single parents and working women have all contributed to this evolution and increased challenges when trying to achieve an effective work-life balance (Brief & Nord, 1990; Clark, 2001; Fullerton, 1995).

Work and family life have been interdependent for a long time, but the problems associated with work-life balance have become more apparent with the number of mothers working increases, the demand to work long hours grows, wages have become somewhat stagnate and cost of living expenses continue to rise (Bailyn et al., 2001; Clark, 2001). Due to this, family structure is an important element that can determine an individual's level of work-life balance. "While work and family have changed, the public and private policies and practices governing

employment remain mired in the past, modeled on the image of an ideal worker as a

male breadwinner, with a supportive wife at home" (Bailyn et al., 2001, p. 1).

Currently, less than one-quarter of families in America follow the traditional labor

distribution in which the man works to financially provide for the family while the

woman stays home to take care of the family and household responsibilities (Bailyn

et al., 2001). However, many societal assumptions and organizational cultures are

based on and support this family structure (Bailyn et al., 2001; Gregory & Milner,

2009).

      While two adult households may experience greater work-life balance

concerns than they have historically, the difficulties of having a good work-life

balance increase depending on the number of dependents they are responsible for,

especially children, but this can also include parents or other individuals. Single

parents who work experience an even greater amount of problems when trying to

achieve a functional work-life balance (Bailyn et al., 2001; Gregory & Milner, 2009;

Mastri, 2007). While individuals who are parents are just as likely to experience

stress due to their jobs, they are more likely to have stress caused by their home life

(Bell & Bryson, 2005).

      Families who have both adults working, multiple dependents or long working

hours are susceptible to experiencing high levels of stress and are more dependent

on their organization's culture to help them achieve a positive work-life balance

(Clark, 2001; Mangels, 2008). An organization's culture can also have an impact on

the amount of workplace stress an employee experiences, but this stress can be

reduced by having a more laidback environment (Pearson, 2015; Robbins & Judge, 2011). While there are notions that detail how employees prefer their supervisors not to meddle in their personal lives, supportive supervision can lead to reduced stress and role conflict along with increased job satisfaction and productivity due to an increased understanding of personal needs (Clark, 2001; Repetti, 1987). The stress caused by an inefficient work-life balance is not always caused by work, as an individual's home-life can be more demanding and stressful than their work responsibilities (Bell & Bryson, 2005). It is also possible that the stress caused by an unbalanced work-life, particularly stress caused by total working hours or an individual's schedule, could be reduced or offset by other factors, such as job enjoyment, increased opportunities for advancement or material rewards (Gregory & Milner, 2009).

"Compared to the past, today organizational and environmental systems are more dynamic and fluid making careers more unpredictable, vulnerable, and multidirectional within" (Baruch, 2006 as cited in Konig et al., 2012, p. 2). Many individuals still consider high professional achievement to be a significant factor to lead a successful life, however, society's view on family values and work-life balance have evolved over the years (Baruch, 2006; Konig et al., 2012; Polach, 2004).

The type of job an individual has and the level of their position within their organization can influence their perception of work-life balance. While higher salaries or wages can alleviate some stress associated with family life priorities, it only impacts the perception of work-life balance, as it typically doesn't directly

correlate with better hours or additional benefits. Individuals who work in well-compensated management positions are more likely than others to experience conflict based on having to make difficult decisions to sacrifice elements of their career or personal life (Gregory & Milner, 2009; Guest, 2000; Mangels, 2008). In these positions, the perceived autonomy to have flexible work processes and schedules is often an illusion. While salaried employees may not have to physically punch a clock, this often leads to working longer hours due to cultural norms, employer expectations or an excessive workload (Gregory & Milner, 2009; Guest, 2000; Mangels, 2008; McDonald et al., 2005). This leads to salaried managers experiencing greater levels of conflict due to the spillover of work impacting their personal life or their personal priorities impacting their career and can lead to burnout (Guest, 2000; Mangels, 2008). Employers whose core employees work in professional or technical roles are significantly more likely to offer benefits to support work-life balance for employees when compared to employers whose core employees primarily work in service, clerical or blue-collar positions, typically to attract and retain top level talent (Gray & Tudball, 2003; Gregory & Milner, 2009; Mastri, 2007).

When it is achieved, work-life balance leads to increased organizational commitment, job satisfaction and reduced stress for employees (Bailyn et al., 2001; Gregory & Milner, 2009; Kingston, 1990; Ronen, 1984). It will also benefit their family life, as work-life balance will better allow them to resolve family issues and participate more actively in their personal responsibilities (Bohen & Viveros-Long,

1981; Clark, 2001). Organizations can also benefit by having more productive and attentive employees, reduced absenteeism and increased employee retention (Bell & Bryson, 2005; Clark, 2001; Gregory & Milner, 2009; Kingston, 1990; McDonald et al., 2005).

Theories

Many theories of motivation exist which include both extrinsic and intrinsic motivators. One of the most acclaimed is Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory relates to motivation with five levels of needs that individuals strive to achieve, being physiological, safety, social, esteem and self-actualization (Maslow, 1970). According to Maslow's prepotency process principle, people are motivated to satisfy the levels in sequence, starting with the lower levels of physiological, then safety, etc. (Dessler, 2013). As individuals reach certain levels, their motivation focuses on the next level of attainment until they reach the last stage of self-actualization. Many theorists have built their work on the foundation that Maslow created with his theory.

Frederick Herzberg believes that satisfying the lower level needs just keeps employees from becoming dissatisfied, such as pay and working conditions. Herzberg stated that the best way to motivate people is organize their job so that doing it provides enrichment via the feedback and challenge necessary to satisfy their higher-level needs, such as accomplishment and recognition (Dessler, 2013). One of Herzberg's (1959) theories that relates to an individual's motivation is his two-factor theory, or motivation-hygiene theory, which states that an individual's

satisfaction and dissatisfaction relate to both extrinsic and intrinsic factors (Robbins & Judge, 2011). An employee's behavior has a direct relationship with their attitude and Herzberg details that satisfaction and dis-satisfaction are two separate, distinct scales. With his two-factor theory, Herzberg claimed there are two sets of elements that contribute to a worker's attitude, which are motivators and hygiene factors (Robbins & Judge, 2011).

Within Herzberg's theory, the factors encompassed in the motivation group include: recognition, achievement, possibility of growth, advancement, responsibility, and the work itself. The hygiene group entails: salary, interpersonal relationships with supervisors, interpersonal relationships with subordinates, interpersonal relationships with peers, technical supervision, company policies and administration, working conditions, factors in personal life, status, and job security (Tietjen & Myers, 1998). Many of these factors within the theory are similar to or the same as the aforementioned elements of Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Herzberg separates the two groups by stating "The factors involved in producing job satisfaction (and motivation) are separate and distinct from the factors that lead to job dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 2003, p. 91)."

Herzberg describes motivators as the factors which create positive feelings and a good attitude, mainly task or job related. He describes hygiene factors as those which create negative feelings and attitude or unhappiness, mainly caused by conditions not task-related, such as policies and organizational climate (Tietjen & Myers, 1998). Job satisfaction is caused by motivation factors, such as achievement,

recognition, responsibility, possibility of growth, advancement and the work itself.

These motivation factors are intrinsic and only relate to satisfaction or the lack of

satisfaction, but do not relate to dissatisfaction.

In Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory, when studying an individual's job

satisfaction level as it pertains to motivation factors, the opposite of job satisfaction

is not dissatisfaction, it's no satisfaction. Hygiene factors that exist are extrinsic

and can create job dissatisfaction (Robbins & Judge, 2011). The opposite of

dissatisfaction is not satisfaction, it's no dissatisfaction, when looking at an

individual's level of dissatisfaction of hygiene factors. Therefore, motivation and

hygiene factors relate to two separate scales, satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

There are a multitude of motivation theories detailing theoretical platforms

of how individuals are motivated, what they are motivated by and what motivation

is. Many early theories of motivation were based on the principle of hedonism,

which includes the assumption that "behavior is directed toward pleasure and away

from pain. In every situation people select from alternative possibilities the course

of action that they think will maximize their pleasure and minimize their pain"

(Vroom, 1995, p. 11).

Victor Vroom's expectancy motivation theory is based on the idea that

generally people will not pursue rewards they find unattractive or unattainable.

Vroom's theory explains that a person's motivation to exert energy is based on three

variables: the person's expectancy that the effort will lead to performance;

instrumentality, or the individual's perception that the successful performance will

lead to procuring rewards; and valence, which is the value in which the individual

attaches to the potential rewards (Dessler, 2013). "It is reasonable to assume that

most of the behavior exhibited by individuals on their jobs as well as their behavior

in the 'job market' is voluntary, and consequently motivated" (Vroom, 1995, p. 10).

Within the field of motivation, understanding how and why employees seek

achievement is influenced by David McClelland's (1961) theory of needs.

McClelland's theory of needs describes motivation as being made up of three needs,

which are achievement, power and affiliation (Robbins & Judge, 2011). The need

for achievement focuses on driving for performance and achieving success as

compared to established goals and standards. The need for power surrounds the

notion of influencing others to behave in ways they wouldn't have otherwise,

without the intervention. The need for affiliation is the desire to form and maintain

relationships that are both positive and meaningful. McClelland believed the three

needs existed subconsciously within individuals. The need for achievement is the

highest profile of the three needs in regards to the attention paid towards it

(McClelland, 1961). Researchers predict there is a strong correlation with the need

for achievement and job performance (Robbins & Judge, 2011).

McClelland's work was influenced by the theories of Henry Murray, who

initially conceptualized achievement motivation. Murray's legacy includes being

acknowledged as a founder of personality psychology and a leader in personality

assessment (Allen & Meyer, 1990). He identified achievement motivation as an

element of personality. Murray's conceptualization of personality produced a

system of needs (Koertge & American Council of Learned Societies, 2008). This consisted of 20 needs where an individual's behaviors may meet more than one need. Two of these needs relate to achievement motivation, being achievement and infavoidance. Murray's theorized need for achievement relates to achievement motivation, as it is the ability to accomplish difficult tasks, overcome obstacles and become an expert (Cigularov, 2008; Murray & Harvard, 1938). The need for infavoidance relates to achievement motivation, as it surrounds the desire to avoid humiliation and embarrassment (Murray & Harvard, 1938).

David McClelland described the need for achievement as a motive. According to McClelland, the need for achievement focused on driving for performance and achieving success as compared to setting goals and standards (Robbins & Judge, 2011). Murray and McClelland had similar views, as McClelland theorized the existence of two types of achievement motivation, being the hope for success and the fear of failure (Cigularov, 2008). This work was influenced by psychologist B. F. Skinner's work with behavior modification which focused on changing behaviors by providing rewards or punishment based on performance due to the belief that consequences affect behavior (Dessler, 2013).

Psychologist Albert Bandura's social cognitive theory was also influenced by B.F. Skinner's behaviorism and operant conditioning theories, but Bandura added elements such as modeling and focused on the processing of information. Bandura's social cognitive theory came to be from his work on social and personality development. This theory claims an interrelationship between an individual, an

environment and behavior (Grusec, 1992). The theory does not state the relationship between these three elements contribute equally or simultaneously, but all influence each other (Wood & Bandura, 1989).

Bandura introduced the concept of social modeling as a form of learning (Bandura, 2006). Modeling did not mean the observer would never perform the learned behavior, it just meant the observer could learn through observation without having to perform it as imitation of the model in order to learn it. Once a behavior is learned, an individual's circumstances could dictate whether or not they would perform the action in the future (Grusec, 1992; Wood & Bandura, 1989). This relates to motivation as an individual will observe the behaviors of their manager or managers and may adopt behaviors that they would not have otherwise, good or bad. Bandura states that an individual should not be comparing their performance to anyone else as they should be striving to put forth their own best effort, but a conducive environment of others performing productive behaviors will solicit productive behaviors from others (Grusec, 1992).

Bandura also introduced the theory of self-efficacy which claims that people develop beliefs about their abilities and characteristics that direct their behaviors. Self-efficacy impacts how much effort individual's put into performing certain tasks based on their belief of their ability to perform the task (Grusec, 1992). Past successes or failures in a certain task can contribute to one's self-efficacy. Individual's with low self-efficacy may become consumed with their doubt, which

then contributes to them performing a behavior at a lower level than if they would not have doubted their abilities (Wood & Bandura, 1989).

Individuals with a higher self-efficacy are motivated to exert more energy for a longer amount of time and persevere to accomplish goals, as well as preparing themselves with more options. Those with a higher self-efficacy also experience improved cognitive skills and are more intrinsically interested in learning (Grusec, 1992). Individuals with lower self-efficacy tend to be less motivated and have higher levels of stress and depression (Wood & Bandura, 1989). Self-efficacy relates to achievement motivation and the related stress levels could impact an individual's job satisfaction and perception of their work-life balance.

Summary

This chapter reviewed literature related to the study. The purpose of the literature review was to explore relevant concepts, define key terms, introduce relevant research and introduce a foundational understanding of the included topics, as described by the reviewed literature. The literature review focused on motivation, job satisfaction, work-life balance and the theories that the study is based on as the major sections, exploring each on a foundational level.

<div align="center">**Chapter 3: Research Methods**</div>

Overview

This chapter describes the research questions, research design and rationale, population, data collection procedures, instrumentation and analytical techniques proposed for this study. The purpose of this study is to test Frederick Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory by comparing the achievement motivation, job satisfaction and work-life balance of salaried retail managers at a large corporation's stores. This study examined the relationship, if any, achievement motivation has with job satisfaction and work-life balance, and the relationship, if any, that job satisfaction and work-life balance have with each other. The variables are achievement motivation, job satisfaction and work-life balance.

Research Objectives:

1.   To what extent, if at all, is there a relationship between an individual's achievement motivation and job satisfaction?

2.   To what extent, if at all, is there a relationship between an individual's achievement motivation and work-life balance?

3.   To what extent, if at all, is there a relationship between an individual's job satisfaction and work-life balance?

Research Design and Rationale

This study used a quantitative method of research measuring the degree of attitudes or beliefs of salaried retail management employees. The data was collected via a questionnaire in Winter 2017-2018.

