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Wisniewski, Jessica N. *Predictors and Outcomes of Motivation to Learn*

Abstract

The purpose of the current study was to explore the relationship between variables that influence employee motivation to participate in learning, and their connections to specific behavioral outcomes. The predictor variables in the current study included the Big Five and perceived organizational support (POS). Outcome variables that were studied included: motivation, organizational commitment, and self-efficacy. Autonomy was explored as a mediating variable between the predictor and outcome variables for employee motivation to participate in learning. A survey was shared via social media and completed by a total of 142 respondents. Results indicated that agreeableness, openness to experience, and self-regulation predicted motivation to learn, but POS did not predict motivation to learn. Autonomy did not serve as a mediating variable in any of the predicted relationships. Self-regulation predicted motivation and self-efficacy. Lastly, motivation to learn was a significant predictor of motivation, affective commitment, and self-efficacy.

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Chapter I: Introduction

Organizations have been and continue to be interested in understanding what predicts motivation in the workplace, specifically in continued learning (Dahlin, Chuang, & Roulet, 2018; Hicks, 1984; Noe, 1986; Noe & Schmitt, 1986; Park, Lim, & Chang 2017; Tharenou, 2001). Of equal importance, organizations are also inquiring about the potential outcomes that are associated with employee motivation to learn (Bulut & Culha, 2010; Lindberg, Wincent, & Örtqvist, 2013; Pinder, 2005).

The purpose of the current study was to investigate the relationship between predictor and outcome variables of motivation to participate in learning at work. Previous research, as outlined in the following sections, has been done to better understand how these variables relate to motivation to participate in learning at work, but these variables have not been studied in combination to date. The importance of this research will advance understanding of the type of variables that can be used to predict employee willingness in learning and if there are associated relationships to desirable organizational outcomes.

The paper will be organized as follows. First, the theoretical foundation – self-regulation theory – will be described. Next, a literature review will discuss and reflect on the model in Figure 1 below, beginning with predictor variables including the Big Five and dimensions of perceived organizational support (POS). Outcome variables will include motivation, organizational commitment, and self-efficacy. These predictor variables and outcome variables will be explored directly and mediated by autonomy. Hypotheses are offered throughout. The survey methodology, results, and discussion are then presented.
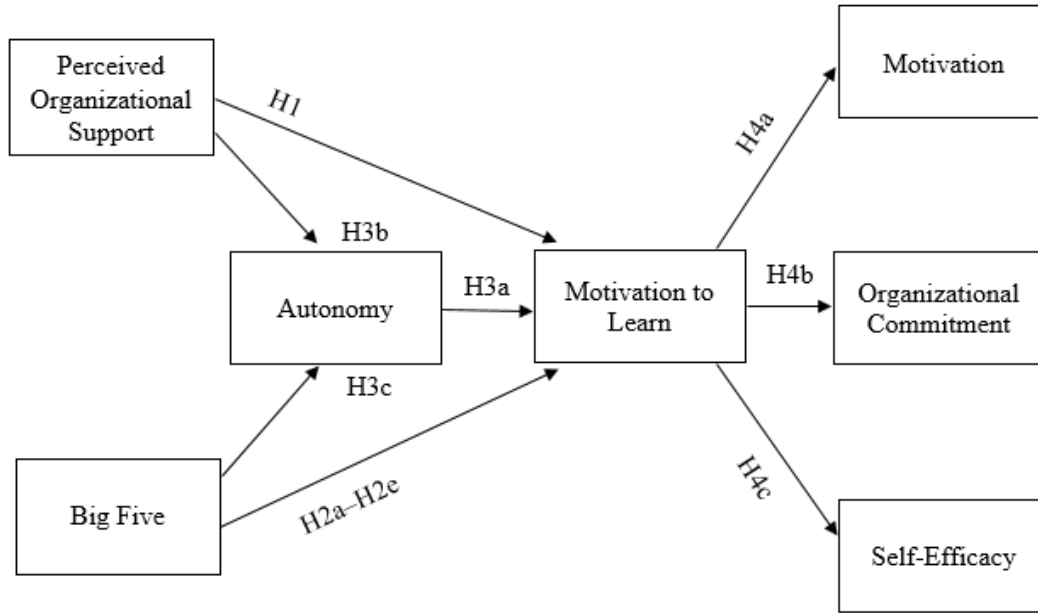
Figure 1. Predicted relationships among study variables.

Self-Regulation Theory

Self-regulation theory focuses on the acquisition and retention of new behaviors as they are developed and retained through a cognitive process (Sitzmann & Ely, 2011). As explained by Karoly (1993) and Sitzmann and Ely (2011), self-regulation is a cognitive process enabling individuals to navigate through their goals over time while also enduring behavioral change. Those pursuing established goals do so in a way that encompasses a change in affect, cognition, and/or behavior (Sitzmann & Ely, 2011). Self-regulation theory can further our understanding of why individuals exert extensive amounts of effort, such as when acquiring advanced skills or knowledge in the workplace (Sitzmann & Ely, 2011), and under what conditions.

At the core of self-regulated learning lies goal setting, such that employees who engage in goal setting are more likely to also engage in self-regulated learning to reach their goals (Sitzmann & Ely, 2011). Employees that demonstrate committed pursuance of specific goals, possess task knowledge, and receive feedback on progress made towards goal achievement are

more likely to be successful in self-regulating set goals (Sitzmann & Ely, 2011). Furthermore, once employees achieve their goals, they then are more likely to direct their attention and efforts in pursuance of other goals (Sitzmann & Ely, 2011).

Self-regulation is reliant on several regulatory mechanisms exhibited by the individual, who has control in their exertion of each mechanism (Sitzmann & Ely, 2011). According to Sitzmann and Ely (2011), regulatory mechanisms are the crux of regulatory learning, as they serve an instrumental role in the progress made towards goals. These regulatory mechanisms include: planning activities, monitoring performance, metacognition of one's self-regulation, keeping focus and attention, usage of learning strategies, persistence despite boredom or failure, time management, environmental structuring to select locations conducive to learning, help seeking when assistance is required for learning, motivation to learn, emotion control, and effort devoted to learning (Sitzmann & Ely, 2011).

In addition to the previously described regulatory mechanisms, regulatory appraisals also embody self-regulation theory (Sitzmann & Ely, 2011). These regulatory appraisals assess goal progress, determine if employees will begin or continue pursuing their goals, and include three types: self-evaluation, attributions, and self-efficacy (Sitzmann & Ely, 2011). Self-evaluation appraisals are characteristic of employees comparing current knowledge and performance to their desired goal state (Sitzmann & Ely, 2011). Sitzmann and Ely (2011) describe attribution appraisals as employees' attempting to understand the causes of outcomes in their achievement experiences, and then attribute those outcomes to causal reasons (e.g., ability versus effort). Lastly, self-efficacy appraisals refer to employees' beliefs in their capability to carry out and succeed in various tasks (Sitzmann & Ely, 2011).

Research conducted by Muraven, Baumeister, and Tice (1999) suggests that repeated exertion of self-control (or self-regulation) acts similarly to that of a muscle, where continued exercise builds one's capacity for engaging in self-regulation. Extending exercises to build self-regulation decreases one's state of vulnerability of the tendency for self-regulation to deteriorate when faced with immediate demands (Muraven et al., 1999). An example of this may include an employee who actively engages in self-regulation practices as a method of pursuing set goals. Continuous engagement in self-regulation may help build the capacity of one's self-regulatory practices, enabling them to pursue more goals than they otherwise would have (Muraven et al., 1999). Self-regulation is a requirement for delaying immediate gratification and to receive greater delayed rewards, as it is a process that requires individuals to stick with their set goals and have the endurance for continuous engagement to see to their goals being accomplished (Baumeister, Schmeichel, & Vohs, 2013). To illustrate this in a real-life situation, consider the process an individual may experience when setting, working towards, and accomplishing goals. This individual is engaging in self-regulation with each of these steps, and when an individual goes through this entire process from start to finish, gratification is delayed until the goal is accomplished. This is important because when individuals experience this level of dedication in achieving goals, they are more likely to not only accomplish a current goal, but continue engaging in self-regulation to accomplish future goals.

Self-regulation theory will be used in the current research to advance our understanding of employees' strides as they pursue goals in a learning context, meaning that self-regulation theory will be used to explain employee behavior relating to goal setting and goal completion. Self-regulation theory has been used in previous research to explain behavioral changes employees made as a result of achieving their learning goals (Baumeister et al., 2013; Muraven

et al., 1999; Sitzmann & Ely, 2011). The current study will examine the relationships between motivation to learn and behavioral outcomes in a learning context, where self-regulation will serve as the scope to explain these relationships. Similar to Baumeister et al. (2013), the current study will focus on how self-regulation practice within the workplace, combined with motivation to learn, is related to the outcome variables of interest. Sitzmann and Ely (2011) encourage more research to be done with training (or continued learning for this study) and how it relates to self-regulation theory, as the nature of training and learning programs evolve and become more complex.

Motivation

Pinder (1998) and Latham and Pinder (2005) defined motivation in the workplace as the energetic forces that drive an individual to initiate work-related behavior that is affiliated with form, direction, intensity and duration. Latham and Pinder (2005) argued further that motivation is a psychological process that results from interactions between the individual and the environment. Research has recognized the importance of affect and behavior and their reciprocal interactions in relation to one's state of motivation in the workplace (e.g., Bandura, 1997; Lord, Klimoski, & Kanfer, 2002; Latham & Pinder, 2005). Understanding motivation in the workplace has become a highly regarded topic of interest due to the expanded recognition of factors that influence employee motivation (Latham & Pinder, 2005). Specifically, the current study will examine the factor of motivation to learn and how it influences employees' general levels of motivation.

Motivation to learn. Motivation to learn, specifically, has been defined as an individual's specific desire to learn content from some form of a training program (Noe, 1986). Research has explored the relationship between training and motivation to learn. Hicks (1984),

for example, found preliminary training information and discretion given to employees regarding their decision to participate in training influenced motivation to learn, amount of learning, and program attendance.