The intended use of the findings was to provide insights to the studied industry in regards to the relationship between achievement motivation, job satisfaction and work-life balance. The demographics and population size selected was based on the number of voluntary participants within studied locations from the same organization. Salary, gender, age, tenure, job performance, geographical location, job title and other variables were not be measured, as the study was strictly focused on achievement motivation, job satisfaction and work-life balance. The variables are achievement motivation, job satisfaction and work-life balance.

Population, Sampling Method and Participants

The population participating in this study is made up of salaried store management employees of Corporation X. The study surveyed multiple levels of salaried managers from 18 store locations in Minnesota and Wisconsin. Corporation X is a Fortune 100 company, which operates over 1,000 retail stores throughout the United States. Corporation X has been in business for over 50 years, is a publicly traded corporation and is well respected as a major retail chain. Corporation X sells goods through its physical retails stores and online via their website and wholly owned subsidiaries.

The demographics of this employee population vary based on the location of the individual buildings and continually changes because of turnover. Each store has one Store Manager, zero to four Co-Managers and six to 15 Assistant Managers. Approximately 50% of the population is female. The population's estimated age range is from 22 to 60 years old, primarily comprised of individuals between the

ages of 30 and 45. The population's average level of education is a high school diploma, with many holding college degrees and just a few individuals have obtained advanced degrees.

Retail and management experience among the studied Corporation X managers ranges significantly, with long tenures of employment being common, upwards of 20-30 years. However, at the Assistant Manager level, there are multiple individuals who are working on their first year with the company as first time managers with no previous retail experience. Corporation X relies heavily on internal promotions, especially for Store Manager positions, so it is common for managers to have extensive retail experience prior to promoting to the management level. This study did not involve stratification, as specific characteristics were not tracked and it would not be possible to confirm if the participants reflected a true proportion of the population surveyed (Creswell, 2009).

The study did not utilize random sampling. Instead, the survey selection process for participants was non-random, as a convenience sample was used since the participants were the individuals who were in role at the time of the survey. The sample population included Corporation X store management employees in multiple store locations who were willing to voluntarily participate in the study. A single-stage sampling procedure was used in this study, as the researcher had access to the list of all potential participants. The study did not use groups, so store location and the level of a participant's management position was not collected or tracked.

Participants were asked to voluntarily participate in the study and they may withdraw from the study at any time, if desired. Other variants may exist, including the possibility of being susceptible to social interaction threats to internal validity. The researcher anticipated that the sample size that will be asked to participate in the study will be approximately 18 Store Managers, 25 Co-Managers and 160 Assistant Managers. The sample size was estimated as the researcher will not track vacation time, leave of absences, turnover and other staffing factors. It was assumed that demographics accurately represented the population of the store employees and geographical location.

Human Subjects Considerations

Human subjects were provided specific information regarding what was being asked of them and acknowledge consent of their understanding and opting to voluntarily participate in the study. Human subjects were able to choose to participate without coercion and were able to refuse to answer any questions or withdraw from the study without any negative consequences.

To maintain confidentiality, the participants were asked to report data only in the aggregate and not disclose any personal information as a part of the study. The researcher limited access to any information identifying any participant and will securely store the research records. The data collected in the study is not anonymous to the researcher, as the researcher will know most of the participants recruited for the study but did not know which questionnaire belongs to each participant. The data was conveyed confidentially within the study, as no human

subjects or specific store locations were named or identifiable in the report produced

from the study. Human subjects experienced no risks or benefits that resulted from

participating in this study.

Data Collection Setting and Procedures

The collection of data for this study was conducted via paper surveys, which

will be distributed via sealed envelopes to the Store Manager of each of the 18

participating store locations. To maintain confidentiality participants were not

asked any personal information including name, store location or the management

level of their position.

The researcher personally delivered or mailed the envelope of surveys to the

Corporation X Store Managers, depending on if the researcher was able to see the

Store Manager in person within a reasonable amount of time. The Store Managers

were asked to distribute the surveys in person to the Co-Managers and Assistant

Managers who worked at their location and were willing to participate. The data

was collected in Winter 2017-2018, over multiple weeks.

The researcher answered any questions the participants had in regards to

participating in the survey and/or the survey itself. Upon agreeing to complete the

questionnaire, the participants were asked to acknowledge informed consent. The

researcher also provided them information in regards to the confidentiality of the

study. The participants were asked to answer the questionnaire fully and honestly.

These items were conveyed by the researcher to the participants via a paper form

included with the survey and via a conference call or email to the Store Managers.

Store Managers were asked by the researcher to collect the surveys and signed informed consent forms completed by their store's Co-Managers and Assistant Managers and retain them in an envelope located in a locked filing cabinet within the Store Manager's office, along with the survey and signed informed consent form that they have personally completed. The researcher personally provided postage for the envelopes of completed surveys and asked the Store Managers to mail the envelopes to the researcher's home once all surveys of had been completed by the willing participants from their store location. The researcher then retained the envelopes of surveys in a locked filing cabinet located in his home office.

Instrumentation

Multiple instruments were used to collect data for this study. The Achievement Motivation Inventory (AMI) instrument measured achievement motivation in this study (Schuler et al., 2004). The Job in General (JIG) scale was utilized to measure job satisfaction in this study (Smith et al., 2009). The Work-Family Conflict Scale (WFC) was the instrument used to measure work-life balance in this study (Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996).

The Achievement Motivation Inventory (AMI) instrument measured achievement motivation in this study (Schuler et al., 2004). The AMI instrument measures 17 dimensions of achievement motivation via a Likert scale from one to seven, representing responses from "does not apply" to "applies fully." The dimensions are also known as subscales or facets. The AMI questionnaire is 170 items and each of the 17 subscales are measured via the responses to 10 questions

associated to each dimension, with the total achievement motivation score measured by the responses within the entire questionnaire (Schuler et al., 2004).

The AMI was developed to measure the major aspects of achievement motivation in a workplace setting. It was published in 2004 and is essentially the English translated version of the Leistungsmotivationsinventar (LMI), a German instrument available strictly in the German language. The AMI is reported to be highly reliable, with internal consistency, test-retest reliability and a total score alpha coefficient of .96 (Schuler et al., 2004). Construct validity of the AMI instrument is present, as the scale correlates with the scores of other instruments. AMI results can be compared to a normative group, which produces percentile scores for each dimension, along with gender. Normative groups have shown similar results for grouping the items into three categories, being self-assurance, ambition and self-control.

Due to the excessive amount of time it would take for a survey participant to complete all 170 items of the AMI, this study utilized a 30-item modified short version of the LMI-K, which is only available in German. The LMI-K is the 30-item short version of the LMI instrument. These 30 items on the short version are recognized as those in which best represent the overall questionnaire (Schuler et al., 2004). One question, question 3, had the answered score reversed since the question was designed to be asked in a negative format to avoid straight line responses. For example, if the participant answered 7, it will be scored as a 1, etc.

The responses were totaled and the sum score represented the participant's achievement motivation.

The modified short version used in this study originated with the LMI-K but was translated from German to English by the researcher using Google Translate via https://translate.google.com. The translated items were then compared to the full-length AMI questionnaire in English to ensure the translation accurately represented the intended items.

The Job in General (JIG) scale was utilized to measure job satisfaction in this study (Smith et al., 2009). The JIG instrument is a section within the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) that measures overall job satisfaction in a broad sense, not the varying elements that make up job satisfaction. The JIG scale is an 18-item questionnaire with three possible responses representing "Yes", "No" and "Cannot decide". Participants respond to each of the 18 items (adjective or short phrases describing negatively the work or positively the work) by filling in a "Y" for yes, "N" for no, and "?" for cannot decide. Items that are worded positively will receive a score of three points for "Y", one point for "?", and zero points for "N". Items worded negatively will receive a score of three points for "N", one points for "?", and zero points for "Y" (Harwell, 2003).

The response points were totaled for a score between zero and 54 to represent the participant's job satisfaction. The total score for each participant was compared to norms of employees nationwide as a percentile with scores of "Well Below

Average," "Below Average," "Average," "Above Average," and "Well Above Average," each representing 20% (Harwell, 2003).

The Job Descriptive Index, including the Job in General scale, was originally developed in 1959 but first published in 1969, with the most recent revision completed in 1997 (Smith et al., 2009). The instrument has multiple authors and is published by Bowling Green State University. The JIG was developed as a subscale of the JDI to measure the overall job satisfaction of employees. The JIG has shown a high reliability in normative studies, with evidence of a .91 alpha coefficient. The JIG provided evidence of convergent and discriminant validity (Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson, & Paul, 1989). It was also reported that the JIG displayed correlations with other scales that measure job satisfaction. Norms for job tenure, manager status, job level, organization type and age are measured in the JIG against the responses of a sample of approximately 1,600 employees (Harwell, 2003).

The Work-Family Conflict Scale (WFC) was the instrument used to measure work-life balance in this study (Netemeyer et al., 1996). The Work-Family Conflict Scale is a five-item questionnaire, designed to measure how work impacts family life. The items are measured via a Likert scale from one to seven, representing responses from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." The Work-Family Conflict Scale is both valid and reliable for assessment purposes, with internal consistency supported by a construct reliability of .88 to .89 and coefficient alpha levels ranging from .88 to .89 (Netemeyer et al., 1996).

There is a conceptual distinction between the impact that work has on family life and the impact family has on work life (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). While the Work-Family Conflict Scale will be utilized in this study to measure the impact work has on family life, Netemeyer et al. (1996) have also developed the Family-Work Conflict Scale to measure how family affects work life, which will not be used in this study. These two scales are related, but different. "From work-family and family-work perspectives, this type of conflict reflects the degree to which role responsibilities from the work and family domains are incompatible" (Netemeyer et al., 1996, p. 401).

Research suggests there is a negative correlation between the WFC scale and job satisfaction, intentions to stay with the organization and organizational commitment, but positive correlation between the WFC scale and job burnout, job tension and job role ambiguity (Netemeyer et al., 1996). The Work-Family Conflict Scale was designed to measure the level of work-family conflict, but the scale lacks the depth to determine the actual reasons for the work-family conflict (Green, 2010). "Time-based conflict occurs when the amount of time devoted to the work role interferes with performing family-related responsibilities... Strain-based conflict occurs when strain created by the work role interferes with performing family responsibilities" (Netemeyer et al., 1996, p. 401).

The majority of workers believe that family is more important than work. The results of the Work-Family Conflict Scale may be influenced by an individual's status at home, for example, whether or not they are married and/or have children

(Burke, 1988). If an individual has children, the number of children at home is positively correlated with the WFC scale, as the demands for their time, resources and emotions could be greater than individuals with few or no children (Netemeyer et al., 1996).

Analytical Techniques

The AMI is measured via a Likert scale from one to seven, representing responses from "does not apply" to "applies fully." To represent the AMI, this study utilized a 30-item modified short version of the LMI-K. One question, question 3, had the answered score reversed since the question was designed to be asked in a negative format to avoid straight line responses. For example, if the participant answers 7, it will be scored as a 1, etc. Each participant's responses will produce a sum score that will represent a total achievement motivation score (Ziegler, Schmidt-Atzert, Buhner, & Krumm, 2007).

The JIG instrument measured overall job satisfaction for each survey participant. The JIG scale is an 18-item questionnaire with three possible responses representing "Yes", "No" and "Cannot decide". Participants responded to each of the 18 items (adjective or short phrases describing negatively the work or positively the work) by filling in a "Y" for yes, "N" for no, and "?" for cannot decide. Items that are worded positively will receive a score of three points for "Y", one point for "?", and zero points for "N". Items worded negatively will receive a score of three points for "N", one points for "?", and zero points for "Y". The response points were totaled for a score between zero and 54 to represent the participant's job

satisfaction. The total score for each participant was compared to norms of employees nationwide as a percentile with scores of "Well Below Average," "Below Average," "Average," "Above Average," and "Well Above Average," each representing 20%.

The Work-Family Conflict Scale is a five-item questionnaire, designed to measure how work impacts family life. The items are measured via a Likert scale from one to seven, representing responses from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." The participant's responses were scored from one to seven and a sum score represents their Work-Family Conflict total score, representing work-life balance.

The data collected via the survey was entered into a computer database. The individual participant's responses were not divided into groups as the data was treated as a single population. For the study's research questions, achievement motivation, job satisfaction and work-life balance were compared between participants. Descriptive statistics were utilized, including visual summaries such as tables and figures, to display any differences that may exist between each variable. Data from variables measured on an ordinal level were described using frequency and percentage.

The study used a correlation design to analyze the data, which measured the degree of the relationship between the studied variables. Correlation studies may not provide detailed explanations as to why a relationship exists, but they are typically descriptive in nature. In other words, it measures correlation but not causation. Rather than only confirming whether a relationship exists or not, the

correlation design provides insight by detailing the degree of the correlation (Rallis & Rossman, 2012). Due to the research questions being based on the relationships of variables, if any, a correlation design seemed to meet the objectives of the study better than other potential designs for analyzing the data.

The correlation between the studied variables were analyzed by using Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient. Pearson's correlation coefficient provides a quantitative measure of the strength of the linear relationship between two variables (Mendenhall & Sincich, 2003). Pearson's correlation coefficient is represented by the symbol r and always equals a value between 1 and -1. While it doesn't measure the angle of the slope itself, it measures the strength of the correlation, or lack thereof. The closer r is to 1 or -1, the stronger the linear relation is between the two variables. If $r = 1$ it represents a perfect positive relationship, and if $r = -1$ it represents a perfect negative relationship. If a calculated r is near zero, it implies there is little or no linear relationship between the two measured variables (Mendenhall & Sincich, 2003). A low Pearson correlation coefficient value does not mean that no relationship exists between the variables, as the variables may have a nonlinear relationship.

An observational design would have featured observed behaviors and interactions, but it would be difficult to determine an individual's motivation and job satisfaction. In addition, work-life balance would have been based strictly on the element of time spent at work, which isn't a true indication of their perceived balance. An observational design would have limited the study due to the time

necessary to gather data, especially if attempting to include the same number of participants as a survey-based study.

A case study or an interview design would have both provided a lot of details regarding behaviors, interactions and relationships, but they would have been more inquisitive in nature and only detailed the individual studied instance of a phenomenon. Therefore, it would make it difficult to extrapolate the data to determine a pattern or trend of achievement motivation, job satisfaction and work-life balance, which the study is intending to discover.

A document analysis design studies cultural artifacts. While this type of study would indicate where the Corporate X policies and procedures support work life balance and leadership development. However, it would not provide a good indicator of the actual culture within the stores in regard to the studied variables. A quasi-experimental design and randomized controlled trials would provide an opportunity to test the impacts of the studied variables but would not be possible in this study due to the potentially disruptive impact to the organization and its associates. Also, an experimental design would not provide a true indicator of the current state of the studied variables within the organization.

A survey design is intended to describe trends in the data and to identify the frequency of responses. A correlation design builds on this by measuring the degree of the association between variables. A correlation design seems to be the most informative and efficient design type to utilize for this study when compared to the other design types that could be used to analyze the data.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to test Frederick Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory by comparing the achievement motivation, job satisfaction and work-life balance of salaried retail managers at a large corporation's stores. This chapter described the research questions, research design and rationale, population, data collection procedures, instrumentation and analytical techniques used for this study.

Chapter 4: Results

Overview

The purpose of this study was to test Frederick Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory by comparing the achievement motivation, job satisfaction and work-life balance of salaried retail managers that work in stores for a large corporation. Multiple instruments were used to collect data for this study. The Achievement Motivation Inventory (AMI) instrument was used to measure achievement motivation in this study (Schuler et al., 2004). The Job in General (JIG) scale was utilized to measure job satisfaction in this study (Smith et al., 2009). The Work-Family Conflict Scale (WFC) was the instrument used to measure perceived work-life balance in this study (Netemeyer et al., 1996). This chapter presents the statistical analysis of the survey results to address the three research questions from this study.

The research questions studied were:

1. To what extent, if at all, is there a relationship between an individual's achievement motivation and job satisfaction?

2. To what extent, if at all, is there a relationship between an individual's achievement motivation and work-life balance?

3. To what extent, if at all, is there a relationship between an individual's job satisfaction and work-life balance?

Sample Size and Response Rate

The researcher estimated that the sample size invited to voluntarily participate in the study was approximately 18 Store Managers, 25 Co-Managers and 160 Assistant Managers, for a total of 203 salaried retail managers. 105 managers completed and returned the surveys, for a total response rate of approximately 52%.

The population that participated in this study was made up of salaried store management employees of Corporation X. The study surveyed multiple levels of salaried managers from 18 store locations in Minnesota and Wisconsin. The study did not utilize random sampling. Instead, the survey selection process for participants was non-random, as a convenience sample was used since the participants will be the individuals who are in role at the time of the survey. The sample population included Corporation X salaried store management employees in multiple store locations who were willing to voluntarily participate in the study. The study did not use groups, so store location and the level of a participant's management position was not collected or tracked.

Data Analysis and Results

The correlation between the studied variables were analyzed by using Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient. Pearson's correlation coefficient provides a quantitative measure of the strength of the linear relationship between two variables (Mendenhall & Sincich, 2003). Pearson's correlation coefficient is represented by the symbol r and always equals a value between 1 and -1. While it

doesn't measure the angle of the slope itself, it measures the strength of the

correlation, or lack thereof. The closer r is to 1 or -1, the stronger the linear relation

is between the two variables. If $r = 1$ it represents a perfect positive relationship,

and if $r = -1$ it represents a perfect negative relationship. If a calculated r is near

zero, it implies there is little or no linear relationship between the two measured

variables (Mendenhall & Sincich, 2003). A low Pearson correlation coefficient value

does not mean that no relationship exists between the variables, as the variables

may have a nonlinear relationship.

The analysis of the studied variables also reviewed the observed significance

value of the tests, known as the p-value. The p-value is the probability of detecting

a value of the test statistic at least as contradictory to the null hypothesis as the

observed value of the test statistic (Mendenhall & Sincich, 2003). The analysis of

the tests utilized a maximum value, also known as the significance level or alpha

(α), of 0.05. If the p-value is less than or equal to α, then the correlation is

statistically significant, while if the p-value is greater than α, then the correlation is

not statistically significant. Analysis results from the studied tests can be seen in

Table 1.

Table 1

Pearson Correlations of the Studied Surveys

Instruments	Correlation (r)	p-value
AMI & JIG	0.3079	0.0014
AMI & WFC	-0.0331	0.7372
WFC & JIG	-0.4399	2.6558

Achievement Motivation Inventory

The AMI was completed by all 105 respondents and descriptive statistics for

all 30 items from the survey as well as a total achievement motivation score are

provided in Table 2. The highest scored item was #5 which asked, "I have a sense of

satisfaction when I improve on my performance" with a mean score of 6.438 and

standard deviation of 0.991. The lowest scored item with a mean score of 4.152 and

standard deviation of 1.672 was item #4 which asked, "I am convinced that I have

been more committed to my education, training and profession than my colleagues".

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for the Achievement Motivation Inventory

Question	*N*	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
1	105	6.010	1.000	3	7
2	105	5.905	0.991	3	7
3	105	4.867	1.556	1	7
4	105	4.152	1.672	1	7
5	105	6.438	0.742	4	7
6	105	4.990	1.370	1	7
7	105	5.886	1.361	1	7
8	105	5.419	1.365	2	7
9	105	5.590	1.110	2	7
10	105	5.657	1.003	3	7
11	105	4.600	1.619	1	7
12	105	5.752	0.934	4	7
13	105	5.724	0.971	3	7
14	105	6.029	0.878	3	7
15	105	5.324	1.618	1	7

Question	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
16	105	5.505	1.015	2	7
17	105	5.390	1.191	2	7
18	105	5.724	1.056	3	7
19	105	5.629	1.098	2	7
20	105	5.562	0.994	3	7
21	105	5.514	0.967	3	7
22	105	6.314	0.772	4	7
23	105	5.581	1.504	1	7
24	105	4.819	1.626	1	7
25	105	5.305	1.180	2	7
26	105	5.676	1.056	2	7
27	105	5.410	1.169	1	7
28	105	5.152	1.386	1	7
29	105	5.876	0.933	3	7
30	105	6.095	0.811	4	7
Total Score	105	165.895	18.929	118	203

The highest possible total score for each survey participant in the 30-question

modified short version of the AMI that was utilized in the study is 210 points and

the lowest possible score is 30 points. The highest achievement motivation total

score in this study was 203 points and the lowest was 118, for a range of 85 points.

A breakdown of the participant's total achievement motivation scores can be seen in

Figure 1.
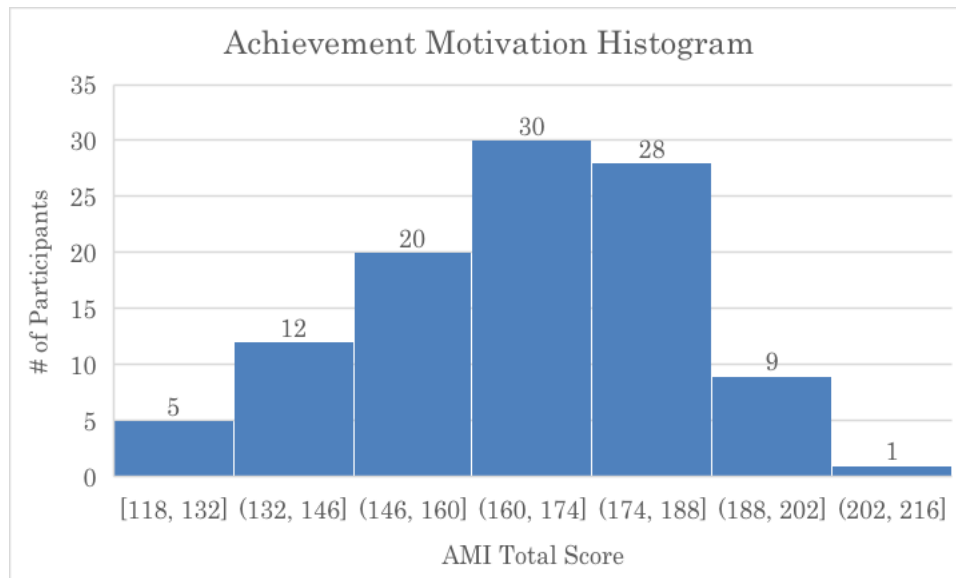
Figure 1. Histogram of the study participant responses to the Achievement Motivation Inventory.

The Achievement Motivation Inventory measures 17 dimensions of achievement motivation via a Likert scale from one to seven, representing responses from "does not apply" to "applies fully." The AMI was developed to measure the major aspects of achievement motivation in a workplace setting. The AMI questionnaire is 170 items, with 10 items dedicated to each of the measured dimensions. Each of the 17 subscales are measured via the responses to 10 questions associated to each dimension, with the total achievement motivation score measured by the responses within the entire questionnaire (Schuler et al., 2004). Due to the excessive amount of time it would take for a survey participant to complete all 170 items of the AMI, this study used a 30-item modified short version of the LMI-K, translated from German to English.

The 30 items on the short version instrument are recognized as those in which best represent the overall Achievement Motivation Inventory questionnaire

(Schuler et al., 2004). Each participant's responses were totaled, and the sum score represents their total level of achievement motivation. This study did not explore the possibility of relationships between any of the 17 individual dimensions of achievement motivation and job satisfaction or work-life balance, but it is possible that the scores from individual dimensions and their potential relationship with other variables could vary from the results and relationships of the overall achievement motivation scores.

Out of the 30 items on the short version AMI utilized in this study, only 14 of the 17 individual dimensions of achievement motivation were represented with questions. The three that were not represented by questions are Fearlessness, Independence and Self-Control. Seven of the dimensions were represented by multiple questions each. The other seven dimensions represented in the survey only had one question each, therefore the mean score for that dimension matches the mean score of the corresponding question. The dimension with the most questions represented in the modified short version AMI is Preference for Difficult Tasks, with six questions. A breakdown of the participant's survey responses for each question based on the represented dimensions of achievement motivation are shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Dimensions of Achievement Motivation

Dimension	Question #	Question Mean	Dimension Mean	Dimension Rank
Compensatory Effort	29	5.876	5.876	3
Competitiveness	15	5.324	5.324	12
Confidence in Success	2	5.905	5.329	11
	8	5.419		
	11	4.600		
	17	5.390		
Dominance	18	5.724	5.514	9
	25	5.305		
Eagerness to Learn	26	5.676	5.676	6
Engagement	4	4.152	4.486	14
	24	4.819		
Flexibility	12	5.752	5.752	5
Flow	13	5.724	5.643	7
	20	5.562		
Goal Setting	30	6.095	6.095	1
Internality	27	5.410	5.410	10
Persistence	19	5.629	5.629	8
Preference for Difficult Tasks	3	4.867	5.281	13
	6	4.990		
	10	5.657		
	16	5.505		
	21	5.514		
	28	5.152		
Pride in Productivity	5	6.438	6.093	2
	9	5.590		
	14	6.029		
	22	6.314		
Status Orientation	1	6.010	5.825	4
	7	5.886		
	23	5.581		

The dimension with the highest mean score was Goal Setting with a dimension mean of 6.095, represented by only one question. The question representing the Goal Setting dimension was question 30 which states, "It is important to me to increase my proficiency". The Achievement Motivation Inventory survey manual defines Goal setting as, "The tendency to set goals and to make long-term plans for achieving these goals. People who score high on this dimension are future-oriented and have high standards for what they want to achieve" (Schuler et al., 2004, p. 22).

The dimension with the lowest mean score was Engagement with a dimension mean of 4.486, represented by two questions. The questions representing the Engagement dimension were questions four which states "I am convinced that I have been more committed to my education, training and profession than my colleagues", and question 24 which states "I believe I try harder professionally than most of my colleagues". The Achievement Motivation Inventory survey manual defines Engagement as, "The desire to be regularly engaged in an activity, usually work related. People who are highly engaged place a high priority on work and are uncomfortable when they have nothing to do…" (Schuler et al., 2004, p. 21).

Job in General Scale

The JIG scale was completed by all 105 respondents and descriptive statistics for all 18 items from the survey as well as a total achievement motivation score are provided in Table 4. The highest scored item was #16 which stated, "Rotten" with a

mean score of 2.952 and standard deviation of 0.349. While this was the most frequently responded item, it is one of the questions that is scored in reverse, so the participants who received points for this item responded that the word does not generally represent their job. The lowest scored item with a mean score of 1.467 and standard deviation of 1.353 was item #10 which stated, "Superior".