Noe (1986) discovered that there are four conditions that are required to target high motivation to learn. First, employees should feel like the assessment of their strengths and weaknesses that require a learning assignment or the opportunity to participate in training is accurate. Second, employees should feel like they are capable of mastering the content of the learning assignment with a reasonable amount of effort. Third, the level of one's motivation to learn will be highly influenced by what the employee perceives to be quality job performance, how they identify psychologically with the job, and in their career exploration behaviors (e.g., self-assessment of interests, career planning, and skills and weaknesses). Lastly, employees are more likely to be motivated to participate in learning at work if they perceive the workplace as a place that provides necessary resources to successfully meet the demands of the job and that has supportive interpersonal relationships with peers and supervisors (Noe, 1986).

Hackman and Oldham (1975) found that job dimensions, such as skill variety and task significance, are influential factors that determine employee job satisfaction and motivation. Noe (1986) proposed that cues in the work environment that influence work behavior are more salient for individuals that are highly engaged with their jobs because gains from performance are associated with self-image improvements. Noe and Schmitt (1986) argued that positive reactions from training, improvements regarding job-related outcomes, and behavior change can be expected when both well-designed and administered training (or learning) programs are utilized (Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Noe, 1986). Effectiveness of training programs (in this case, continued learning) is heavily influenced by employee attitudes, interests, values, and

expectations (Noe & Schmitt, 1986). Autonomy is considered an important aspect in determining one's motivating potential score (MPS), which refers to one's capability of exerting sufficient motivation that is required from one's job (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). Noe and Schmitt (1986) urged that research must be conducted with a focus on individual characteristics as they influence training effectiveness. This needs to be a priority to better understand how to increase the likelihood for behavior change and improved performance as it results from participating in a learning program opportunity provided by the organization (Noe & Schmitt, 1986; see Figure 1).

The current investigation will consider if self-regulation theory may help explain why employees are motivated to participate in learning, as high motivation to learn may be a result of having a strong desire to set goals and advance one's knowledge or skill level within their organization. Employees that experience high self-regulation will likely be more motivated to learn to satisfy their desire to expand their knowledge and skills and may also experience behavior change as result of their motivation to participate in learning. For example, individuals that use a self-established regulatory process to set/complete their learning goals may be more likely to also be motivated to learn.

The current study will first be exploring variables that may explain or predict employees' motivation to participate in learning. There are two primary variables that will be investigated for potential relationships with motivation to learn: perceived organizational support (specifically organizational support for development and perceived career opportunity) and the Big Five. Perceived organizational support will be investigated as a potential environmental factor that may contribute to motivation to learn (see Figure 1).

Perceived Organizational Support

Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, and Sowa (1986) defined perceived organizational support (POS) as employees' inferences regarding the organization's commitment to them. Eisenberger et al. (1986) found that employees form firm beliefs regarding the extent to which their organization values them and truly cares about their well-being. Broadly, perceived organizational support has been found to relate to a wide range of employee outcomes (e.g., reduced absenteeism [Eisenberger et al., 1986], increased organizational commitment [Ahmed & Nawaz, 2015; Riggle, Edmondson, & Hansen, 2009; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002] and job satisfaction [Ahmed & Nawaz, 2015; Riggle, Edmondson, & Hansen, 2009; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002]).

Related to the current project, Eisenberger et al. (1986) believed that employees develop strong perceptions of organizational support to infer that the organization is ready to reward their efforts in meeting or working towards organizational goals. Furthermore, organizations can influence perceived organizational support. It can be increased by giving employees clear indications of approval and praise, such as with an increase in pay, rank, or overall job enrichment (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Furthermore, Eisenberger et al. (1986) and Wayne, Shore, Bommer, and Tetrick (2002) discovered that the underlying reason for the approval and praise has direct leverage on employees perceived organizational support. Wayne et al. (2002) concluded further that fair treatment, favorable rewards, inclusion, and recognition directly affect levels of perceived organizational support. Similar to the Eisenberger et al. (1986) and Wayne et al. (2002), DeConinck (2010) found that fairness and justice within an organization was a direct antecedent to perceived organizational support among a sample of 482 marketing managers. The

ability to influence perceptions of perceived organizational support is important in this context if it is positively related to motivation to learn.

Lim and Morris (2006) found a significant relationship between employees' perceptions of support from the organization and motivation to learn with a sample of 181 individuals employed among 15 Korean companies affiliated with financing, accounting, and planning. Kraimer, Seibert, Wayne, Liden, and Bravo (2011) also conducted a study to explore the relationship between perceived organizational support for development (or continued learning). With a sample of 264 employees and supervisors, Kraimer et al. (2011) found that participation in training activities, exchanges made between leaders and members, and career mentoring were all positively related to employees perceived organizational support for continued learning. Park et al. (2017) found among a sample of 300 Korean employees dispersed among several different occupations (e.g., healthcare, finance, and construction), that when employees expressed feeling supported within their organization, they also had increased motivation to continue learning. Here, it is predicted that employees that experience perceived organizational support will be more likely to be motivated to learn new information or skills at their organization, which may better explain why employees that experience perceived organizational support engage in continued learning (See Figure 1). Individuals that experience perceived organizational support may be more motivated to participate in learning especially if they practice self-regulation. Having that support from the organization may help explain why individuals are motivated to learn, as it may increase that drive for delayed gratification in achievement of their goals to learn.

Hypothesis 1: Employees that experience having perceived organizational support will be more motivated to participate in learning at their organization.

The Big Five

While environmental factors, such as perceived organizational support, have been recognized as being highly important within organizational settings, factors, such as personality variables have also been studied at great lengths to better understand their role within organizational contexts. The Big Five references a five-factor model that is representative of well-known and agreed upon personality traits (Digman, 1997). These factors include extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and openness to experience (Digman, 1997). Each of the constructs fall on a spectrum (John & Srivastava, 1999), and will be defined below. Extraversion is characterized by an interest in social interactions, and in one's level of outgoingness, adventurousness, expressiveness, and activeness (Digman, 1997). Agreeableness refers to one's tendency to welcome and agree with other's ideas, while hostility (opposing end of spectrum) is characterized by being closed off from other's ideas (John & Srivastava, 1999). Conscientiousness includes a collection of factors such as persevering, purposeful, careful, and organized (Digman, 1997). Emotional stability is characteristic of positive emotionality, while the opposite (negative emotionality) has been referred to as neuroticism (Digman, 1997). Lastly, openness to experience is a domain comprised of creativity and divergent thinking (Digman, 1997). Table 1 lists these definitions, as well as the facets of each broad personality dimension.

Table 1

Table of the Big Five Dimensions, Their Definitions, and Corresponding Facets

Dimension	Definition	Facets
Extraversion	Extraversion is characterized by an interest in social interactions, interpersonal relations, and in one's level of outgoingness, adventurousness, expressiveness, and activeness (Digman, 1997).	• gregariousness (sociable) • assertiveness (forceful) • activity (energetic) • excitement-seeking (adventurous) • positive emotions (enthusiastic) • warmth (outgoing)
Agreeableness	Agreeableness is on the high end of the spectrum of one's tendency to welcome and agree with other's ideas, while the lower end (hostility) is characterized by being closed off from other's ideas (John and Srivastava, 1999).	• trust (forgiving) • straightforwardness (not demanding) • altruism (warm) • compliance (not stubborn) • modesty (not show-off) • tender-mindedness (sympathetic)
Conscientiousness	Conscientiousness is described by a collection of factors such as persevering, purposeful, careful and organized (Digman, 1997).	• competence (efficient) • order (organized) • dutifulness (not careless) • achievement striving (thorough) • self-discipline (not lazy) • deliberation (not impulsive)
Emotional Stability	Emotional Stability has been referred to as positive emotionality, while the opposite spectrum (negative emotionality) has been referred to as neuroticism (Digman, 1997).	• anxiety (tense) • angry hostility (irritable) • depression (not contented) • self-consciousness (shy) • impulsiveness (moody) • vulnerability (not self-confident)

Openness to Experience	Openness to Experience has been determined to be a domain comprised of creativity and divergent thinking (Digman, 1997).	- ideas (curious) - fantasy (imaginative) - aesthetics (artistic) - actions (wide interests) - feelings (excitable) - values (unconventional)

Accounting for individual differences can benefit organizations immensely as they attempt to understand employee behavior in organizations (Richards & Schat, 2011). Salgado (2002) investigated the association between the Big Five and employee job-related behaviors, and found that extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability and openness to experience can be used to make predictions about deviant workplace behavior and turnover. However, the current study will explore how the Big Five is related to organizational desirable outcomes. Bolton, Becker, and Barber (2010) also explored the relationship between the Big Five and employee behaviors with a sample of 234 employees from a large city in the United States, and found that low levels of agreeableness, conscientiousness, and extraversion predicted behavior that was deviant and non-productive to the organization (e.g., abusing restroom privileges and sabotaging one's position).

Multiple studies have investigated for potential associations between motivation to learn and the Big Five (e.g., Dragoni, 2005; Kanfer, 1990; Major, Turner, & Fletcher, 2006; Rowold, 2007; Roberts, Rogers, Thomas, & Spitzmueller, 2018). Kanfer (1990), for example, investigated the relationship between preexisting trainee traits and learner motivation, and concluded that preexisting personality traits were crucial determinants of the self-set goals individuals would set, which also greatly impacted motivation to learn. Dragoni (2005) argued that organizations can expect certain trainee (or employee) characteristics to relate to motivation to learning. Major et al. (2006) explored the relationship between the Big Five and employee motivation to learn with 183 employees from a financial services firm. They found that extraversion, openness to

experience, and conscientiousness were all positively related to employee motivation to learn. Similarly, Rowold (2007) found that among ninety-four employees participating in a training program at a call center, extraversion, agreeableness, and emotional stability successfully predicted motivation to learn. The results suggest that organizations should take personality factors into consideration when hiring or targeting new hires for positions that require continued learning, as desirable personality traits exist for these types of positions (Major et al., 2006; Roberts et al., 2018; Rowold, 2007).