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for Job in General Survey

Question	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
1	105	2.457	1.104	0	3
2	105	2.867	0.603	0	3
3	105	2.038	1.287	0	3
4	105	2.848	0.582	0	3
5	105	2.876	0.564	0	3
6	105	2.638	0.937	0	3
7	105	2.733	0.796	0	3
8	105	2.686	0.887	0	3
9	105	2.771	0.759	0	3
10	105	1.467	1.353	0	3
11	105	2.343	1.170	0	3
12	105	2.629	0.897	0	3
13	105	2.276	1.223	0	3
14	105	2.676	0.878	0	3
15	105	1.705	1.352	0	3
16	105	2.952	0.349	0	3
17	105	2.543	0.996	0	3
18	105	2.867	0.603	0	3
Total Score	105	45.371	10.446	6	54

The highest possible total score for each survey participant in the 18-question Job in General scale that was utilized in the study is 54 points and the lowest possible score is zero points. The highest job satisfaction total score in this study was 54 points and the lowest was 6, for a range of 48 points. The scores of 25 participants reached the maximum total score of 54. A breakdown of the participant's total job satisfaction scores can be seen in Figure 2.
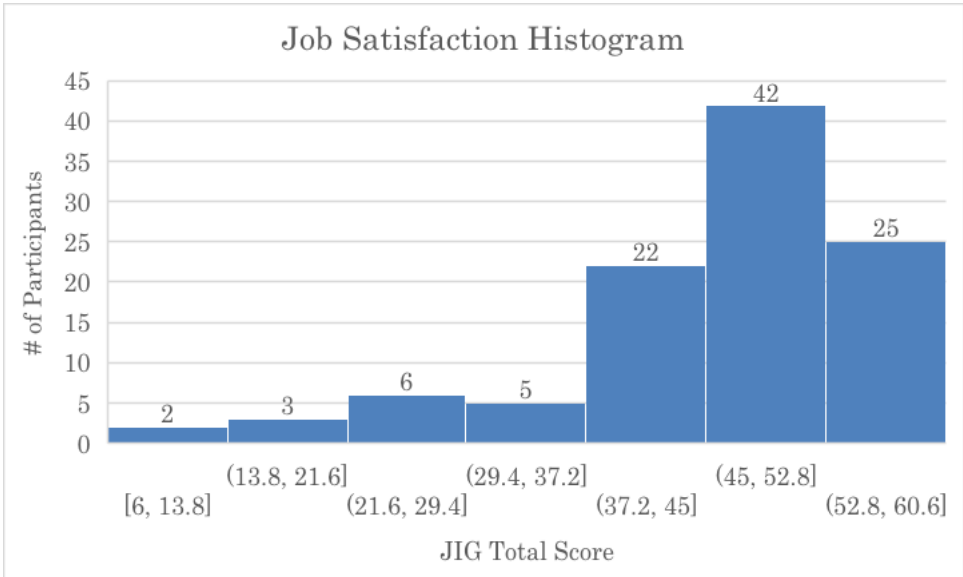
Figure 2. Histogram of the study participant responses to the Job in General scale.

The total job satisfaction score from the JIG scale for each participant is compared to norms of employees nationwide as a percentile based on the organization type with scores of "Well Below Average," "Below Average," "Average," "Above Average," and "Well Above Average," each representing 20% (Harwell, 2003; Smith et al., 2009). The Job in General scale's For-Profit norm values were used for this study since Corporation X is a publicly traded, for-profit corporation. Figure 3

shows a breakdown of this study's response rating scores from the JIG scale. 31 participants scored Well Above Average, which includes the 25 participants that reached the maximum score. The highest recurring rating was Above Average at 39%, which was scored by 41 of the 105 participants. Together, Well Above Average and Above Average represent 69%, or 72, of the JIG survey participants in this study. The least frequent rating for this study was Below Average which was represented by 8% survey participants.
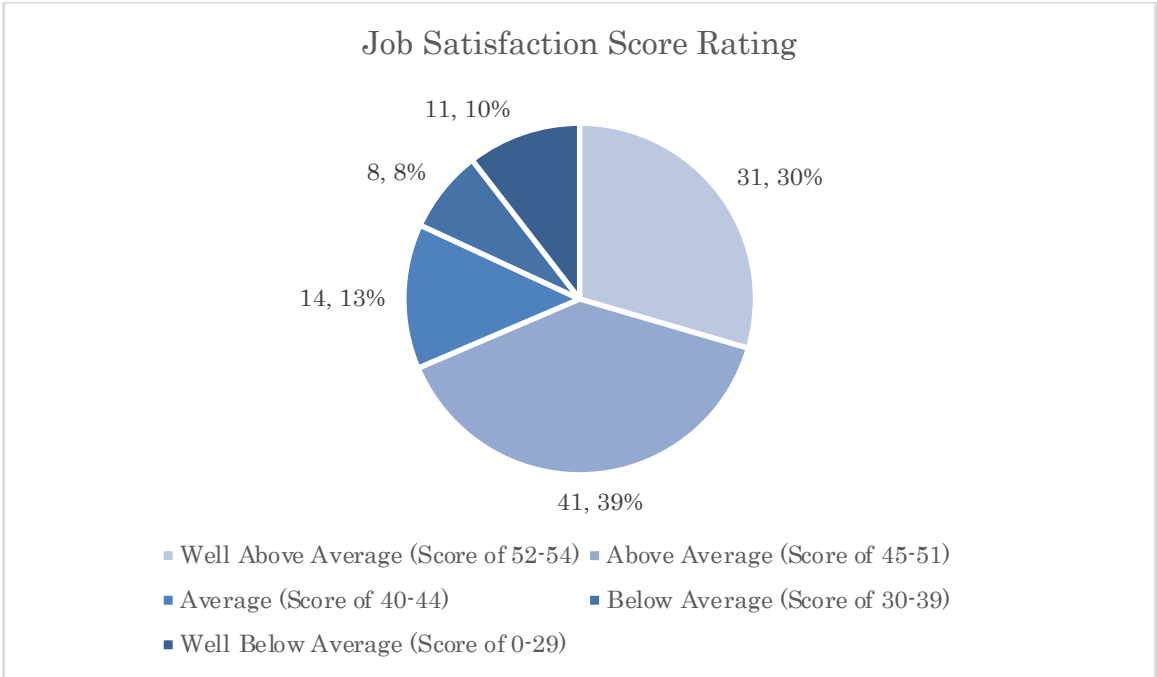
Figure 3. Score ratings of the study participant responses to the Job in General scale.

Work-Family Conflict Scale

The WFC scale was completed by all 105 respondents and descriptive statistics for all 18 items from the survey as well as a total achievement motivation score are provided in Table 5. The highest scored item was #5 which asked, "Due to

work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities" with

a mean score of 5.410 and standard deviation of 1.572. The lowest scored item with

a mean score of 4.610 and standard deviation of 1.618 was item #4 which asked,

"My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfill family duties".

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for the Work-Family Conflict Scale

Question	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
1	105	5.352	1.673	1	7
2	105	5.229	1.747	1	7
3	105	4.686	1.720	1	7
4	105	4.610	1.618	1	7
5	105	5.410	1.572	1	7
Total Score	105	25.2857	7.40876	6	35

The highest possible total score for each survey participant in the 5-question

Work-Family Conflict scale that was utilized in the study is 35 points and the

lowest possible score is five points. The highest work-life balance total score in this

study was 35 points and the lowest was 6, for a range of 29 points. The scores of 12

participants reached the maximum total score of 35. A breakdown of the

participant's total work-life balance scores can be seen in Figure 4.
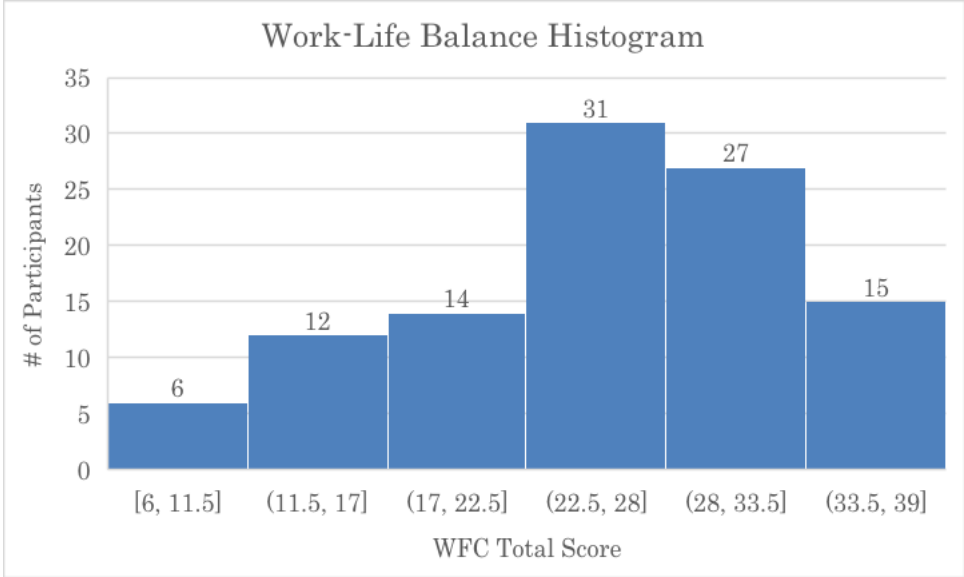
Figure 4. Histogram of the study participant responses to the Work-Family Conflict scale.

Results for RQ1

Research question one tested achievement motivation and job satisfaction via the AMI and JIG instruments. The analysis shows a Pearson correlation coefficient *r* of 0.3079, which indicates that there is a weak positive linear relationship between the two studied variables. The *p*-value of 0.0014 is less than the α of 0.05, which indicates that there is a statistically significant positive relationship between a salaried retail manager's level of achievement motivation and their level of job satisfaction, *r*(103) = -0.31, p < .05.
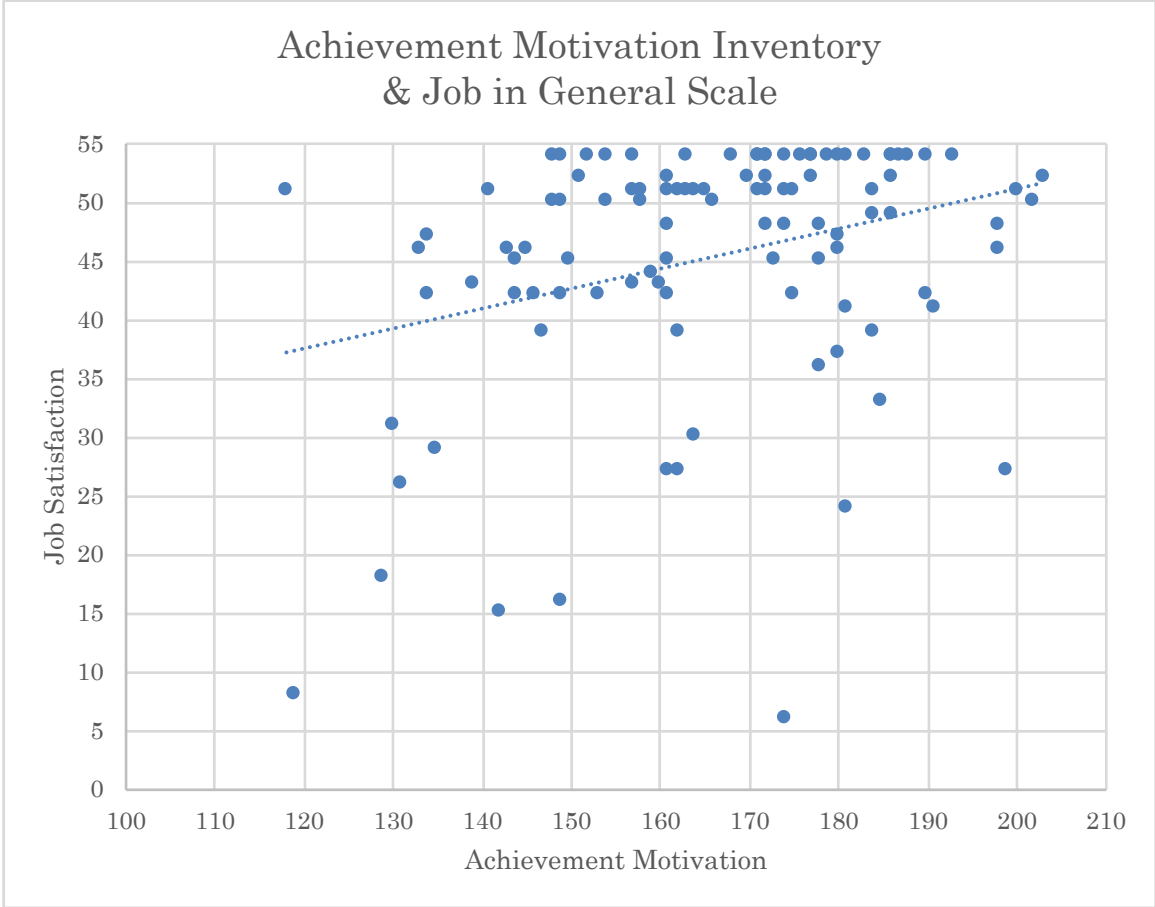
Figure 5. Scatter chart of the study participant responses to the Achievement Motivation Inventory and Job in General scale, with line of best fit.

Results for RQ2

Research question two tested achievement motivation and work-life balance via the AMI and WFC instruments. The analysis shows a Pearson correlation coefficient *r* of -0.0331, which indicates that there is little or no linear relationship between the two measured variables. The *p*-value of 0.7372 is greater than the α of 0.05, which indicates that there is not a statistically significant relationship between a salaried retail manager's level of achievement motivation and their level of perceived work-life balance, $r(103) = -0.03$, p > .05.

Figure 6. Scatter chart of the study participant responses to the Achievement Motivation Inventory and Work-Family Conflict scale, with line of best fit.

Results for RQ3

Research question three tested work-life balance and job satisfaction via the WFC and JIG instruments. The analysis shows a Pearson correlation coefficient r of -0.4399, which indicates that there is a moderate negative linear relationship between the two studied variables. The p-value of 2.6558 is greater than the α of 0.05, which indicates that there is not a statistically significant relationship between a salaried retail manager's level of perceived work-life balance and their level of job satisfaction, $r(103) = -0.44$, p > .05.

Figure 7. Scatter chart of the study participant responses to the Work-Family Conflict scale and Job in General scale, with line of best fit.

Summary

This chapter presented the statistical analysis of the survey results to address the research questions of the study. Research question one tested achievement motivation and job satisfaction via the AMI and JIG instruments. The analysis indicates that there is a weak positive linear relationship between the two studied variables and that it is a statistically significant relationship. Research question two tested achievement motivation and work-life balance via the AMI and WFC instruments. The analysis indicates that there is little or no linear relationship between the two measured variables, but it is not a statistically significant relationship. Research question three tested work-life balance and job satisfaction via the WFC and JIG instruments. The analysis indicates that there is

a moderate negative linear relationship between the two studied variables, but it is

not a statistically significant relationship.

Chapter 5: Discussion

Overview

The purpose of this study was to test Frederick Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory by comparing the achievement motivation, job satisfaction and work-life balance of salaried retail managers that work in stores for a large corporation. This chapter presents the discussion and findings of the survey results to address the three research questions from this study. The research questions studied were:

1. To what extent, if at all, is there a relationship between an individual's achievement motivation and job satisfaction?

2. To what extent, if at all, is there a relationship between an individual's achievement motivation and work-life balance?

3. To what extent, if at all, is there a relationship between an individual's job satisfaction and work-life balance?

Summary of Findings

Research question one tested achievement motivation and job satisfaction via the Achievement Motivation Inventory and Job in General scale. The analysis indicated that there is a weak positive linear relationship between the two studied variables. This relationship between a salaried retail manager's level of achievement motivation and their level of job satisfaction was found to be a statistically significant relationship. This was the only research question to feature a relationship between the studied variables that was statistically significant.

Research question two tested achievement motivation and work-life balance via the Achievement Motivation Inventory and Work-Family Conflict scale. The analysis indicated that there is little or no linear relationship between the two measured variables. The relationship between a salaried retail manager's level of achievement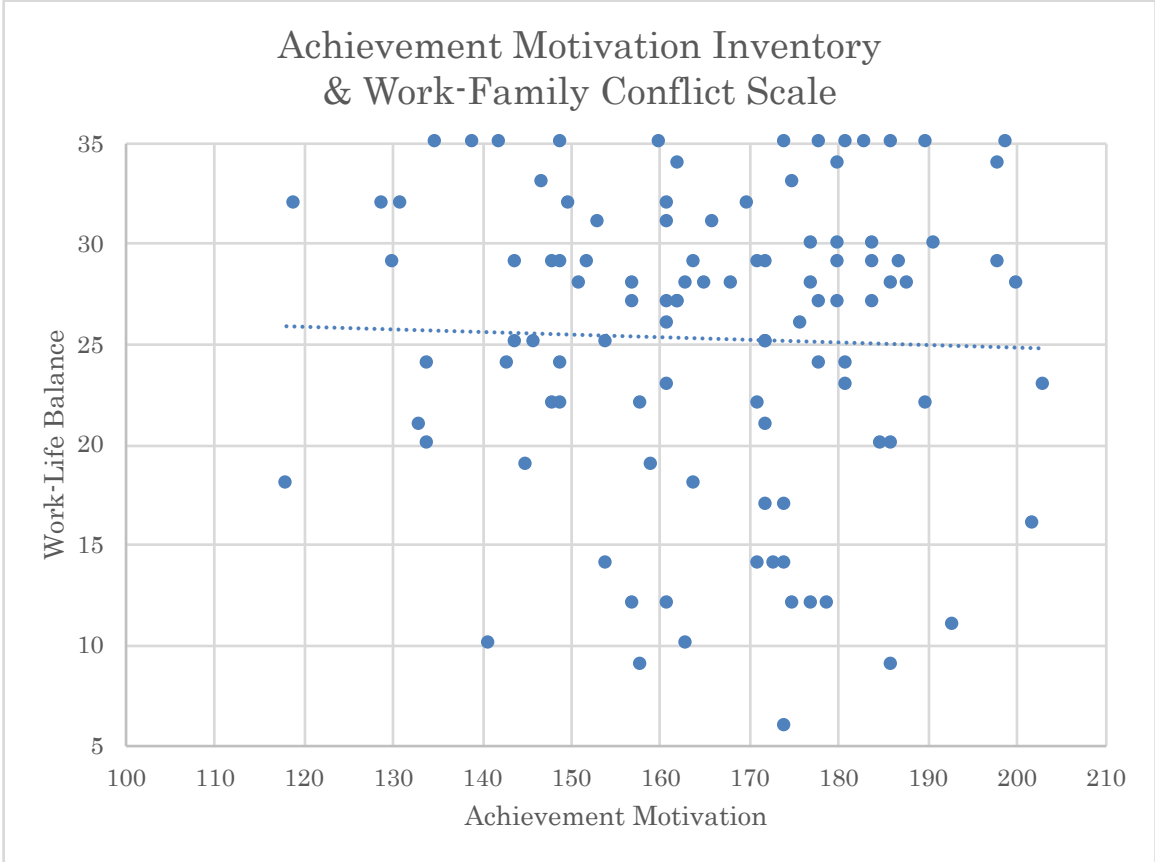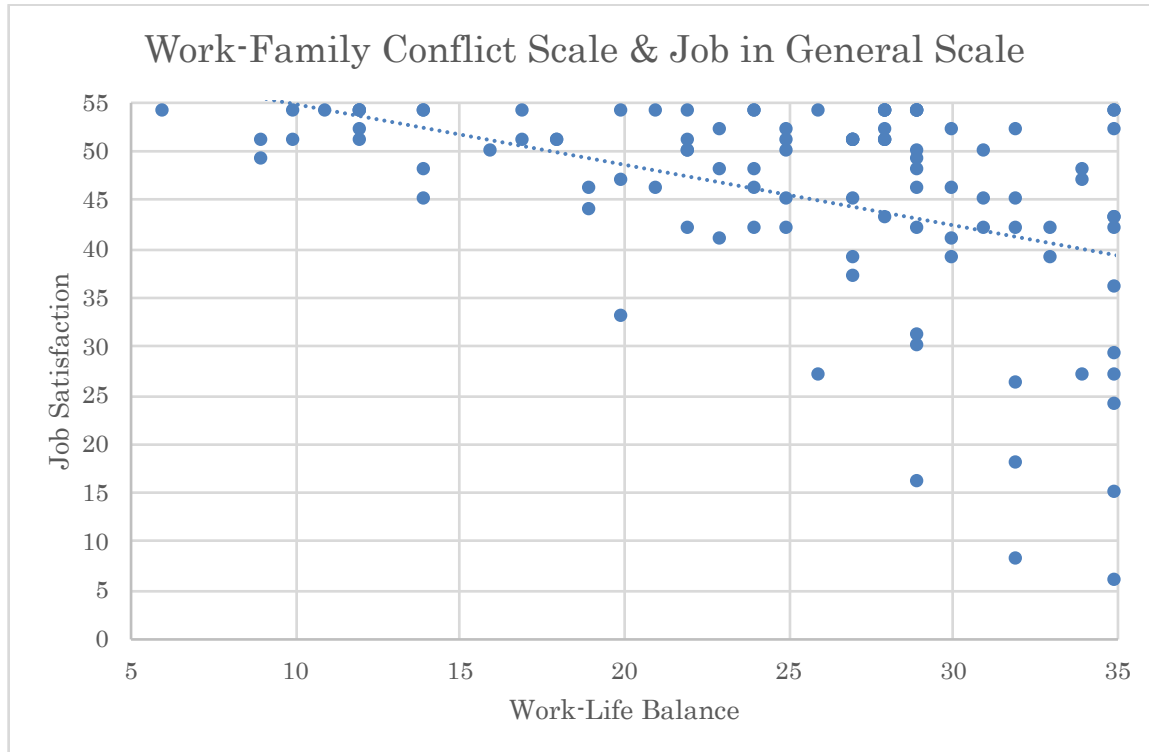 motivation and their level of perceived work-life balance was not found to be a statistically significant relationship.

Research question three tested work-life balance and job satisfaction via the Work-Family Conflict scale and Job in General scale. The analysis indicated that there is a moderate negative linear relationship between the two studied variables. The relationship between a salaried retail manager's level of perceived work-life balance and their level of job satisfaction was not found to be a statistically significant relationship.

Findings and Literature Review Analysis

The purpose of this study was to test Frederick Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory by comparing the achievement motivation, job satisfaction and work-life balance of salaried retail store managers that work for a large, publicly traded corporation. Research question one was the only research question to feature a relationship between the two studied variables that was found to be statistically significant. The study found that achievement motivation and job satisfaction have a statistically significant, positive linear relationship. While it may be a weak relationship based on the Pearson correlation coefficient, the relationship is statistically significant.

This relationship between achievement motivation and job satisfaction is supported by Herzberg's (1959) motivation-hygiene theory. Herzberg's theory explains that job satisfaction is caused by motivation factors, such as achievement (Herzberg, 2003). One of the best ways to motivate people is to provide enrichment via challenging them to satisfy their higher-level needs, which they can fulfill by achieving goals and accomplishments (Dessler, 2013). "Satisfaction derives from an activity which is perceived as intrinsically motivated because of a person's need to feel a sense of personal causation in his or her action" (Calder & Staw, 1975, p. 599). Job satisfaction represents the level to which employees feel that their organization satisfies their needs and wants, depending on the individual's motivation (Nohria et al., 2008). Job satisfaction includes the feelings that an employee experiences and the attitude in which they display in accordance with their career standing, work environment and job tasks.

The relationship between achievement motivation and job satisfaction is also supported by Victor Vroom's (1995) expectancy motivation theory which is based on the idea that generally people will not pursue rewards they find unattractive or unattainable. Vroom's theory explains that a person's motivation to exert energy is based on three variables: the person's expectancy that the effort will lead to performance; instrumentality, or the individual's perception that the successful performance will lead to procuring rewards; and valence, which is the value in which the individual attaches to the potential rewards (Dessler, 2013). "It is reasonable to assume that most of the behavior exhibited by individuals on their

jobs as well as their behavior in the 'job market' is voluntary, and consequently motivated" (Vroom, 1995, p. 10). Rewards aren't always external items, as Herzberg defines intrinsic rewards as a part of his motivation-hygiene theory. The satisfaction produced by accomplishing challenging tasks is a reward (Robbins & Judge, 2011).

Job satisfaction and organizational commitment have been linked to increased productivity and overall job performance (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Individuals who are not satisfied with their jobs often time participate in behaviors that would be considered to be unproductive and encourage others to act in a similar manner (Roznowski & Hulin, 1992). Those who are dissatisfied tend to avoid tasks, resist change, demonstrate an excessive amount of passive aggressive behaviors and create additional work for those around them, including supervisors, co-workers and subordinates (Mancini, 2008). This supports the relationship between achievement motivation and job satisfaction, as those with lower levels of achievement motivation may also have lower levels of job satisfaction.

This would indicate that the individuals who participated in this study who had low scores in achievement motivation and job satisfaction likely experience lower levels of organizational commitment, productivity and overall job performance when compared to the participants who scored higher in achievement motivation and job satisfaction. While the study did not consider factors, such as an individual's attendance, most recent performance evaluation or whether or not an individual has received performance management discussions or coaching from

their supervisor for poor performance, these items may have shown a relationship with an individual's level of job satisfaction.

While Corporation X strives to develop transformational leaders, the retail environment is largely dominated by transactional tasks, which provides on-going opportunities for managers with high levels of achievement motivation to accomplish assignments and goals. They are typically recognized by others for achieving those items and enjoy the intrinsic value associated with accomplishing the tasks, which leads to job satisfaction. This satisfaction derives from the intrinsic value that achievement provides, which is explained by Herzberg's (1959) theory.

Intrinsic motivation comes purely from within an individual, relative to a person's self-determination and influences their behaviors (Anderson et al., 2000; Cameron et al., 2003; Csikszentmihalyi, 1975). Individuals who are intrinsically motivated have the desire to work on something because it's interesting, involving, exciting, satisfying, personally challenging or for the sake of performing the activity itself (Abuhamdeh & Csikszentmihalyi, 2009; Cameron et al., 2003; Deci, 1972; Lepper et al., 1973; Robbins & Judge, 2011; White, 1959).

The internal need or desire to experience satisfaction is a very strong motivator and typically has a greater impact on the thoughts and actions of individuals than external motivators (Knowles et al., 2012). Individuals tend to be more intrinsically motivated with tasks or activities that they tend to perform well

at, as they experience satisfaction from the successful accomplishment of the tasks,

therefore feel a desire to continue (Calder & Staw, 1975).

Due to the cyclical nature of the retail environment, these salaried managers

who made up the population for this study are always working towards

accomplishing both short-term and long-term goals. This includes the opportunity

to leave each day with a list of accomplishments, but also the challenge of always

having a list of work not yet completed, since the work never ends no matter how

much gets completed in a day. While this could satisfy the needs of an individual

with high levels of achievement motivation and positively increase their level of job

satisfaction, it is possible that this could also lead them to have a negative

perception of their work-life balance since there are always tasks remaining to be

completed no matter how many hours the individual works or how much energy

they have exerted.

Within Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory, Herzberg believes that an

individual's satisfaction and dissatisfaction relate to both extrinsic and intrinsic

factors (Robbins & Judge, 2011). An employee's behavior has a direct relationship

with their attitude and Herzberg details that satisfaction and dis-satisfaction are

two separate, distinct scales. With his two-factor theory, Herzberg claimed there

are two sets of elements that contribute to a worker's attitude, which are motivators

and hygiene factors (Robbins & Judge, 2011). The factors encompassed in the

motivation group include: achievement, recognition, responsibility, possibility of

professional growth, opportunity for advancement, clarity of mission and the work

itself (Herzberg, 2003; Mancini, 2008; Robbins & Judge, 2011; Smerek & Peterson, 2007). The hygiene group entails: salary, interpersonal relationships with supervisors, interpersonal relationships with subordinates, interpersonal relationships with peers, technical supervision, company policies and administration, working conditions, factors in personal life, status, and job security (Herzberg, 2003; Robbins & Judge, 2011: Tietjen & Myers, 1998).

While this study found a statistically significant relationship between achievement motivation and job satisfaction, it did not find a statistically significant relationship between either of those variables and work-life balance. Herzberg's (2003) theory describes how job satisfaction is caused by motivation factors, such as achievement, supporting the relationship between achievement motivation and job satisfaction observed in this study. Herzberg's theory also describes how satisfaction and dissatisfaction are two different scales, which could support work-life balance as a hygiene factor or influenced by hygiene factors instead of, or more significantly than, motivation factors.