Self-regulation theory may advance our understanding for why certain personality traits (such as those associated with the Big Five) are related to one's motivation to learn. Individuals who are high in certain aspects of the Big Five as outlined below, may be more motivated to participate in learning because their learning goals align with their personality types.

In line with the above, the current study also predicts that dimensions of the Big Five will be related to employees' motivation to learn. It is expected that those who are high in extraversion will have more motivation to learn because of their increased desire to engage in social interactions and be adventurousness. In conjunction with this increased desire to engage in social interactions and being adventurous, persistence despite boredom or failure is a regulatory mechanism (Sitzmann & Ely, 2011) that may help explain why those high in extroversion may be more motivated to learn, as this continued persistence may be a way to fulfill these desires.

Hypothesis 2a: Employees high in extraversion will have greater motivation to participate in learning than those who are low in extraversion.

Similarly, those who are high in openness to experience are expected to be more motivated to learn because of their need for divergent thinking and their innate curiosity. Usage of learning strategies (Sitzmann & Ely, 2011) is a regulatory mechanism that may help explain

why individuals high in openness to experience are motivated to learn, as application of learning strategies may suffice their desire of curiosity.

Hypothesis 2b: Employees high in openness to experience will have greater motivation to participate in learning than those who are low in openness to experience.

Next, it is predicted that those who are high in emotional stability will be more motivated to learn because their emotions are constant and will enable the individual to feel more confident and positive about continued learning. Emotion control (Sitzmann & Ely, 2011) is a regulatory mechanism that may explain why individuals high in emotional stability will be more motivated to learn as engaging in emotion control self-regulatory practices will enable these individuals to feel confident and positive towards their continued learning.

Hypothesis 2c: Employees high in emotional stability will have greater motivation to participate in learning than those who are low in emotional stability.

Furthermore, it is predicted that those who are high in conscientiousness will be more motivated to learn because they are considered to be achievement strivers, have a high sense of dutifulness and are self-disciplined. Time management and planning activities (Sitzmann & Ely, 2011) are regulatory mechanisms that may be used by those high in conscientiousness, and they may help explain why these individuals are motivated learn as these mechanisms align with the need to be self-disciplined and strive for achievement.

Hypothesis 2d: Employees high in conscientiousness will have greater motivation to participate in learning than those who are low in conscientiousness.

Lastly, it is expected that those who are high in agreeableness will be more motivated to learn because they are more likely to welcome, agree with, and comply to new ideas. Monitoring performance (Sitzmann & Ely, 2011) is a regulatory mechanism that may help explain why

individuals high in agreeableness are motivated to learn, as these individuals may need to monitor their performance more regularly in pursuit of their learning goals. See Figure 1.

Hypothesis 2e: Employees high in agreeableness will have greater motivation to participate in learning than those who are low in agreeableness.

Autonomy

As described above, environmental and trait factors are both of interest when predicting employee motivation to learn, but autonomy may also be key to these relationships. Hackman and Oldham (1975) have used the term autonomy to refer to the degree that an organization provides sufficient freedom, independence, and discretion to the employee in both scheduling work and determination of the course of action to carry out the work. Autonomy is considered to be an important aspect in determining one's motivating potential score (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). Gagné, Forest, Gilbert, Aubé, Morin, and Malorni (2010) described two different types or drivers of motivation: *controlled* motivation and *autonomous* motivation. Controlled motivation is comprised of external regulation and introjection, whereas autonomous motivation refers to identification, integration, and intrinsic motivation (Gagne et al., 2010). To explore autonomous and controlled motivation, Gagné et al. (2010) surveyed 881 Canadian pilots from a commercial airline company regarding their work motivation. Controlled motivation was associated with continuance commitment, and Gagné et al. (2010) speculated that motivation that is linked to autonomy will yield more positive outcomes than motivation that is controlled for (see Figure 1). Gagne et al. (2010), Deci and Ryan (2000), and Koestner and Losier (2002) all concluded that autonomous motivation produces different and more desirable organizational outcomes than controlled motivation. Jungert, Van, Schreurs, and Osterman (2018) further concluded that autonomous motivation leads to optimal organizational behavior and overall increased levels of

employee well-being. Jungert et al. (2018) argued that autonomous motivation emerges when employees feel satisfied with their need for autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Lastly, when employees are motivated in a controlled way, they tend to perform less optimally as their behavior is dictated by their motivational drive (Jungert et al., 2018).

Self-regulation theory may help explain the relationship between perceived autonomy and motivation to participate in learning. Individuals with high self-regulation for accomplishing learning goals may more easily attain their goals if they have a strong sense of autonomy during this process. Self-regulation theory may help explain why having that sense of autonomy is related to one's level of motivation to learn, as feelings of autonomy may be associated with increased practice of self-regulation.

Hypothesis 3a: Autonomy will be positively related to motivation to participate in learning.

In addition to the previously addressed research that directly connected autonomy with motivation to learn, it is predicted that autonomy will be an important piece that connects the predictor variables of personality and perceived organizational support to motivation to learn. Specifically, it is anticipated that autonomy at least partially mediates these relationships. See Figure 1.

Hypothesis 3b: Autonomy will mediate the relationship between perceived organizational support and one's motivation to participate in learning.

Hypothesis 3c: Autonomy will mediate the relationship between the Big Five and one's motivation to participate in learning.

Thus far, the research presented has exemplified the relationship between variables that have predicted motivation to learn. Now, the focus will be directed on outcomes that may be

influenced by one's motivation to participate in learning. The outcome variables of interest will include: motivation, organizational commitment, and self-efficacy.

Motivation to learn and employee motivation. Studies have investigated the relationship between motivation to learn and overall levels of employee motivation. Specifically, Tharenou (2001) found a significant relationship between motivation to learn and overall levels of employee motivation with a sample of 2,920 participants that completed a survey regarding their training motivation. Specifically, Tharenou (2001) found that employees' level of motivation based on expectation (of skills and knowledge that would be gained from participating in training) explained why participants were motivated to participate in learning. Similar to Tharenou (2001), Dahlin et al. (2018) discovered a relationship between motivation to learn and learning from failure, where motivation, ability, and opportunity shape one's sense of being motivated to pursue learning. McCombs (1984) argued that continued motivation to learn is a result of the individual implementing select metacognitive, cognitive, and affective skills or processes. McCombs (1984) argued further that motivational skills training programs advance overall levels of employee motivation as a result of perceived self-efficacy and experienced personal control.

With the current study, as previously mentioned, it is anticipated that individuals that are motivated to participate in learning will also experience increased levels of motivation in general as a result of being motivated to pursue continued learning. Self-regulation theory would argue that individuals that have high self-regulation may experience increased motivation to learn. Furthermore, this theory would also suggest that increased motivation levels of employees relates to feelings of accomplishment for reaching learning goals. Learning goals that are achieved may allow for continued motivation in the pursuance of new goals.

Hypothesis 4a: Overall levels of motivation will increase as a result of one's motivation to participate in learning.

Organizational Commitment

Previous research has shown relationships between motivation to learn and other organizational outcomes, one of which is organizational commitment. Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) defined organizational commitment as a strong belief and acceptance of the organization's goals and values, a willingness to give considerable amounts of effort on behalf of the organization, and a strong desire to remain with the organization/retain membership. Allen and Meyer (1990) offered a three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment, these included: affective, normative and continuance. The affective component is characterized by feelings of desire to remain with an organization because they *want* to. Normative commitment is associated with feelings of desire to remain with an organization because one *ought* to. Lastly, continuance commitment is related to the desire to remain because one *needs* to (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Research has indicated that motivation to participate in training (or learning) is highly related to employees' development and expressed levels of organizational commitment. For example, Bartlett (2001) explored the relationship between employee attitudes regarding training and their state of organizational commitment with a sample of 337 full time nurses from five different hospitals. The results of the study confirmed that employees who perceived they had access to training were also more likely to have higher levels of organizational commitment (Bartlett, 2001). While access to training did not imply participation in training, a positive relationship was found, linking both of these factors (Bartlett, 2001). Bartlett (2001) concluded that perceived benefits, motivation to learn, and support for training from colleagues and

supervisors were factors that influenced training participation and organizational commitment. In agreement with Bartlett (2001), Ahmad and Bakar (2003) investigated the relationship between training variables (availability of training, support for training, motivation to learn, training environment and perceived benefits of training) and organizational commitment among 204 employees who had participated in some form of formal or informal training in Malaysia. It was found that availability of training, support for training, and motivation to learn were significantly and positively associated with affective, normative, and overall organizational commitment, but not continuance commitment (Ahmad & Bakar, 2003). Bulut and Culha (2010) found that motivation for training had a positive effect on organizational commitment with a sample of 298 employees employed among 13 hotels in Turkey (see Figure 1). Providing employees with the opportunity to participate in training was found to enhance feelings of commitment to the organization (Ahmad & Bakar, 2003; Bartlett, 2001; Bulut & Culha, 2010).

The current study will further explore this relationship to investigate if organizational commitment will be increased as a result of employee's expressed motivation to participate in learning. This study predicts that employees' levels of organizational commitment will be positively related to motivation to continue with their learning within the organization (see Figure 1).

Self-regulation theory can extend our knowledge about the relationship between motivation to learn and organizational commitment. Employees may express having increased organizational commitment as a result of being motivated to participate in learning and accomplishing learning goals. Additionally, the theory of self-regulation would suggest that, as a result of being motivated to participate in learning, behavioral changes with one's level of organizational commitment are likely to occur. Individuals that are highly invested in their

organization may have greater motivation to learn, which may also reinforce their organizational commitment.