Motivation factors are intrinsic and only relate to satisfaction. Herzberg describes motivators as the factors in which create positive feelings and a good attitude, mainly task or job related. In Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory, the opposite of job satisfaction is not dissatisfaction; it's no satisfaction, when studying an individual's level as it pertains to motivation factors (Robbins & Judge, 2011). Hygiene factors create negative feelings and attitude or unhappiness, mainly caused by conditions not task-related, such as policies and organizational climate

(Tietjen & Myers, 1998). Hygiene factors are extrinsic and can create job

dissatisfaction. When measuring an individual's level of dissatisfaction of hygiene

factors, the opposite of dissatisfaction is not satisfaction; it's no dissatisfaction

(Robbins & Judge, 2011).

Prior to conducting this study and analyzing the results, the researcher

believed it was possible that work-life balance could be influenced by both

motivation and hygiene factors, as defined by Herzberg's theory. This belief was

based on company policies and supervisors determining an individual's schedule

and workload as hygiene factors, while an individual's involvement and desire to

achieve may contribute to their time and effort spent at work as motivation factors.

The researcher anticipated that an individual with high levels of achievement

motivation and job satisfaction would also experience a positive perception of their

work-life balance, which would have produced low scores on the Work-Family

Conflict scale that was utilized to measure perceived work-life balance for the

study.

The researcher hypothesized lower work-life balance scores due to the

explained correlation between job satisfaction and organizational commitment, as

well as the notion that an individual with higher levels of achievement motivation

would be willing to work harder, longer, as supported by Henry Murray and David

McClelland's theories on the need for achievement (Cigularov, 2008; McClelland,

1961; Murray & Harvard, 1938). This is also supported by Albert Bandura's theory

of self-efficacy, which explained that individuals with a higher self-efficacy are

motivated to exert more energy for a longer amount of time and persevere to accomplish goals (Grusec, 1992).

If an individual chose to work longer, harder and had high levels of organizational commitment, the researcher believed the study participants would view their perceived work-life balance more positively since they were receiving intrinsic rewards for doing so. While the high levels of achievement motivation and job satisfaction indicate that many participants are choosing to exert energy, they have the desire to do well and generally enjoy their jobs, the researcher anticipates that other factors could be negatively impacting the perceived work-life balance of many participants. For example, it is possible that many of the study participants are choosing to exert high levels of energy and are satisfied with their jobs for the both the intrinsic rewards of achievement and extrinsic rewards, such as pay, making the job worth being committed to, while still understanding that they are potentially making extreme sacrifices on their personal lives. This could be due to a variety of factors, such as the individual enjoying the job so much that they accept that there are personal sacrifices or because it is the best job for they could obtain for the money.

This could be considered as a limitation to this study, as the Work-Family Conflict scale measured the perceived impact that work has on an individual's personal life and family responsibilities but did not collect data regarding whether the participants perceived that the sacrifices were worth it or not. High levels of job satisfaction could indicate that most of the study participants are not disengaged by

the work-life balance. However, it is possible that other factors, such as competitive wages could be the reason why participants remain committed to their jobs, especially when correlated to levels of education or compared to other job options in their communities. When considering this, if there is a correlation between pay and perceived work-life balance, it is possible that the lowest scores for work-life balance were the store managers who chose to participate in the study, as their annual pay can be in excess of $200,000. This relationship may or may not exist, while higher salaries or wages can alleviate some stress associated with family life priorities, such as paying bills, it only impacts the perception of work-life balance, as it typically doesn't directly correlate with better hours or additional benefits. Individuals who work in well-compensated management positions are more likely than others to experience conflict based on having to make difficult decisions to sacrifice elements of their career or personal life (Gregory & Milner, 2009; Guest, 2000; Mangels, 2008).

If a relationship did exist between pay and work-life balance, it could reinforce the idea that work-life balance is influenced by Herzberg's (2003) hygiene factors. This would indicate that work-life balance could have a relationship with dissatisfaction since this study did not find a relationship between work-life balance and job satisfaction, as satisfaction and dissatisfaction are separate scales. This would be supported by Herzberg's classification of an individual's personal life and salary as hygiene factors (Smerek & Peterson, 2007).

The researcher believes that the demanding schedules of the salaried retail managers who participated in this study are a primary reason why the work-life balance scores from the WFC scale were high. The researcher anticipates that the relationships, or lack thereof, work-life balance has with achievement motivation and job satisfaction would look different in non-retail, professional environments with more typical employee schedules if the achievement motivation and job satisfaction scores were similar. From an hours standpoint, most salaried retail managers at Corporation X are scheduled 50 hours per week, which tends to be the minimum number of hours they work since the workload demands often lead them to either choose to stay longer or feel obligated to work more to complete workload priorities.

The number of hours an individual works is a commonly discussed element of work-life balance and can influence an individual's perception of their work-life balance (Pearson, 2015). Role theory describes how individuals can hold multiple roles and that by increasing the demands of an individual's time and energy it can make it difficult for them to successfully perform multiple roles (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964). The personal conflict created by working long hours can negatively impact both the work and family domains of the managers in this study.

In addition to working 10+ hours per workday, the retail managers in this study usually work random, demanding schedules consisting of early mornings, evenings, overnights and weekends. Most of them typically have one full weekend

off per month, but don't usually have two days off in a row. These managers often

times work six to seven days per week, based on inventory, holidays, staffing

shortages, during the fourth quarter, remodels, and most typically to keep up with

the heavy workload they are responsible for.

Individuals who work evenings, nights, atypical or random schedules often

face increased difficulties when trying to balance family obligations and work

commitments, which causes tension between work and personal life (Bell & Bryson,

2005; Pearson, 2015). This type of schedule can make work-life balance difficult

since most non-working activities, such as sports, church, family functions and

other extra-curricular activities are typically scheduled on weeknights and

weekends to accommodate their work schedule (Pearson, 2015). In addition, most

medical, dental, financial, repair and other services operate with the assumption

that someone is available during the workday to take care of appointments and

errands (Bailyn et al., 2001; Clark, 2001; Parsons & Bales, 1955).

The researcher's belief that the demanding schedules of the managers who

participated in this study are a primary reason why the work-life balance scores

from the WFC scale were high is supported by Hobfoll's (1989) model of

conservation of resources. "The model's basic tenet is that people strive to retain,

protect, and build resources and that what is threatening to them is the potential or

actual loss of these valued resources" (Hobfoll, 1989, p. 516). Resources can consist

objects, conditions, personal characteristics and energies. Resources are important

since they have both instrumental value and symbolic value, as they define who

people are. Time, money and knowledge are all considered to be energies. The

model describes how environmental circumstances threaten or cause a reduction of

people's resources, leading to stress (Hobfoll, 1989). By working long hours and

random shifts, it is possible that salaried retail managers reach a point where they

are no longer gaining resources, such as additional pay, a promotional opportunity

or knowledge, for working longer or harder. Therefore, they could experience loss,

specifically based on the time energy but also based on the personal experiences

they could be missing. Even without experiencing perceived or actual loss, the lack

of gain could produce the stress or same feeling as loss.

　　Corporation X does offer a wide variety of benefits and programs to support

work-life balance, but the researcher anticipates that they are not being fully

utilized by the retail managers in this study. One example of this would be the

company's time off program where tenured salaried managers can accrue as much

as 41 days of paid time off per year but are often times not supported to use this

time off due to the demands of the business and they lose the time at the end of the

year if it is not used. If this happened to them, this could lead the managers in this

study to have a negative perception of their work-life balance. This could be further

accentuated if their manager or peers were able and supported in taking time off

without conflict. The researcher anticipates that while the organization supports

the work-life balance programs and policies it has implemented, managers in the

field feel pressured not to use them. Inconsistencies in administering policies and

programs may also lead to discontentment, for example Corporation X does pay hourly employees for any unused paid time off at the end of each year.

This would be supported by the literature, which states that the positive impacts of work-life balance initiatives can only be realized if the employees are aware of the benefits and feel supported by the organization's culture and by their manager to use the benefits (Beauregard, 2014; Eaton, 2003; Ryan & Kossek, 2008). If employees are not supported to use the benefits provided it may even lead to increased dissatisfaction and lower engagement compared to if the benefits were not provided to employees due to the false nature in which they exist in an unsupportive culture (Beauregard, 2014).

This study only reviewed variables for correlation and not causation, as many factors could contribute to impacting the studied variables. In reviewing the results, it appears that the need for infavoidance, specifically the desire to avoid humiliation and embarrassment could be a significant factor contributing to the reported achievement motivation scores. Compensatory Effort was the third highest rated dimension of achievement motivation with an average score of 5.876. Out of the 14 dimensions making up the total achievement motivation score, only Goal Setting and Pride in Productivity scored higher. The Achievement Motivation Inventory survey manual defines Compensatory Effort as, "A willingness to expend extra effort in order to avoid failing at a work task, even if this effort results in over-preparation. A constructive reaction to the possibility of failure" (Schuler et al., 2004, p. 21).

It is possible that the nature of the job as a retail manager could heighten this sense of infavoidance, as multiple factors could lead to failure and embarrassment daily. Items that could contribute to this include the multitude of tasks and demands that must be completed, the large number of employees who report the managers who could be witnesses to the manager's failures and the store customers who represent the general public and could talk about what they witness in the store, especially something involving a manager. The increased use of social media, especially with the increased use of video media recordings, could also increase this fear.

The need to avoid failure and embarrassment could also be amplified due to the number of managers who work in each store and are naturally going to be compared to each other, even though Competitiveness ranked 12 out of 14 dimensions on the AMI in this study with an average score of 5.324. Henry Murray and David McClelland both theorize that the need for infavoidance relates to achievement motivation (Cigularov, 2008; Murray & Harvard, 1938; Robbins & Judge, 2011). This is also supported by B. F. Skinner's work with behavior modification which focused on changing behaviors by providing rewards or punishment based on performance due to the belief that consequences affect behavior (Dessler, 2013).

Implications for Practice

This study may prove to be useful by Corporation X and other organizations that want to efficiently motivate their employees to seek achievement and

contribute to improved job satisfaction and work-life balance. The results of this study may also help corporations identify talent to hire or promote by assessing specific characteristics of achievement motivation or determine the overall level of achievement motivation of candidates to understand if the candidate would be fit for the organization or position. For example, due to the relationship between achievement motivation and job satisfaction found in this study, Corporation X could screen external candidates or current hourly employees by testing their level of achievement motivation to estimate if they would experience job satisfaction as a salaried manager.

In addition, this study may also inspire organizations to review the current policies and programs they have in place that may impact work-life balance to determine if they could benefit from changing their current policies and programs or adopting new initiatives. Corporation X and other retailers with similar demands and hours may not be able to completely satisfy all employees work-life balance desires, but they could utilize the information from this study to determine which elements they could impact. For example, Corporation X already has programs in place that aren't being fully utilized, such as paid time off, which managers could make an effort to support better, which could result in a positive impact to the work-life balance perceived by their teams.

Recommendations for Research

Further research could be conducted on the variables from this study but utilize different instruments to measure the variables. It is possible that

instruments exist that could more accurately measure the variables or provide additional insights. Qualitative information could be collected instead of or in addition to quantitative data in order to reinforce whether relationships between the variables exist or to help determine causation.

More robust instruments could be used or expanded versions of the instruments used in this study could provide additional data. For example, the full 170-question Achievement Motivation Inventory could be used to measure achievement motivation and it's 17 dimensions to provide further detailed insights. The Job Descriptive Index could be used in its entirety, rather than just the Job in General scale for job satisfaction. For perceived work-life balance, the five question Work-Family Conflict scale only measured a specific viewpoint of work-life balance and it's possible that it doesn't accurately represent an individual's perceived work-life balance. Further research could use the Family-Work Conflict scale in addition to the Work-Family Conflict scale to capture a more holistic understanding of work-life balance.

Further research could consider collecting additional information, such as salary, position level, tenure, age, gender, education, experience, performance or geographical location. This information could be used to deduct further correlations, such as studying if there is a correlation between pay and perceived work-life balance. Position level and store location could be utilized to see if there were trends in the variable relationships based on who an individual works with or who they report to, as this could test if the achievement motivation, job satisfaction

or work-life balance of one individual has a relationship with or is influenced by the variable responses of another individual.

Summary

This chapter presented the discussion and findings of the survey results to address the three research questions from this study. Research question one tested achievement motivation and job satisfaction via the Achievement Motivation Inventory and Job in General scale. The analysis indicated that there is a weak positive linear relationship between the two studied variables. This relationship between a salaried retail manager's level of achievement motivation and their level of job satisfaction was found to be a statistically significant relationship. This was the only research question to feature a relationship between the studied variables that was statistically significant.

The purpose of this study was to test Frederick Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory by comparing the achievement motivation, job satisfaction and work-life balance of salaried retail managers that work in stores for a large corporation. There were findings that support Herzberg's theory, such as the relationship between achievement motivation and job satisfaction. The findings could support the idea that it is possible that work-life balance could have a relationship with dissatisfaction, rather than satisfaction. Further research could be conducted to further provide insights on the relationships between the studied variables within retail environments and in general.

REFERENCES

Abuhamdeh, S., & Csikszentmihalyi, M. (2009). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivational

orientations in the competitive context: an examination of person-situation

interactions. *Journal of Personality*, *77*(5), 1615-35.

https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6494.2009.00594.x

Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective,

continuance and normative commitment to the organization. *Journal of*

Occupational Psychology, 63(1). https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-

8325.1990.tb00506.x

Amabile, T. M., Hill, K. G., Hennessey, B. A., & Tighe, E. M. (1994). The Work

Preference Inventory: assessing intrinsic and extrinsic motivational

orientations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 66*(5), 950-67.

https://doi.org/10.1037//0022-3514.66.5.950

Anderson, S. M., Chen, S., & Carter, C. (2000). Fundamental human needs: Making

social cognitions relevant. *Psychological Inquiry*, *11*(4), 269–318. Retrieved

from http://www.jstor.org/stable/1449619

Atkinson, J.W. (1957). Motivational determinants of risk-taking behavior.

Psychological Review, *64*, 359-372. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0043445

Bailyn, L. (1997). The impact of corporate culture on work-family integration. In S.

Parasuraman & J. H. Greenhaus (Eds.), *Integrating work and family:*

Challenges and choices for a changing world (pp. 209–219). Westport, CT:

Quorum Books. https://doi.org/10.2307/353550

Bailyn, L., Drago, R. W., & Kochan, T. A. (2001). *Integrating work and family life: A holistic approach: A report of the Sloan work-family policy network*. Cambridge, MA: MIT, Sloan School of Management. Retrieved from http://web.mit.edu/workplacecenter/docs/WorkFamily.pdf

Bandura, A. (2006). Autobiography. In M. G. Lindzey, & W. M. Runyam (Eds.), *A history of psychology in autobiography* (pp. 42-75). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association. Retrieved from http://www.uky.edu/~eushe2/Bandura/BanduraAutobiography2007.html

Banks, S., & Dinges, D. F. (2007). Behavioral and physiological consequences of sleep restriction. *Journal of Clinical Sleep Medicine, 3*(5), 519–528. Retrieved from http://jcsm.aasm.org/Articles/030513.pdf

Baruch, Y. (2006). Career development in organizations and beyond: Balancing traditional and contemporary viewpoints. *Human Resource Management Review, 16*(2), 125-138. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2006.03.002

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1994). Transformational leadership and organizational culture. *International Journal of Public Administration, 17,* 541. https://doi.org/10.1080/01900699408524907

Bass, B. M., Avolio, B. J., Jung, D. I., & Berson, Y. (2003). Predicting unit performance by assessing transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88,* 207-218. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.2.207

Beauregard, T. A. (2014). Fairness perceptions of work–life balance initiatives: effects on counterproductive work behaviour. *British Journal of Management, 25*(4), 772-789. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8551.12052

Beauregard, T. A. & Henry, L. C. (2009). Making the link between work–life balance practices and organizational performance. *Human Resource Management* Review, *19*, 9–22. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2008.09.001

Bell, A., & Bryson, C. (2005). Work-life balance – Still a 'women's issue'?. *British Social Attitudes, 22*(33), 33-63. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781849208673.n2

Bénabou, R., & Tirole, J. (2003). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. *The Review of Economic Studies, 70*(3), 489-520. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781849208673.n2

Berwitz, C. J. (1960). Beyond Motivation. *Harvard Business Review, 38*(3), 123-125.

Bohen & Viveros-Long (1981). *Balancing jobs and family life: Do flexible schedules help?* Philadelphia, PA: Temple Univ. Press.

Brief, A., & Nord, W. F. (1990). *Meanings of occupational work.* Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Brown, R. B., & Brooks, I. (2002). Emotion at work: Identifying the emotional climate of night nursing. *Journal of Management in Medicine, 16*, 327–344. https://doi.org/10.1108/02689230210446517

Burke, R. J. (1988). Some antecedents and consequences of work-family conflict. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality, 3*, 287-302. Retrieved from https://search.proquest.com/openview/d42560aace85b74cbdb192d66cd3de87/1?pq-origsite=gscholar&cbl=1819046

Calder, B. J., & Staw, B. M. (January 01, 1975). Self-perception of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 31*(4), 599-605. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0077100

Cameron, K. S., Dutton, J. E., & Quinn, R. E. (2003). *Positive organizational scholarship: Foundations of a new discipline*. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler.

Cashman, K. (2008). *Leadership from the inside out: Becoming a leader for life*. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Cassidy, T., & Lynn, R. (1989). A multifactorial approach to achievement motivation: The development of a comprehensive measure. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 62*(4), 301-312. Retrieved from http://psycnet.apa.org/record/1990-11259-001

Caudron, S. (1997). Love vs. work (cover story). Workforce (10928332), 76(9), 66. Retrieved from Business Source Premier database: https://www.ebscohost.com/

Chen, L. (2005). *Exploring the relationship among transformational and transactional leadership behavior, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover on the IT department of research and development in shanghai, china* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses. (Order No. 3169070)

Cigularov, K. P. (2008). *Achievement motivation in bulgaria and the united states: A cross-country comparison.* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses. (Order No. 3346440)

Clark, S. C. (2000). Work/family border theory: A new theory of work/family balance. *Human Relations, 53*(6), 747-770. https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726700536001

Clark, S. C. (2001). Work cultures and work/family balance. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 58*(3), 348-65. https://doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.2000.1759

Costa Jr, P. T., & McCrae, R. R. (1992). *Neo personality inventory–revised (neo-pi-r) and neo five-factor inventory (neo-ffi) professional manual.* Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.

Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches.* Los Angeles, CA: Sage.

Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1975). *Beyond boredom and anxiety.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1997). *Finding flow: The psychology of engagement with everyday life.* Basic Books.

Deci, E. L. (1972). Intrinsic motivation, extrinsic reinforcement, and inequity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 22*(1), 113. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0032355

Dessler, G. (2013). *Human Resource Management.* Boston, MA: Prentice Hall.

Donnelly, J. H., Gibson, J. L., Ivancevich, J. M., & Konopaske, R. (2003). *Organizations: Behavior, structure, processes*. Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.

Eaton, S. C. (2003). If you can use them: Flexibility policies, organizational commitment, and perceived performance. *Industrial Relations, 42*, 145–167. https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.266687

Elizur, D., Sagie, A., & Yamauchi, H. (1996). The structure and strength of achievement motivation: A cross-cultural comparison. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 17*(5), 431-444. https://doi.org/10.1002/(sici)1099-1379(199609)17:5<431::aid-job771>3.3.co;2-o

Flynn, G. (1997). Making a business case for balance. *Workforce, 76*(3), 68–74. Retrieved from http://web.b.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail/detail?vid=1&sid=420c04a8-8d61-4b42-89b5-b25fdb4f1aa0%40pdc-v-sessmgr01&bdata=JnNpdGU9ZWhvc3QtbGl2ZSZzY29wZT1zaXRl#AN=9710165259&db=a9h

Fullerton, H. N. (1995). The 2005 labor force: Growing, but slowly. *Monthly Labor Review, 118*(11), 29–44. Retrived from https://heinonline.org/HOL/LandingPage?handle=hein.journals/month118&div=131&id=&page=

Galinsky, E., & Stein, P. J. (1990). The impact of human resource policies on employees: Balancing work/family life. *Journal of Family Issues*, *8*, 368–383. https://doi.org/10.1177/019251390011004002

Goleman, D. (1998). *Working with Emotional Intelligence*. New York, NY: Bantam Books.

Gray, M. and Tudball, J. (2003). Family-friendly work practices: differences within and between workplaces. *Journal of Industrial Relations*, *45*(3), 269–91. https://doi.org/10.1111/1472-9296.00084

Green, J. A. (2010). *Survey of senior level management in medium size organizations concerning work-life balance components* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses. (Order No. 3412441)

Greenhaus, J. H., & Beutell, N. J. (1985). Sources of conflict between work and family roles. *Academy of Management Review*, *10*, 76-88. https://doi.org/10.2307/258214

Gregory, A., & Milner, S. (2009). Editorial: Work–life balance: A matter of choice? *Gender, Work & Organization*, *16*(1), 1-13. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-0432.2008.00429.x

Grusec, J. E. (1992). Social learning theory and developmental psychology: The legacies of Robert Sears and Albert Bandura. *Developmental Psychology, 28*(5), 776-86. https://doi.org/10.1037//0012-1649.28.5.776

Guest, D. E. (2002). Perspectives on the study of work-life balance. *Social Science Information, 41*, 255-279. https://doi.org/10.1177/0539018402041002005

Haar, J. and Spell, C.S. (2003). Where is the justice? Examining work–family backlash in New Zealand: The potential for employee resentment. *New Zealand Journal of Industrial Relations, 28*(1), 59–75. Retrieved from https://search.proquest.com/openview/3866eadf92d1bbfcd926648afbee3a62/1?pq-origsite=gscholar&cbl=51645

Hallett, T. (2003). Emotional feedback and amplification in social interaction. *Sociological Quarterly, 44*, 705–726. https://doi.org/10.1525/tsq.2003.44.4.705

Harwell, M. R. (2003). Review of the Job Descriptive Index. In Blake, Impara & Spies (Eds.), *The fifteenth mental measurements yearbook* (pp. 490-492). Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press.

Haudan, J. (2008). *The art of engagement: Bridging the gap between people and possibilities*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Heggestad, E. D., & Kanfer, R. (2000). Individual Differences in Trait Motivation: Development of the Motivational Trait Questionnaire. *International Journal of Educational Research, 33*, 751-76. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0883-0355(00)00049-5

Herzberg, F. (1959). *The motivation to work*. New York, NY: Wiley.

Herzberg F. (2003). One more time: How do you motivate employees? *Harvard Business Review, 81*(1), 87-96. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-349-02701-9_2

Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing

stress. *The American Psychologist, 44*(3), 513–524.

https://doi.org/10.1037//0003-066x.44.3.513

Hough, L. M. (1992). The 'big five' personality variables--construct confusion:

Description versus prediction. *Human Performance, 5*(1-2), 139-155.

https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327043hup0501&2_8

Humphries, J. D. (2009). Workplace debt: sleep loss. *Creative Nursing, 15*, 23–27.

https://doi.org/10.1891/1078-4535.15.1.23

Ironson, G. H., Smith, P. C., Brannick, M. T., Gibson, W. M., & Paul, K. B. (1989).

Construction of a Job in General scale: A comparison of global, composite,

and specific measures. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 74*, 193-200.

https://doi.org/10.1037//0021-9010.74.2.193

Kahn, R. L., Wolfe, D. M., Quinn, R. P., Snoek, J. D., & Rosenthal, R. A. (1964).

Organizational stress: Studies in role conflict and ambiguity. Oxford,

England: John Wiley.

Kingston, P. W. (1990). Illusions and ignorance about the family responsive

workplace. *Journal of Family Issues, 11*, 438–454.

https://doi.org/10.1177/019251390011004006

Knowles, M. S., Holton, I. I. I. E. F., & Swanson, R. A. (2012). *The adult learner:

The definitive classic in adult education and human resource development.*

New York, NY: Routledge.

Koertge, N., & American Council of Learned Societies. (2008). *New dictionary of scientific biography*. Detroit, MI: Charles Scribner's Sons/Thomson Gale.

König, S.; Langhauser, M.; and Cesinger, B. (2012). Subjective success in an entrepreneurial career – the case of work-life balance: Results from a large scale survey in Germany. *Frontiers of Entrepreneurship Research*, *32*(5), 12. Retrieved from http://www-1v2.rz.uni-mannheim.de/vortrag/babson_fullpaper.pdf

Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (2003). *Credibility: How leaders gain it and lose it, why people demand it*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Lepper, M. R., Greene, D., & Nisbett, R. E. (1973). Undermining children's intrinsic interest with extrinsic rewards: A test of the "overjustification" hypothesis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *28*, 129–137. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0035519

Locke, E. A., & Latham, G. P. (1990). *A theory of goal setting and task performance*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Mancini, B. A. (2008). *The relationship of transformational and transactional leadership to job satisfaction and organizational commitment within for-profit organizations on Long Island, New York* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses. (Order No. 3312894)

Mangels, S. E. (2008). *Does balance matter? the relationship between work-life balance and success for women college presidents* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses. (Order No. 3316751)

Marks, S. R., & MacDermid, S. M. (1996). Multiple roles and the self: A theory of role balance. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 58*(2), 417-432. https://doi.org/10.2307/353506

Maslow, A. H. (1970). *Motivation and personality.* New York, NY: Harper & Row.

Mastri, A. I. (2007). *The effect of work/life balance policies on employee retention and profitability* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses. (Order No. 3267577)

McLelland, D. C. (1953). *The achievement motive.* New York, NY: Appleton-Century-Crofts.

McClelland, D. C. (1961). *The achieving society.* Princeton, NJ: Van Nostrand.

McDonald, P., Brown, K. and Bradley, L. (2005) Explanations for the provision-utilisation gap in work–life policy. *Women in Management Review, 20*(1), 37–55. https://doi.org/10.1108/09649420510579568

Mendenhall, W., & Sincich, T. (2003). *A Second Course in Statistics Regression Analysis* (6th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson Education, Inc.

Mortimer, J. T., Lorence, J., & Kumka, D. S. (1986). *Work, family, and personality: Transition to adulthood.* Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Mukhtar, F. (2012). *Work life balance and job satisfaction among faculty at Iowa State University* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses. (Order No. 3548417)

Murray, H. A., & Harvard University. (1938). *Explorations in personality: A clinical and experimental study of fifty men of college age*. New York, NY: Oxford university press.

Muse, L., S. G. Harris, W. F. Giles and H. S. Feild (2008). Work–life benefits and positive organizational behavior: is there a connection?. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *29*, 171–192. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.506

Myers, M. S. (1991). Conditions for manager motivation. *Harvard Business Review*, *69*(6), 159-159.

Nakata, A. (2011). Effects of long work hours and poor sleep characteristics on workplace injury among full-time male employees of small- and medium-scale businesses. *Journal of Sleep Research*, *20*, 576–584. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2869.2011.00910.x

Netemeyer, R.G., Boles, J.S., & McMurrian, R. (1996). Development and validation of Work-Family Conflict scales. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *81*, 400-410. https://doi.org/10.1037//0021-9010.81.4.400

Nicholson, N. (2003). How to motivate your problem people. *Harvard Business Review*, *81*(1), 56-65.

Nohria, N., Groysberg, B., & Lee, L. E. (2008). Employee motivation. *Harvard Business Review*, *86*(7-8), 78-84.

Northouse, P. G. (2010). *Leadership: Theory and practice*. Los Angeles, CA: SAGE.

Overbaugh, J. (2011). 24/7 isn't the only way: A healthy work-life balance can enhance research. *Nature*, *477*(7362), 27-28. Retrieved from

http://web.b.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?vid=1&sid=b01885fe-e488-479e-bbf6-85f96f2c8c4c%40pdc-v-sessmgr01

Oyane, N. M. F., Pallesen, S., Moen, B. E., Åkerstedt, T., & Bjorvatn, B. (2013). Associations between night work and anxiety, depression, insomnia, sleepiness and fatigue in a sample of Norwegian nurses. *PloS ONE, 8*, 1–7. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0070228

Parker, S. K., Wall, T. D., & Jackson, P. R. (1997). That's not my job: Developing flexible employee work orientations. *Academy of Management Journal, 40*, 899–929. https://doi.org/10.5465/256952

Parsons, T., & Bales, R. F. (1955). *Family, socialization, and interaction process.* Glencoe, IL: Free Press.