> *Hypothesis 4b: Levels of organizational commitment are positively related to employees' motivation to participate in learning.*

Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy has been defined as self-referent judgments in the expectancy of one's success in achievement situations (Bandura, 1986). Self-efficacy is measured by one's belief that they are capable of succeeding when in various circumstances as it relates to the required skills to accomplish a specific task (Bandura, 1986). Bandura (1986) argued that self-efficacy is influenced by various factors, such as when employees experience direct mastery accomplishments, information that is conveyed socially, and social persuasion via feedback, attributional evaluations, and offered incentives. Mathieu, Martineau, and Tannenbaum (1993) concluded from an eight-week long training program with 215 students that self-efficacy is directly influenced by initial performances, achievement motivation, and the individual's choice. Later research by Lindberg et al. (2013) found that role stressors such as role conflict and role ambiguity impacted employees' self-efficacy with a sample of 311 deans in Swedish secondary schools.

Bandura (1986) argued that motivation and action are influenced by one's perceived level of self-efficacy. Chen, Gully, and Eden (2001) explored the relationship between motivation and self-efficacy with three studies containing respectfully samples of 316 and 323 undergraduate students who were enrolled in several upper-level psychology courses at a large mid-Atlantic university and 54 managers who attended an MBA program at an Israeli university. The results of the study indicated that motivation and self-efficacy are related, and this relationship can be

assessed so that motivation, self-efficacy, and performance can be explained in a variety of work contexts (Chen et al., 2001). Similarly, Huang and Liaw (2007) concluded that among 116 college students, motivation was significantly and positively related to self-efficacy when exploring the relationship in an e-learning context.

In the current study, the aim is to replicate the positive relationship between motivation and self-efficacy found in prior studies (Chen et al., 2001; Huang & Liaw, 2007). Self-regulation theory may explain why employees have increased self-efficacy as a result of being motivated to participate in learning. Individuals that experience accomplishment of set learning goals as a result of their motivation to learn may also experience increased levels of self-efficacy. According to Sitzmann and Ely (2011) self-regulation is a cognitive process that offers behavioral changes, increased self-efficacy may be a behavioral outcome as a result of engaging in self-regulation. It is predicted that as employees express high levels of motivation to participate in learning, they also will experience high self-efficacy.

Hypothesis 4c: Employees' motivation to participate in learning is positively related to self-efficacy.

Chapter II: Methodology

The current study explored the relationship between predictor variables (perceived organizational support and the Big Five) with employee motivation to participate in learning (through autonomy) and investigated potential associations with desirable organizational outcomes (general motivation, organizational commitment, and self-efficacy). Participants that chose to participate in this study took an online survey that captured their attitudes and perceptions related to the variables of interest.

Participants

Participants included in the study were primarily the researcher's Facebook friends who also were encouraged to share an anonymous survey link with anyone they thought might be interested in taking the survey as well. Thus, a snowball technique was utilized, enabling the sample pool of 546 to be expanded as Facebook friends of the researcher could share the survey. To reach the target population, an anonymous survey link was posted on the researcher's Facebook page in early October of 2018. A power analysis (G-power specifying multiple regression analysis, power set at .80 and error at .05) indicated that a minimum sample of 109 participants needed to be obtained to effectively assess the relationships needing investigation. The total number of individuals that opened the survey resulted in 164; however, 22 of these individuals did not partake in answering the survey, leaving 142 participants to be included for analyses.

Of the participants that offered responses to the demographic questions, 33.7% identified as male, and 66.3% identified as female. The average age of participants reported was 39 years old ($SD = 12.08$). The most frequently reported industries worked in were: manufacturing (23.8%), education (16.8%), and healthcare/medical (14.9%). The mean number of years worked

at the organization was 8.34 (SD = 7.62). Lastly, 61.4% of participants expressed that they are planning to stay with their organization long term, 14.9% said they were not planning to do this, and 23.8% said they were not sure. See Table 2 for a complete listing of the demographic breakdown.

Table 2

Sample Demographics

Demographics	Frequency (%age)	*Mean*	*SD*
Sex/Gender			
Male	34 (33.7%)		
Female	67 (66.3%)		
Age		39.13	12.08
20-29	28 (28%)		
30-39	23 (23%)		
40-49	27 (27%)		
50-59	18 (18%)		
60-69	4 (4%)		
Industry Currently Employed			
Manufacturing	24 (23.8%)		
Education	17 (16.8%)		
Other	17 (16.8%)		
Healthcare/Medical	15 (14.9%)		
Business	7 (6.9%)		
Energy	6 (5.9%)		
Technology	5 (5.0%)		
Food/Cuisine	4 (4.0%)		
Construction	1 (1.0%)		
Entertainment	1 (1.0%)		
Financial Services	1 (1.0%)		
Military	1 (1.0%)		
Telecommunications	1 (1.0%)		
Transportation	1 (1.0%)		

Years Worked at Current Job
0-5
6-10
11-15
16-20

Measures

This section will describe the different measures used in this study, beginning with motivation.

Motivation. To measure motivation, the Motivation at Work Scale (Gagné et al., 2010) was used. The intrinsic motivation subscale was utilized for this study (α = .90). The measure consists of 3 items, and participants rated themselves on a 7-point Likert-type scale from 1 = *not at all* – 7 = *exactly* on their perceptions of their reasons for doing their specific job. An example of an item on this scale is "Because I enjoy this work very much." See Appendix A.

Motivation to learn. The Motivation to Learn Scale (Noe & Schmitt, 1986) was used to measure motivation to learn. The reliability of this scale was moderately high (α = .85) and consists of 8 items. Participants rated their level of agreement on a 5-point Likert-type scale from 1 = *strongly disagree* – 7 = *strongly agree*. An example of an item on this scale is "I will try to learn as much as I can from my organization." See Appendix B.

Perceived organizational support. To measure perceived organizational support, the Survey of Organizational Support for Development and the Survey of Perceived Career Opportunity were adopted (Kraimer, Seibert, Wayne & Liden, 2011). The Survey of Perceived Career Opportunity consists of three items and yielded a high reliability (α = .95). The Survey of Organizational Support for Development consists of six items and produced a high reliability (α = .96). The measure consists of 9 items total, where participants rated themselves on their perceived levels of support from their organization on a 7-point Likert-type scale from 1 =

strongly disagree – 7 = strongly agree. An example of an item on the Organizational Support Scale is "My organization has programs and policies that help employees to advance in their functional specialization." An example of an item on the Perceived Career Opportunity Scale is "There are career opportunities within [Company] that are attractive to me." See Appendix C.

Personality. The Big Five Inventory BFI (John & Srivastava, 1999) was adopted in the current study to measure extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and neuroticism personality types. Extraversion consists of eight items (α = .84), agreeableness consists of nine items (α = .77), conscientiousness consists of nine items (α = .76), emotional stability consists of eight items (α = .84), and openness to experience consists of ten items (α = .76). This scale consists of 44 items total, where participants rated their level of agreement/disagreement on a 7-point Likert-type scale from 1 = *strongly disagree – 7 = strongly agree*. An example of an item on the extraversion scale is "Is talkative." An example of an item on the agreeableness scale is "Has a forgiving nature." An example of an item on the conscientiousness scale is "Does a thorough job." An example of an item on the emotional stability scale is "Is relaxed, handles stress well." An example of an item on the openness to experience scale is "Is curious about many different things". See Appendix D.

Autonomy. The Work Autonomy Scale (Breaugh, 1999) was included in the current study to measure employee levels of autonomy. This scale is broken down into three subscales: method autonomy (α = .89), scheduling autonomy (α = .87), and criteria autonomy (α = .83) with three items comprising each subscale. The current study found the overall score of the reliability to be moderately high (α = .88). This measure consists of 9 items total, where participants rated their applicability of expressions on a 7-point Likert-type scale from 1 = *strongly disagree – 7 = strongly agree*. An example of an item on the method scale is "I am free to choose the method(s)

to use in carrying out my work." An example of an item on the scheduling scale is "I have control over the scheduling of my work." An example of an item on the criteria scale is "My job allows me to modify the normal way we are evaluated so that I can emphasize some aspects of my job and play down others." See Appendix E.

Organizational commitment. Allen and Meyer's (1990) Affective, Continuance, and Normative Commitment Scale (ACNCS) was adopted for the purpose of measuring organizational commitment in the current study. The current study found the overall score of the reliability to be moderately high ($\alpha = .84$). Each subscale consists of eight items, with each yielding moderate - moderately high reliabilities: affective ($\alpha = .89$), continuance ($\alpha = .75$), and normative ($\alpha = .72$). The scale is comprised of 24 items total, where participants rated their opinions on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* – 7 = *strongly agree*. An example of an item on the affective scale is "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization." An example of an item on the continuous scale is "It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to." An example of an item on the normative scale is "I think that people these days move from company to company too often." See Appendix F.

Self-efficacy. The New General Self-Efficacy Scale or NGSE (Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001) was utilized in the current study to measure employee levels of self-efficacy. The current study found moderately high reliability ($\alpha = .87$). Participants in the current study answered eight items on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = s*trongly disagree* – 7 = *strongly agree*. An example of an item on this scale is "I believe I can succeed at most any endeavor to which I set my mind." See Appendix G.

Self-regulation. The shortened version of the Self-Regulation Scale or SSRQ (Carey, Neal, & Collins, 2004) was utilized in the current study for further analyzation between all relationships under investigation. The current study found high reliability ($\alpha = .91$). This scale consists of 31 items where participants rated their perceptions on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*. An example of an item on this scale is "I don't notice the effects of my actions until it's too late." See Appendix H.

Demographics. Participants were asked demographic questions regarding their sex/gender identification and age. Additionally, participants were asked to provide the industry they currently work in, the length of time they have been employed with their current organization, and if they plan to remain their long term.

Procedure

Data were collected by means of convenience sampling from October 4th, 2018 through November 6th, 2018. Participants recruited for this study did so voluntarily at their convenience. This study utilized a survey consisting of the measures found in the appendices and was posted via social media (e.g., Facebook) with a Qualtrics link inviting participation. A link to the survey was posted for possible participants and invited them to participate in the study by completing an online survey. The posting specified that the survey would remain confidential and anonymous, and those that participate would have the chance to win one of five $20 Amazon gift cards. When the minimum number of participants was obtained, the survey was closed, and winners awarded their gift cards.

Chapter III: Results

After cleaning the data, correlations were run to explore the relationships among the study variables. Following the correlations, descriptive statistics were gathered, and hypothesis testing was performed. See Table 3 for correlations and reliabilities of study scales. Simultaneous multiple regressions were run to test H1 and H2. Next, a series of mediated regressions were run to test H3b and H3c. Lastly, more multiple regression analyses were run to investigate H4a-c.

Data Cleaning

After cleaning the data, 142 participants were retained for analysis.

Table 3

Pearson's Correlations among Study Variables (N ranges from 112 to 123)

	M	(SD)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. OSD	4.55	(1.58)	(.96)															
2. PCO	4.56	(1.65)	.71**	(.95)														
3. Extraversion	3.48	(.65)	.17*	.23**	(.84)													
4. Agreeableness	3.97	(.47)	.17*	.01	.05	(.77)												
5. Conscientiousness	4.02	(.44)	-.01	-.10	.10	.34**	(.76)											
6. Emotional Stability	3.31	(.67)	.12	.14	.30**	.38**	.35**	(.84)										
7. Openness	3.58	(.50)	.08	.12	.20*	.15	.02	.25**	(.76)									
8. Autonomy	4.88	(1.11)	.19*	.24**	.05	.07	.05	.03	.11	(.88)								
9. Motivation to Learn	3.90	(.56)	.30**	.32**	.21*	.34**	.04	.21*	.38**	.11	(.85)							
10. Motivation	4.92	(1.17)	.45**	.42**	.15*	.28**	.18*	.14	.13	.27**	.38**	(.90)						
11. Total Commitment	4.33	(.78)	.28**	.20*	-.15	.17*	.07	-.18*	.02	.13	.15	.38**	(.84)					
12. Affective	4.58	(1.27)	.55**	.46**	.05	.23**	.08	.09	.22*	.29**	.34**	.60**	.67**	(.89)				
13. Continuance	4.36	(1.11)	-.16	-.18*	-.24**	.02	-.02	-.32**	-.07	-.07	-.08	-.08	.39**	.02	(.75)			
14. Normative	4.04	(.88)	.12	.08	-.18*	.01	.03	-.16*	-.09	.03	-.05	.20*	.73**	.24**	.39**	(.72)		
15. Self-Efficacy	5.89	(.59)	.16	.17*	.28**	.32**	.33**	.47**	.29**	.24**	.44**	.26**	.15	.28**	.00	-.00	(.87)	
16. Self-Regulation	5.47	(.61)	.20*	.17	.31**	.19*	.61**	.51**	.23*	.13	.31**	.26**	-.05	.16	-.24*	-.07	.64**	(.91)

Notes. *p < .05, **p < .01 (1-tailed). Reliabilities are in parentheses. Organizational support for development is displayed as OSD and perceived career opportunity is displayed as PCO.

Hypothesis Testing

Prior to hypothesis testing, to ensure the assumptions for regression analyses were not violated, linearity, homogeneity of variance, and normality were tested. Linearity was tested by creating scatterplots and implementing a line of best fit (specifically a Loess Curve). To test homogeneity of variance, residual plots were utilized to test for variance of residuals across all predicted variables. Lastly, normality was tested by creating P-P plots to test normal distribution of residuals. All assumptions were met. Additionally, since 15 respondents indicated an intent to change jobs long term, analyses were performed with and without this group. Minimal differences were noted, and thus, all respondents were retained for hypothesis testing reported below.

A simultaneous multiple regression analysis was performed to test if perceived organizational support (specifically organizational support for development and perceived career opportunity; H1) and the Big Five (H2a-e) significantly predicted employee motivation to learn. Additionally, self-regulation was tested to see if a positive association existed with motivation to learn. The results of the regression indicated that this combination of variables significantly predicted motivation to learn ($R^2 = .35$, $F(8, 95) = 7.92$, $p < .001$). These variables together explained 35% of the variability in motivation to learn. Individual coefficients were then explored beginning with H1's perceived career opportunity. It was found that perceived career opportunity ($\beta = .13$, $p = .139$) did not significantly predict motivation to learn, and organizational support for development did not significantly predict motivation to learn ($\beta = .09$, $p = .232$; H1). The individual personality coefficients in H2 were explored next. Here, extraversion did not significantly predict motivation to learn ($\beta = .09$, $p = .168$; H2a), however, openness to experience did significantly predict motivation to learn ($\beta = .25$, $p = .003$; H2b).

Emotional stability did not significantly predict motivation to learn (β = -.15, p = .299; H2c),

conscientiousness did significantly predict motivation to learn, but the relationship was negative

(β = -.25, p = .012; H2d). Agreeableness significantly predicted motivation to learn (β = .38, p <

.001; H2e), and lastly, self-regulation significantly predicted motivation to learn (β = .36, p =

.002). In sum, openness to experience (H2b), conscientiousness (H2d), and agreeableness (H2d)

predicted motivation to learn, in addition to self-regulation. See Table 4 for results.

Table 4

Multiple Regression Analysis between Organizational Support for Development, Perceived

Career Support, Big Five Dimensions, Self-Regulation and Motivation to Learn

Predictor	B	SE	β	95% CI	
OSD	.03	.04	.09	-.05	.11
PCO	.04	.04	.13	-.04	.13
Extraversion	.07	.08	.09	-.08	.22
Agreeableness	.43	.11	.38**	.22	.65
Conscientiousness	-.30	.13	-.25	-.56	-.04
Emotional Stability	-.12	.08	-.15	-.29	.04
Openness to Experience	.27	.09	.25*	.08	.45
Self-Regulation	.31	.10	. 36*	.11	.52

Notes. N = 104, R^2 = .40, Adjusted R^2 = .35. *p < .01, **p < .001. Organizational support for

development is displayed as OSD, and perceived career opportunity is displayed as PCO.

Hypothesis 3a suggested that autonomy would be positively related to motivation to learn. Here, autonomy was not significantly related to motivation to learn, $r(105) = .11$, $p = .070$ (see Table 3). The results of the correlation indicate that H3a was not supported.

A mediated regression analysis was performed using PROCESS version 3.0 (Hayes, 2013) to test H3b, to identify if autonomy significantly mediated the relationships between the independent variable: perceived organizational support, specifically its dimensions organizational support for development and perceived career support on the dependent variable: motivation to learn. Tables 5 and 6 display the results of these mediation analyses. First, the direct relationship between organizational support for development, and motivation to learn was explored. Organizational support for development did directly predict motivation to learn, $b = .12$, 95% CI [.04, .17], $t(2,101) = 3.37$, $p < .001$. Next, the indirect relationship was explored. The relationship between organizational support for development and autonomy was positive, $b = .13$, 95% CI [.00, .26], $t(1,102) = 2.01$, $p = .024$. The relationship between autonomy and motivation to learn was not significant, $b = -.00$, 95% CI [-.10, .09], $t(2,101) = -.02$, $p = .490$, thus autonomy did not serve as a mediator between organizational support for development and motivation to learn.

Table 5

Mediated Regression Analysis between Organizational Support for Development and Motivation

to Learn

Variable	*b*	SE	95% CI	
Total	.11	.03	.05	.17
Organizational Support for Development (Direct)	.11	.03	.05	.17
Autonomy (Mediator)	-.00	.01	-.02	.01

Notes. N = 104, R = .32, R^2 = .10. *p < .01, **p < .001.

The direct relationship between perceived career opportunity and motivation to learn was explored next. Perceived career opportunity did directly predict motivation to learn, b = .11, 95% CI [.05, .18], $t(2,100)$ = 3.45, p < .001. Next, the indirect relationship was explored. The relationship between perceived career opportunity and autonomy was positive, b = .17, 95% CI [.05, .30], $t(1,101)$ = 2.71, p < .001. The relationship between autonomy and motivation to learn was not significant, b = -.02, 95% CI [-.12, .08], $t(2,100)$ = -.35, p = .363, indicating that autonomy did not serve as a mediator between perceived career opportunity and motivation to learn. It can be concluded that H3b was not supported.

Table 6

Mediated Regression Analysis between Perceived Career Opportunity and Motivation to Learn

Variable	b	SE	95% CI	
Total	.11	.03	.05	.17
Perceived Career Opportunity (Direct)	.11	.03	.05	.18
Autonomy (Mediator)	-.00	.01	-.03	.01

Notes. N = 103, *Notes.* R = .33, R^2 = .11. *$p < .01$, **$p < .001$.

Further mediated regression analyses were performed to test H3c using PROCESS version 3.0 (Hayes, 2013), to identify if autonomy significantly mediated the relationships between all of the personality dimensions and motivation to learn. Tables 7 through 11 display the results from these mediation analyses.

First, the direct relationship between extraversion and motivation to learn was explored. Extraversion did directly predict motivation to learn, $b = .18$, 95% CI [.01, .34], $t(2,103) = 2.06$, $p = .021$. Next, the indirect relationship was explored. The relationship between extraversion and autonomy was not significant, $b = .09$, 95% CI [-.24, .42], $t(1,104) = .53$, $p = .299$. The connection between autonomy and motivation to learn was not significant, $b = .05$, 95% CI [-.05, .15], $t(2,103) = .91$, $p = .182$, thus autonomy did not serve as a mediator between extraversion and motivation to learn.

Table 7

Mediated Regression Analysis between Extraversion and Motivation to Learn

Variable	*b*	SE	95% CI	
Total	.18	.09	.01	.35
Extraversion (Direct)	.18	.09	.01	.34
Autonomy (Mediator)	.00	.01	-.02	.03

Notes. N = 106, *Notes.* R = .20, R^2 = .04. *p < .01, **p < .001.