Pearson, C. J. (2015). Achieving a Work-Life Balance. *Reference Librarian, 56*(1), 78-82. https://doi.org/10.1080/02763877.2015.970492

Perrons, D. (2003). The New Economy and the Work-Life Balance: Conceptual Explorations and a Case Study of New Media. *Gender, Work & Organization, 10*(1), 65-93. https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-0432.00004

Pintrich, P. R., & Schunk, D. H. (1996). *Motivation in education: Theory, research, and applications.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Pocock, B. (2005). Work-life 'balance' in Australia: limited progress, dim prospects'. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources, 43*(2), 198-209. https://doi.org/10.1177/1038411105055058

Polach, J. L. (2004). Understanding the experience of college graduates during their

first year of employment. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *15*(1), 5-23. https://doi.org/10.1002/hrdq.1084

Rallis, S. F., & Rossman, G. B. (2012). *The Research Journey: Introduction to inquiry*. New York, NY: The Guilford Press.

Regan, E. (1994). Beware the work/family culture shock. *Personnel Journal, 73*, 35–36.

Repetti, R. L. (1987). Individual and common components of the social environment. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *52*, 710–720. https://doi.org/10.1037//0022-3514.52.4.710

Robbins, S., & Judge, T. (2011). *Organizational behavior* (14th ed.). Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Rodgers, F. S., & Rodgers, C. (1989). Business and the facts of family life. *Harvard Business Review*, *89*, 121–129.

Ronen, S. (1984). *Alternative work schedules: Selecting, implementing, and evaluating*. Homewood, IL: Dow Jones–Irwin.

Roznowski, M., & Hulin, C. (1992). The scientific merit of valid measures of general constructs with special reference to job satisfaction and job withdrawal. *Job satisfaction: How people feel about their jobs and how it affects their performance*, 123-163.

Ryan, A. M. and Kossek, E. E. (2008). Work–life policy implementation: breaking down or creating barriers to inclusiveness?. *Human Resource Management*, *47*, 295–310. https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.20213

Schneider, B., Reichers, A. E., & Mitchell, T. M. (1982). A note on some

   relationships between the aptitude required and reward attributes of tasks.

   Academy of Management Journal, 25, 567–574.

   https://doi.org/10.2307/256080

Schuler, H., Thornton, G., Frintrup, A., & Mueller-Hanson, R. (2004). *Achievement*

   Motivation Inventory. Gottingen, Germany: Hogrefe.

Scott, K. L., Shaw, J. D., & Duffy, M. K. (2008). Merit pay raises and organization-

   based self-esteem. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 29*(7), 967-980.

   https://doi.org/10.1002/job.539

Senge, P. M. (2006). *The fifth discipline: The art and practice of the learning*

   organization. New York, NY: Doubleday/Currency.

Smerek, R. E., & Peterson, M. (2007). Examining Herzberg's theory: Improving job

   satisfaction among non-academic employees at a university. *Research in*

   Higher Education: Journal of the Association for Institutional Research, 48(2)

   229-250. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11162-006-9042-3

Smith, P. C., Kendall, L. M., Hulin, C. L., Balzer, W. K., Kihm, J. A., Irwin, J. L., &

   … Parra, L. (2009). *Job Descriptive Index (2009 Revision) and The Job in*

   General Scales (2009 Revision). Bowling Green, OH: Bowling Green State

   University.

Solomon, C. M. (1996). Flexibility comes out of flux. *Personnel Journal, 75*, 34–43.

   Retrieved from

   http://web.a.ebscohost.com.lib.pepperdine.edu/ehost/detail/detail?vid=1&sid=

756ad8f9-6c31-44c3-a0d1-

c4533b7e9814%40sessionmgr4007&bdata=JnNpdGU9ZWhvc3QtbGl2ZSZzY2

9wZT1zaXRl#AN=9606155241&db=mth

Spence, J. T., & Helmreich, R. L. (1978). *Masculinity and femininity: Their*

psychological dimensions, correlates and antecedents. Austin, TX: University

of Texas Press.

Spence, J. T., & Helmreich, R. L. (1983). Achievement-related motives and behavior.

In J. T. Spence (Ed.), *Achievement and achievement motives: Psychological*

and sociological approaches (pp. 10-74). San Francisco, CA: Freeman.

Spreitzer, G., & Porath, C. (2012). Creating sustainable performance. *Harvard*

Business Review, *90*(1), 92-99.

Syptak, M. J., Marsland, D. W., & Ulmer, D. (1999). Job Satisfaction: Putting Theory

Into Practice. *Academy of Family Physicians*, *6*(9), 26-30. Retrieved from

https://www.aafp.org/fpm/1999/1000/p26.html

Thierry, H. (2001). The Reflection Theory on compensation. In M. Erez, U. Keinbeck,

& H. Thierry (Eds.), *Work motivation in the context of a globalizing economy*

(pp. 149-166). Hove, England: Psychology Press.

Thornthwaite, L. (2004) Working time and work–family balance: a review of

employees' preferences. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, *42*(2) 166–

84. https://doi.org/10.1177/1038411104045360

Tietjen, Mark A., & Myers, Robert M. (1998). Motivation and job satisfaction.

Management Decision, *36*(4), 226. https://doi.org/10.1108/00251749810211027

Townsend, K. (2004). Management culture and employee resistance: Investigating the management of leisure service employees. *Managing Leisure, 9*(1) 47-58. https://doi.org/10.1080/1360671042000194952

Veenhoven, R. (1991). Is happiness relative? *Social Indicators Research, 24*(1), 1-34. Retrieved from http://www.springerlink.com/index/VJ102343680515M1.pdf

Vroom, V. H. (1995). *Work and Motivation*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Welch, J., & Welch, S. (2005). *Winning*. New York, NY: Harper Business Publishers.

White, R. W. (1959). Motivation reconsidered: The concept of competence. *Psychological Review, 66*(5), 297. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0040934

Wood, R., & Bandura, A. (1989). Social cognitive theory of organizational management. *Academy of Management Review, 14*(3), 361-384. https://doi.org/10.2307/258173

Zaman, H. M. F., Nas, Z, Ahmed, M., Raja, Y. V., & Marri, M. Y. K. (2013). The mediating role of intrinsic motivation between Islamic work ethics and employee job satisfaction. *Journal of Business Studies Quarterly, 5*(1), 93-102. Retrieved from https://s3.amazonaws.com/academia.edu.documents/31935734/IWE-IM-JS-September_2013_6.pdf?AWSAccessKeyId=AKIAIWOWYYGZ2Y53UL3A&Expires=1534118746&Signature=3vmr6Q%2BPM3xjQuQm73%2BM%2BAsFiNk%3D&response-content-disposition=inline%3B%20filename%3DIWE_IM_JS_September_2013_6.pdf

Zedeck, S. (1992). Exploring the domain of work and family concerns. In S. Zedeck

(Ed.), *Work, families, and organizations* (pp. 1–32). San Francisco, CA:

Jossey–Bass.

Ziegler, M., Schmidt-Atzert, L., Buhner, M., & Krumm, S. (2007). Fakability of

different measurement methods for achievement motivation: Questionnaire,

semi-projective, and objective. *Psychology Science, 49*(4), 291. Retrieved from

https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Matthias_Ziegler/publication/26514549_

Fakability_of_different_measurement_methods_for_achievement_motivation

_Questionnaire_semi-

projective_and_objective/links/09e4150be2535f27a5000000.pdf

APPENDIX A

Achievement Motivation Inventory

Circle the number representing the most appropriate answer:

1. I intend to go far professionally

Does Not Apply at All   Applies Fully

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. I am convinced I am going to accomplish things professionally

Does Not Apply at All   Applies Fully

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3. I prefer tasks that I can perform easily to those which I really have to apply myself to.

Does Not Apply at All   Applies Fully

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

4. I am convinced that I have been more committed to my education, training and profession than my colleagues

Does Not Apply at All   Applies Fully

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

5. I have a sense of satisfaction when I improve on my performance

Does Not Apply at All   Applies Fully

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

6. Tasks that I am unsure of being able to perform are particularly appealing to me.

Does Not Apply at All   Applies Fully

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

7. To me it is very important to achieve a position of responsibility

Does Not Apply at All   Applies Fully

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

8. When I take an exam, I am convinced I will pass

Does Not Apply at All   Applies Fully

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

9. It's easy to spark my ambition.

Does Not Apply at All   Applies Fully

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

10. I especially like to deal with problems that contain a tough nut to crack

Does Not Apply at All   Applies Fully

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

11. I am confident that my achievements will be recognized by others.

Does Not Apply at All   Applies Fully

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

12. I like to look for tasks that test my capabilities.

Does Not Apply at All   Applies Fully

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

13. I am happiest performing a task that demands all my capabilities

Does Not Apply at All   Applies Fully

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

14. If something has not gone as well as I had planned, then I make even more of an effort.

Does Not Apply at All   Applies Fully

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

15. The wish to be better than others is a major incentive for me.

Does Not Apply at All   Applies Fully

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

16. Difficult problems appeal more to me than simple ones

Does Not Apply at All   Applies Fully

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

17. Even when faced with a difficult task, I am always confident.

Does Not Apply at All   Applies Fully

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

18. When I work with other people, I usually take the initiative

Does Not Apply at All   Applies Fully

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

19. My acquaintances would consider it typical of me that I battle my way through all obstacles.

Does Not Apply at All   Applies Fully

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

20. Intensive, concentrated work satisfies me.

Does Not Apply at All   Applies Fully

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

21. I like to work at tasks that require a great deal of skill.

Does Not Apply at All   Applies Fully

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

22. It makes me proud and happy to have mastered a difficult task.

Does Not Apply at All   Applies Fully

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

23. The thought of reaching an important position is a professional incentive for me.

Does Not Apply at All   Applies Fully

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

24. I believe I try harder professionally than most of my colleagues.

Does Not Apply at All | | | | | | Applies Fully
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

25. When I work together with others, I like to take things into my own hands.

Does Not Apply at All | | | | | | Applies Fully
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

26. I prefer gaining new knowledge to dealing with things I have already mastered.

Does Not Apply at All | | | | | | Applies Fully
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

27. Anything I have achieved has mainly been due to my skills and abilities.

Does Not Apply at All | | | | | | Applies Fully
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

28. I feel particularly challenged by a difficult task.

Does Not Apply at All | | | | | | Applies Fully
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

29. If there is a risk of failing at a task, I make an extra special effort.

Does Not Apply at All | | | | | | Applies Fully
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

30. It is important to me to increase my proficiency.

Does Not Apply at All | | | | | | Applies Fully
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX B

Job in General Scale

Think of your job in general. All in all, what is it like most of the time? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write

Y̲   for "Yes" if it describes your job
N̲   for "No" if it does not describe it
?̲   for "?" if you cannot decide

_____	Pleasant
_____	Bad
_____	Great
_____	Waste of time
_____	Good
_____	Undesirable
_____	Worthwhile
_____	Worse than most
_____	Acceptable
_____	Superior
_____	Better than most
_____	Disagreeable
_____	Makes me content
_____	Inadequate
_____	Excellent
_____	Rotten
_____	Enjoyable
_____	Poor

APPENDIX C

Work-Family Conflict Scale

Circle the most appropriate answer:

1. The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life.

Strongly Disagree   Neutral   Strongly Agree

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities.

Strongly Disagree   Neutral   Strongly Agree

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3. Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me.

Strongly Disagree   Neutral   Strongly Agree

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

4. My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfill family duties.

Strongly Disagree   Neutral   Strongly Agree

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

5. Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities.

Strongly Disagree   Neutral   Strongly Agree

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX D

IRB Exemption Notice

PEPPERDINE

NOTICE OF APPROVAL FOR HUMAN RESEARCH

Date: November 01, 2017

Protocol Investigator Name: Jeremy Metz

Protocol #: 17-09-615

Project Title: The Impact of Achievement Motivation on Job Satisfaction and Work-Life Balance among Retail Managers

School: Graduate School of Education and Psychology

Dear Jeremy Metz:

Thank you for submitting your application for exempt review to Pepperdine University's Institutional Review Board (IRB). We appreciate the work you have done on your proposal. The IRB has reviewed your submitted IRB application and all ancillary materials. Upon review, the IRB has determined that the above entitled project meets the requirements for exemption under the federal regulations 45 CFR 46.101 that govern the protections of human subjects.

Your research must be conducted according to the proposal that was submitted to the IRB. If changes to the approved protocol occur, a revised protocol must be reviewed and approved by the IRB before implementation. For any proposed changes in your research protocol, please submit an amendment to the IRB. Since your study falls under exemption, there is no requirement for continuing IRB review of your project. Please be aware that changes to your protocol may prevent the research from qualifying for exemption from 45 CFR 46.101 and require submission of a new IRB application or other materials to the IRB.

A goal of the IRB is to prevent negative occurrences during any research study. However, despite the best intent, unforeseen circumstances or events may arise during the research. If an unexpected situation or adverse event happens during your investigation, please notify the IRB as soon as possible. We will ask for a complete written explanation of the event and your written response. Other actions also may be required depending on the nature of the event. Details regarding the timeframe in which adverse events must be reported to the IRB and documenting the adverse event can be found in the *Pepperdine University Protection of Human Participants in Research: Policies and Procedures Manual* at community.pepperdine.edu/irb.

Please refer to the protocol number denoted above in all communication or correspondence related to your application and this approval. Should you have additional questions or require clarification of the contents of this letter, please contact the IRB Office. On behalf of the IRB, I wish you success in this scholarly pursuit.

Sincerely,

Judy Ho, Ph.D., IRB Chair