The potential mediated relationship between agreeableness and motivation to learn was explored next. First, the direct relationship between agreeableness and motivation to learn was explored. Agreeableness directly predicted motivation to learn, b = .42, 95% CI [.19, .64], $t(2,103)$ = 3.63, p < .001. The indirect relationship between agreeableness and autonomy was not significant, b = .15, 95% CI [-.31, .61], $t(1,104)$ = .65, p = .259. The relationship between autonomy and motivation to learn was not significant, b = .04, 95% CI [-.06, .14], $t(2,103)$ = .83, p = .204, thus autonomy did not serve as a mediator between agreeableness and motivation to learn.

Table 8

Mediated Regression Analysis between Agreeableness and Motivation to Learn

Variable	*b*	SE	95% CI	
Total	.42	.11	.20	.65
Agreeableness (Direct)	.42	.11	.19	.64
Autonomy (Mediator)	.01	.01	-.02	.04

Notes. N = 106, R= .34, R^2 = .12. *p < .01, **p < .001.

Autonomy as a mediator between conscientiousness and motivation to learn was explored next. First, the direct relationship between conscientiousness and motivation to learn was explored. Conscientiousness did *not* directly predict motivation to learn, b = .02, 95% CI [-.24, .27], $t(2,103)$ = .14, p = .444. The indirect relationship between conscientiousness and autonomy was not significant, b = .06, 95% CI [-.43, .55], $t(1,104)$ = .25, p = .290. The relationship between autonomy and motivation to learn was similarly not significant, b = .05, 95% CI [-.05, .15], $t(2,103)$ = 1.00, p = .161. The results indicate that there is not a direct effect between conscientiousness and motivation to learn, and a mediating effect also does not exist between conscientiousness and motivation to learn. In sum, conscientiousness was not related to motivation to learn.

Table 9

Mediated Regression Analysis between Conscientiousness and Motivation to Learn

Variable	b	SE	95% CI	
Total	.02	.13	-.23	.28
Conscientiousness (Direct)	.02	.13	-.24	.27
Autonomy (Mediator)	.00	.02	-.03	.05

Notes. N = 106, R = .02, R^2 = .00. *p < .01, **p < .001.

The potential mediated relationship between emotional stability and motivation to learn was explored next. First, the direct relationship between emotional stability and motivation to learn was explored. Emotional stability directly predicted motivation to learn, b = .17, 95% CI [.01, .33], $t(2,103)$ = 2.14, p = .018. Next, the indirect relationship was explored. The relationship between emotional stability and autonomy was not significant, b = .04, 95% CI [-.28, .35], $t(1,104)$ = .23, p = .410. Similarly, the relationship between autonomy and motivation to learn was not significant, b = .05, 95% CI [-.05, .15], $t(2,103)$ = .97, p = .166, thus autonomy did not serve as a mediator between emotional stability and motivation to learn.

Table 10

Mediated Regression Analysis between Emotional Stability and Motivation to Learn

Variable	*b*	SE	95% CI	
Total	.18	.08	.01	.34
Emotional Stability (Direct)	.17	.08	.01	.33
Autonomy (Mediator)	.00	.01	-.02	.03

Notes. N = 106, R = .21, R^2 = .04. *p < .01, **p < .001.

Next, the mediated relationship between openness to experience and motivation to learn was explored. First, the direct relationship between openness to experience and motivation to learn was examined. Openness to experience directly predicted motivation to learn, *b* = .44, 95% CI [.24, .65], *t*(2,103) = 4.28, *p* < .001. In line with the above findings, the relationship between openness to experience and autonomy was not significant, *b* = .25, 95% CI [-.17, .67], *t*(1,104) = 1.18, *p* = .120. Similarly, the relationship between autonomy and motivation to learn was not significant, *b* = .03, 95% CI [-.07, .12], *t*(2,103) = .59, *p* = .280, indicating that autonomy was not a mediating variable between openness to experience and motivation to learn. It can be concluded that H3c was not supported.

Table 11

Mediated Regression Analysis between Openness to Experience and Motivation to Learn

Variable	*b*	SE	95% CI	
Total	.45	.10	.25	.65
Openness to Experience (Direct)	.44	.10	.24	.65
Autonomy (Mediator)	.01	.02	-.02	.04

Notes. N = 106, R = .40, R^2 = .16. *p < .01, **p < .001.

The final group of hypotheses aimed to explore whether motivation to learn predicted any of the outcomes (motivation, organizational commitment, or self-efficacy) in addition to self-regulation. First, a multiple regression analysis was run to test H4a, to identify if motivation to learn significantly predicted employee motivation. Motivation to learn and self-regulation were used as predictors in this model. The results of the regression indicated that they significantly predicted motivation, R^2 =.14, $F(2, 102) = 8.51$ $p < .001$. Fourteen percent of the variance in motivation can be explained by motivation to learn and self-regulation. Further, motivation to learn significantly predicted employee motivation (β = .29, p =.002), and self-regulation also significantly predicted motivation (β = .17, p = .039). See Table 12 for results.

Table 12

Multiple Regression Analysis between Motivation to Learn, Self-Regulation, and Motivation

Predictor	B	SE	β	95% CI	
Motivation to Learn	.59	.20	.29*	.19	.98
Self-Regulation	.33	.18	.17	-.04	.69

Notes. N = 105, R^2 = .14, Adjusted R^2 = .13. *p < .01, **p < .001.

A multiple regression analysis was run to test H4b, to identify if motivation to learn significantly predicted organizational commitment. Additionally, self-regulation was tested as a potential predictor of organizational commitment. The results of the regression indicated that they did not significantly predict organizational commitment, R^2 =.01, $F(2, 102)$ = .72 p =.122. Thus, neither motivation to learn (β = .17, p = .056), nor self-regulation β = -.10, p = .157) predicted overall organizational commitment. See Table 13 for results.

Table 13

Multiple Regression Analysis between Motivation to Learn, Self-Regulation, and Total Organizational Commitment

Predictor	B	SE	β	95% CI	
Motivation to Learn	.23	.14	.17	-.05	.51
Self-Regulation	-.13	.13	-.10	-.39	.13

Notes. N = 105, R^2 = .03, Adjusted R^2 = .01. *p < .01, **p < .001.

Subsequent regression analyses were run to test if motivation to learn and self-regulation significantly predicted the *dimensions* of organizational commitment (i.e., affective, continuance, and normative commitment dimensions). Results indicated they significantly predicted affective commitment, R^2 =.09, $F(2, 103)$ = 6.29, p =.002. Nine percent of the variance in affective

commitment can be explained by motivation to learn and self-regulation. When exploring the

individual coefficients, motivation to learn significantly predicted *affective* commitment (β = .30,

p = .002), but self-regulation did not (β = .07, p = .235). See Table 14 for results.

Table 14

Multiple Regression Analysis between Motivation to Learn, Self-Regulation, and Affective

Commitment

Predictor	B	SE	β	95% CI	
Motivation to Learn	.69	.22	.30*	.24	1.13
Self-Regulation	.15	.21	.07	-.26	.56

Notes. N = 106, R^2 = .11, Adjusted R^2 = .09. *p < .01, **p < .001.

A multiple regression was performed to test if motivation to learn and self-regulation

significantly predicted *continuance* commitment next. Results indicated they significantly

predicted continuance commitment, R^2 =.04, $F(2, 102)$ = 3.24 p =.022. Four percent of the

variance in continuance commitment can be explained by motivation to learn and self-regulation.

Here, motivation to learn did *not* significantly predict continuance commitment (β = -.01, p =

.321), and although the beta weight for self-regulation was significant (β = -.24, p = .009.), the

relationship was negative. See Table 15 for results.

Table 15

Multiple Regression Analysis between Motivation to Learn, Self-Regulation, and Continuance

Commitment

Predictor	B	SE	β	95% CI	
Motivation to Learn	-.02	.20	-.01	-.41	.38
Self-Regulation	-.44	.18	-.24*	-.81	-.08

Notes. N = 105, R^2 = .06, Adjusted R^2 = .04. *p < .01, **p < .001.

Lastly, a multiple regression was performed to test if motivation to learn and self-regulation significantly predicted *normative* commitment. Results indicated they did not significantly predict continuance commitment, R^2 =-.01, $F(2, 102)$ = .54, p = .293. Neither, motivation to learn (β = -.03, p = .406), nor self-regulation significantly predicted motivation to learn (β = -.09, p = .190). See Table 16 for results.

Table 16

Multiple Regression Analysis between Motivation to Learn, Self-Regulation, and Normative

Commitment

Predictor	B	SE	β	95% CI	
Motivation to Learn	-.04	.16	-.03	-.36	.28
Self-Regulation	-.13	.15	-.09	-.42	.16

Notes. N = 105, R^2 = .01, Adjusted R^2 = -.01. *p < .01, **p < .001.

A final multiple regression was performed to test H4c, to identify if motivation to learn and self-regulation significantly predicted self-efficacy. The results of the regression indicated that the combination of variables significantly predicted self-efficacy, R^2 =.45, $F(2, 99)$ = 42.79

p < .001. Both motivation to learn (*β* = .25, *p* = .001) and self-regulation (*β* = .55, *p* < .001

significantly predicted self-efficacy. See Table 17 for results.

Table 17

Multiple Regression Analysis between Motivation to Learn, Self-Regulation, and Self-Efficacy

Predictor	B	SE	*β*	95% CI	
Motivation to Learn	.28	.09	.25*	.11	.45
Self-Regulation	.52	.08	.55**	.37	.67

Notes. N = 102, R^2 = .68, Adjusted R^2 = .45. **p* < .01, ***p* < .001.

Chapter IV: Discussion

The current study first examined several possible predictors of motivation to learn, including perceived organizational support, personality, and self-regulation. In addition, autonomy was explored as a possible mediator of the direct relationships. Lastly, motivation to learn was assessed as a predictor of three important outcomes: motivation, organizational commitment, and self-efficacy. First considering the predictors of motivation to learn, the findings suggest that organizational support for development and perceived career support did *not* significantly predict motivation to learn, which is contrary to the prediction made in H1. This finding conflicts with other research (Kraimer et al., 2011; Lim & Morris, 2006; Park et al., 2017). It is possible that these differences occurred due to the specificity of the industries employees work in, as Kraimer et al. (2011), Lim and Morris (2006), and Park et al. (2017) had samples consisting of specific industries, while the current study did not limit the number of industries included.

Next, the relationship between personality dimensions and motivation to learn was investigated. The current study confirmed that openness to experience (H2b) and agreeableness (H2e) significantly predicted motivation to learn, while extraversion (H2a), emotional stability (H2c), and conscientiousness (H2d) did not significantly predict motivation to learn. Self-regulation also significantly predicted motivation to learn. These findings vary from previous research, as Major et al. (2006) found that extraversion, openness to experience, and conscientiousness predicted motivation to learn, and Rowold (2007) found that extraversion, agreeableness, and emotional stability significantly predicted motivation to learn. In comparison, the results in the current study do reflect that openness to experience and agreeableness have reoccurred as significant predictors of motivation to learn. An important clarification should be

noted here that while individuals high in both agreeableness and openness to experience may be more motivated to participate in learning. This is not to say they will actually pursue/accomplish tasks. For example, an individual who is generally high in agreeableness (or openness to experience) may indeed be more motivated to learn or pursue continued training, however, following through with this task is not necessarily guaranteed.

Surprisingly, results here did not support extraversion to be a significant predictor of motivation to learn. One possible explanation for these discrepancies may be that others focused on specific industries (e.g., financial services; Major et al. [2006]; call center employees, Rowold [2007]), whereas the current research effort utilized a wide range of occupational sectors. These differences suggest that industry type plays a role in the relationship between personality and motivation to learn. Further investigations of these relationships revealed that self-regulation was a positive predictor of motivation to learn. However, perhaps the relationship between personality dimensions and motivation to learn depends on some additional individual difference or an environmental variable.

In addition to the interest in direct relationships, it was expected that perceived autonomy would mediate the above relationships. Here, there was not any evidence that autonomy meditated the relationship between perceived organizational support, or personality dimensions and motivation to learn. However, additional research needs to be done to explore these relationships within specific industries to determine if, in fact, the results hold for more specific contexts.

Next, motivation to learn was explored as a predictor of overall motivation. The results here are consistent with previous research (Dahlin et al., 2018; Tharenou, 2001) in that motivation to learn did significantly predict motivation, and thus supporting H4a. Additionally,

self-regulation also significantly predicted motivation, and together, both motivation to learn and self-regulation explained 14% of the variability in motivation. The current findings suggest that individuals who engage in both a self-regulation process when working towards their goals and who are motivated to learn will also experience higher motivation in general.

The relationship between motivation to learn and organizational commitment was explored next. The current study concluded that motivation to learn and self-regulation were not significant predictors of overall organizational commitment. However, further analysis revealed that motivation to learn did significantly predict affective commitment. Self-regulation, however, did not significantly predict affective commitment here. Perhaps self-regulation is simply a more general pattern of behavior that relates to goal setting broadly, as opposed to how people feel about their work. Neither motivation to learn nor self-regulation was related to continuance commitment as expected. Interestingly, self-regulation did significantly predict continuance commitment, but the relationship was negative. Finally, neither motivation to learn nor self-regulation significantly predicted normative commitment. Thus, the findings only partially supported the predictions that motivation to learn would be associated with these outcome variables. In sum, these findings suggest that individuals that have high levels of motivation to learn may have a strong desire to remain at their organization because they *want* to stay with their jobs (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Furthermore, the results are only partially supportive of previous research that has found motivation to learn to be significantly related to overall organizational commitment (Bartlett, 2001; Bulut & Culha, 2010) and studies that have found significant relationships with overall commitment as well as affective and normative commitment (Ahmad & Bakar, 2003). Again, this may be due to lack of specificity in industries, as these studies were done in specific industries.

Lastly, the relationship between motivation to learn and self-efficacy was investigated. In line with previous research suggesting a positive relationship (Chen et al., 2001; Huang & Liaw, 2007), the results here indicated that motivation to learn significantly predicted self-efficacy. Additionally, self-regulation also significantly predicted self-efficacy. The findings suggest that as individuals feel motivated to learn, they may also feel more capable or confident in their ability to accomplish tasks or goals at work. Self-regulation may help explain this process, as individuals set goals, feel motivated to participate in learning, and feel capable in their abilities.

Practical Implications

The current findings suggest that perceived organizational support is not associated with motivation to learn in the workplace. However, results presented here suggest that personality and self-regulation can be used for predicting employee motivation to learn. Specifically, individuals expressing higher levels of agreeableness and openness to experience who engage in self-regulation are also more likely to have an increased level of motivation to learn than individuals that are low in these traits and do not engage in a self-regulation process. Interestingly, extraversion, conscientiousness, and emotional stability did not predict motivation to learn as previous research had suggested (Major et al., 2006; Rowold, 2007). This is something to consider as a manager, as results given here suggest individuals who tend to be high in openness to experience and agreeableness may be, naturally, more likely to seek out learning opportunities than others. As traits vary from person to person, it is likely that individuals high in openness to experience, agreeableness, and who practice self-regulation may be more willing to participate in continued learning programs. Thus, managers may want to consider, for instance, the way that trainings are promoted. It may be advantageous, for instance, to personally approach employees that may be great candidates for training, but may not be

inclined to proactively look for it. Individuals who are more motivated to participate in training may respond in a favorable manner to employers offering training opportunities. However, the connections with personality are only supported with the current study that contained a sample of participants working in various industries, who were primarily females, and the average age was in the late 30's. More research needs to be done to investigate how these results vary as specific industries are studied, more males are included, and age groups are accounted for more closely, particularly in light of the conflicting findings with regard to personality and motivation to learn.

It is important to note that autonomy did not serve as a mediator between organizational support for development and perceived career opportunity, nor did autonomy mediate any of the personality predictor variables and motivation to learn. Rather, only direct relationships exist as previously mentioned. This suggests that perceived organizational support and personality do not indirectly relate to motivation to learn through autonomy. While autonomy may have a place elsewhere in a model of learning motivation, findings here suggest that it is simply not related as predicted in Figure 1.

Lastly, motivation to learn served as a predictor for several of the study's hypothesized outcome variables. Motivation to learn significantly was correlated with general levels of employee motivation, affective organizational commitment, and self-efficacy. Additionally, self-regulation correlated with motivation and self-efficacy. Leaders within organizations should take note of these findings, as they indicate that both self-regulation and motivation to learn are directly related to organizational desirable outcomes. In other words, increasing levels self-regulation and motivation to learn can positively impact the organization, as employees are more motivated, committed to their organization, and confident in their abilities. In combination, it seems that motivation to learn and self-regulation are strongly connected, as self-regulation

significantly predicted motivation to learn and together, motivation to learn and self-regulation significantly predicted both motivation and self-efficacy. Due to these unique findings, managers should encourage self-regulation practices among their employees as they pursue learning and training opportunities.

Limitations and Future Directions

There are a number of limitations and resulting areas for future study to be noted. First, the researcher used a convenience sampling method by posting the survey on their Facebook page. Given the personal connection, it is possible that participants felt obligated to take the survey (as the researcher reposted the survey a few times on their Facebook page). As such, future research would benefit from using a different sampling methodology. Furthermore, gathering data from specific industries is highly recommended, as it would be worth investigating how the results do change (or not) from industry to industry, particularly in light of some of the conflicting findings presented here. Nearly 40% of the reported industries worked in resided in healthcare/medical, education, and manufacturing, which may have indicated the results were under representative of other industries participants work in.

A second question regarding the generalizability of results concerns the characteristics of this sample. Here, nearly twice as many females participated in this survey than males, with several others who chose not to indicate their sex/gender. Furthermore, the sample was relatively young, with 78% of the participants being between the ages of 20 and 49. Due to these results, generalizability is a limitation to this study as the results may not generalize to other populations.

Lastly, it is also possible that due to the length of the survey, participants may not have had high motivation to respond thoughtfully. The survey was estimated to take approximately 15

minutes, and to some individuals this may have been an extensive commitment to answer the entire survey or provide responses that accurately represented their perceptions.

More broadly, future research should investigate other variables that may be involved in context of learning motivation in organizations. This study focused on a small set of variables thought to relate to motivation, but there are many other considerations, both with regard to individual differences and the environment, that may impact people's experience. As future research expands on the above model and others, predicting motivation to learn and outcomes related to motivation to learn can be better understood in the workplace. The existing relationships in the current study are a useful start, but future research should be explored in organizations that have a strong foundation in promoting organizational learning and focus on change as part of their business.

Conclusion

The current study explored several predictors and outcomes of motivation to learn in the workplace. The results suggested that the environmental variable of perceived organizational support was not successful in predicting motivation to learn. Additionally, personality factors such as agreeableness and openness to experience can also be used to predict one's willingness to be motivated to learn. Furthermore, motivation to learn significantly predicted employee motivation in general, affective organizational commitment, and self-efficacy. The current study also discovered when individuals practice self-regulation, they were also more likely to be: motivated to learn, motived in general, and have increased levels of self-efficacy. Thus, motivation to learn and self-regulation enhances certain organizational desirable outcomes that are beneficial to both the individual and the organization. These results may be utilized by managers and those in HR to facilitate meeting learning objectives.

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Appendix A: Motivation at Work Scale MAWS

Using the following scale: 1 = *not at all* – 7 = *exactly*, please indicate for each of the following statements to what degree they presently correspond to one of the reasons for which you are doing this specific job:

     1. Because I enjoy this work very much.
     2. Because I have fun doing my job.
     3. For the moments of pleasure that this job brings me.

Appendix B: Motivation to Learn Scale

Using the following scale: 1 = *strongly disagree* – 7 = *strongly* agree, please answer the following questions honestly and to the best of your ability. When training is made available to me at work, generally:

1. I am motivated to learn the skills emphasized in the training program.
2. I will try to learn as much as I can from my organization.
3. I will get more from this training than most people.
4. The knowledge and experience I gain in this training may advance my career.
5. I volunteered for this training program as soon as I could.
6. The reason I decided to attend training was to learn how I can improve my skills.
7. I want to improve my skills in my organization.
8. If I can't understand some part of the training, I will try harder.

Appendix C: Organizational Support for Development and

Perceived Career Opportunity Scale

Think about the opportunities that your organization provides and please answer the following questions honestly and to the best of your ability using the following scale: 1 = *strongly disagree* – 7 = *strongly agree*.

Organizational Support for Development Scale

1. My organization has programs and policies that help employees to advance in their functional specialization.
2. My organization provides opportunities for employees to develop their specialized functional skills.
3. My organization has programs and policies that help employees to reach higher managerial levels.
4. My organization has career development programs that help employees develop their specialized functional skills and expertise.
5. My organization provides opportunities for employees to develop their managerial skills.
6. My organization has career development programs that help employees develop their managerial skills.

Perceived Career Opportunity Scale

1. There are career opportunities within [Company] that are attractive to me.
2. There are job opportunities available within [Company] that are of interest to me.
3. My organization offers many job opportunities that match my career goals.

Appendix D: Big Five Inventory BFI

Using the following scale: 1 = *strongly* disagree – 7 = *strongly agree*, please indicate the extent to which you agree/disagree with the statement: "I see Myself as Someone Who…"

1. Is talkative
2. Tends to find fault with others
3. Does a thorough job
4. Is depressed, blue
5. Is original, comes up with new ideas
6. Is reserved
7. Is helpful and unselfish with others
8. Can be somewhat careless
9. Is relaxed, handles stress well
10. Is curious about many different things
11. Is full of energy
12. Starts quarrels with others
13. Is a reliable worker
14. Can be tense
15. Is ingenious, a deep thinker
16. Generates a lot of enthusiasm
17. Has a forgiving nature
18. Tends to be disorganized
19. Worries a lot
20. Has an active imagination
21. Tends to be quiet
22. Is generally trusting
23. Tends to be lazy
24. Is emotionally stable, not easily upset
25. Is inventive
26. Has an assertive personality
27. Can be cold and aloof
28. Perseveres until the task is finished
29. Can be moody
30. Values artistic, aesthetic experiences
31. Is someone shy, inhibited
32. Is considerate and kind to almost everyone
33. Does things efficiently
34. Remains calm in tense situations
35. Prefers work that is routine
36. Is outgoing, sociable
37. Is someone rude to others
38. Makes plans and follows through with them
39. Gets nervous easily
40. Likes to reflect, play with ideas
41. Has few artistic interests
42. Likes to cooperate with others
43. Is easily distracted
44. Is sophisticated in art, music, or literature

Scoring:
BFI scale scoring ("R" denotes reverse-scored items):
Extraversion: 1, 6R, 11, 16, 21R, 26, 31R, 36
Agreeableness: 2R, 7, 12R, 17, 22, 27R, 32, 37R, 42
Conscientiousness: 3, 8R, 13, 18R, 23R, 28, 33, 38, 43R
Neuroticism: 4, 9R, 14, 19, 24R, 29, 34R, 39
Openness: 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35R, 40, 41R, 44

Appendix E: Work Autonomy Scale

When thinking about how you accomplish your work, please indicate your level of agreement/disagreement with the statements below using the following scale: 1 = *strongly disagree* – 7 = *strongly agree*.

Method Autonomy

1. I am allowed to decide how to go about getting my job done (the methods to use).
2. I am able to choose the way to go about my job (the procedures to utilize).
3. I am free to choose the method(s) to use in carrying out my work.

Scheduling Autonomy

1. I have control over the scheduling of my work.
2. I have some control over the sequencing of my work activities (when I do what).
3. My job is such that I can decide when to do particular activities.

Criteria Autonomy

1. My job allows me to modify the normal way we are evaluated so that I can emphasize some aspects of my job and play down others.
2. I am able to modify what my objectives are (what I am supposed to accomplish).
3. I have some control over what I am supposed to accomplish (what my supervisor sees as my job objectives).

Appendix F: Affective, Continuance, and Normative Commitment Scale ACNCS

When thinking about your attitude towards your organization, please indicate your level of agreement/disagreement with each statement using the following scale: 1 = *strongly disagree* – 7 = *strongly agree*.

Affective Commitment Scale items

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
2. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.
3. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
4. I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one. (R)
5. I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization. (R)
6. I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization. (R)
7. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
8. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization. (R)

Continuous Commitment Scale items

1. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up. (R)
2. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.
3. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.
4. It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my job now. (R)
5. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
6. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.
7. One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.
8. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice – another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.

Normative Commitment Scale items

1. I think that people these days move from company to company too often.
2. I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization. (R)
3. Jumping from organization to organization does not seem at all unethical to me. (R)
4. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.
5. If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave my organization.
6. I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization.
7. Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organization for most of their careers.

8. I do not think that wanting to be a 'company man' or 'company woman' is sensible anymore. (R)

Appendix G: New General Self-Efficacy Scale

When thinking about your progress towards goals, please indicate your level of agreement/disagreement with each statement using the following scale: 1 = s*trongly disagree* – 7 = *strongly agree*.

1. I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself.
2. When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them.
3. In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me.
4. I believe I can succeed at most any endeavor to which I set my mind.
5. I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges.
6. I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks.
7. Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well.
8. Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well.

Appendix H: Shortened Self-Regulation Scale SSRQ

The following questions ask about your typical experience when working towards goals at work. Please indicate your level of agreement/disagreement with each statement using the following scale: 1 = *strongly disagree* – 5 = s*trongly agree.*

1. I don't notice the effects of my actions until it's too late.
2. I put off making decisions.
3. It's hard for me to notice when I've 'had enough'.
4. I have trouble following through with things once I've made up my mind to do something.
5. I don't seem to learn from my mistakes.
6. I usually only have to make a mistake one time in order to learn from it.
7. I can usually find several different possibilities when I want to change something.
8. Often, I don't notice what I'm doing until someone calls it to my attention.
9. I usually think before I act.
10. I learn from my mistakes.
11. I give up quickly.
12. I usually keep track of my progress toward my goals.
13. I am able to accomplish goals for myself.
14. I have personal standards, and try to live up to them.
15. As soon as I see a problem or challenge, I start looking for possible solutions.
16. I have a hard time setting goals for myself.
17. When I'm trying to change something, I pay a lot of attention to how I'm doing.
18. I have trouble making plans to help me reach my goals.
19. I set goals for myself and keep track of my progress.
20. If I make a resolution to change something, I pay a lot of attention to how I'm doing.
21. I know how I want to be.
22. I have trouble making up my mind about things.
23. Most of the time I don't pay attention to what I'm doing.
24. When it comes to deciding about a change, I feel overwhelmed by the choices.
25. Most of the time I don't pay attention to what I'm doing.
26. I tend to keep doing the same thing, even when it doesn't work.
27. Once I have a goal, I can usually plan how to reach it.
28. If I wanted to change, I am confident that I could do it.
29. I can stick to a plan that's working well.
30. I have a lot of willpower.
31. I am able to resist temptation.

Appendix I: Demographics

Please indicate your sex/gender:
- o   Female
- o   Male
- o   Intersex
- o   Transgender
- o   Alternative identify (specify) _____

Please indicate your age (in years): _____

In what industry do you work? _____

How long have you worked at your current job (in years)? _____

Do you plan to stay with your current job long term?
- o   Yes
- o   No
- o   Not sure

Appendix J: Opening Message of Survey

Title: Investigating Predictors and Outcomes of Motivation to Learn in the Workplace

Investigator:
Jessica Wisniewski
M.S. in Applied Psychology
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Description:
The purpose of the study is to investigate potential predicting variables that may be related to motivation to learn in the workplace. As part of this study, you will be asked to share your thoughts on your workplace, experiences at work, and yourself.

Risks and Benefits:
As a participant, you may be concerned about sharing honest opinions about your job. It is possible you may experience discomfort from reflecting on these topics, but questions are not expected to pose more than minimal risk. Their content is common to conversational topics you might typically discuss with coworkers and friends about work. Only general demographic information will be collected from you.

Time Commitment and Payment:
The survey will take approximately 15-20 minutes, depending on your rate of reading and responding to the questions. By successfully completing the survey and providing an email address, you will have the chance to win one of five $20 Amazon gift cards. No other compensation is offered for participation.

Confidentiality:
Your name will not be included on any documents. We do not believe that you can be identified from any of this information. Email addresses will be obtained only for the purpose of reaching out to the winners of the gift cards. You WILL NOT receive any other emails from the researcher.

Right to Withdraw:
Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary. You may choose not to participate without any adverse consequences to you. You have the right to stop the survey at any time. However, should you choose to participate and later wish to withdraw from the study, there is no way to identify your anonymous document after it has been turned into the investigator. If you are participating in an anonymous online survey, once you submit your response, the data cannot be linked to you and cannot be withdrawn.

IRB Approval:
This study has been reviewed and approved by The University of Wisconsin-Stout's Institutional Review Board (IRB). The IRB has determined that this study meets the ethical obligations required by federal law and University policies. If you have questions or concerns regarding this

study, please contact the Investigator or Advisor. If you have any questions, concerns, or reports regarding your rights as a research subject, please contact the IRB Administrator.

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Statement of Consent:
I have read the above information. I have received answers to any questions I have asked. I consent to participate in the study titled **Investigating Predictors and Outcomes of Motivation to Learn in the Workplace**. To maintain anonymity, my signature will not be collected.