TECHNISCHE UNIVERSITÄT MÜNCHEN

Lehrstuhl für Psychologie

Organizational Visions and Followers' Motives

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Vollständiger Abdruck der von der Fakultät für Wirtschaftswissenschaften der

Technischen Universität München zur Erlangung des akademischen Grades eines

Doktors der Wirtschaftswissenschaften (Dr. rer. pol.)

genehmigten Dissertation.

Vorsitzende: Univ.-Prof. Dr. Alwine Mohnen

Prüfer der Dissertation:

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Die Dissertation wurde am 03.12.2012 bei der Technischen Universität München

eingereicht und durch die Fakultät für Wirtschaftswissenschaften am 15.06.2013

angenommen.

This is dedicated to my mom and my dad.

Acknowledgement

Over the past years, I have received support and encouragement from a great number of individuals.

First, I want to thank my supervisor, Hugo M. Kehr. His guidance and room for freedom as well as his inspiration and his challenging thoughts have made this a rewarding journey. Furthermore, I would like to thank Oliver Alexy for taking the responsibility as my second supervisor.

This work would not have been possible without the support of several managers of the contributing companies. I want to thank all of them for their trust and help.

My colleagues provided valuable statistical advice and psychological insights. Some spent countless hours proofreading and discussing my research. I would like to thank Alex, Dorena, Elli, Friederike, Ina, Maika, Matthias S. and Susi for their feedback on various aspects of this project. Furthermore, I want to thank Matthias K. and Verena for their support during data gathering and preparation.

In addition, I received valuable support as I moved from an idea to a completed project from Theresa Stein, my doctorial companion.

Finally, I want to thank Anke Schmidt for giving me a push whenever I needed it and for so much more.

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Statistical Abbreviations and Symbols

Abbreviation/ Symbol	Definition
ANCOVA	Analysis of Covariance
autoNegAss	Negative Associations (automatically coded)
autoPosAss	Positive Associations (automatically coded)
B	Unstandardized Regression Coefficient
CI	Confidence Interval
df	Degree of Freedom
F	Fisher's F-ratio
M	Mean (arithmetic average)
manPosAss	Positive Associations (manually coded)
MMG	Multi-Motive-Grid
MVS	Munich Vision Scale
n	Number in a Subsample
N	Total Number in Sample
nAch	Implicit Achievement Motive (need for achievement)
nAff	Implicit Affiliation Motive (need for affiliation)
nAg	Implicit Agency Motive (need for agency)
nPow	Implicit Power Motive (need for power)
ns	Non-significant
p	Probability; also the success probability of a binominal variable
PAF	Principal Axis Factoring
PCE	Principal Components Extraction
PSE	Picture Story Exercise
r	Pearson Product – Moment Correlation
R^2	Multiple Correlation Squared, Measure of Strength of a Relationship
sanAch	Explicit (self-attributed) Achievement Motive
sanAff	Explicit (self-attributed) Affiliation Motive
sanAg	Explicit (self-attributed) Agency Motive
sanPow	Explicit (self-attributed) Power Motive
SD	Standard Deviation
SE	Standard Error (of measurement)
t	Compared Value of t test
UMS	Unified Motive Scale
α	Cronbach's Index of Internal Consistency
β	Beta; standardized multiple regression coefficient
Δ	Delta (cap); increment of change
χ^2	Computed Value of Chi-Square Test

1. Abstract

Organizational visions are a core element of modern leadership theories. Leadership researchers have long argued that leaders, followers, and organizations benefit from organizational visions. Moreover, motivational psychologists have recently suggested that followers' motives relate to attitudinal and behavioral effects of visions (Kehr, Rawolle, & Strasser, 2010). The current research applies a motive-based approach to examine when an organizational vision inspires followers and why followers commit to an organizational vision. Two distinct mechanisms are proposed: (1) organizational visions, understood as distal goals of the organization, activate the explicit motives system leading to followers' commitment; (2) the representation of organizational visions as mental images arouses the implicit motives system, leading to followers' inspiration.

Furthermore, it is hypothesized that the organizational context (organizational commitment, trust in management, and vision-derived goals) as well as vision attributes (challenge, vividness) moderate the influence of followers' implicit and explicit motives on their inspiration and commitment, respectively. Moreover, it is argued here that activated positive affect mediates the effect of the implicit motive system on followers' inspiration. The current research tests these ideas in three cross-sectional field studies ($N_1 = 105$, $N_2 = 255$, $N_3 = 60$) in two multinational companies. The findings mainly support the predictions. Implications for further research and practice are discussed.

2. Introduction

"I believe that this nation should commit itself to achieving the goal, before this decade is out, of landing a man on the moon and returning him safely to the earth" (Kennedy, 1961, p. 518). This vivid picture of the future inspired more than the 400,000 people in about 20,000 companies within the Apollo Program (Lotter, 2004); John F. Kennedy's vision appealed to an entire nation.

More than 50 years later, visions have surged in their popularity among organizational leaders and researchers. In fact, having an organizational vision is not only considered usual but also highly important for companies. Baum, Locke, and Kirkpatrick (1998) showed that companies with a vision statement grow faster compared to those without one. In addition, several other researchers predicted organizational outcomes based on the nature of the vision statement itself (e.g., Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996) or, even more popular, in conjunction with vision-based leadership styles (Bass, 1985; Bryman, 1992; Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993; Yukl, 1998).

Even though leadership researchers have long argued that appealing to followers with a well-articulated vision inspires and creates commitment among followers (cf. Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006), there is a lack of research on the underlying mechanisms of this effect. A starting point is offered in a recent string of research focusing on follower-centered explanations for physiological, affective, attitudinal and behavioral changes. Several scholars have provided initial evidence that the relation between visions and individuals' motives affects individual outcomes (Kehr & Rawolle, 2007; Kehr, Rawolle, & Strasser, 2010; Rawolle, 2010; Strasser, 2011).

The present work examines dependencies between organizational visions and followers' motives by means of three field studies in five countries. Thus, this research sheds light on the effect of followers' implicit and explicit motives as predictors for their inspiration induced by a vision statement and for followers' commitment to a vision, respectively. The following question summarizes the focus of this research: *When and why are followers committed to and inspired by an organizational vision?*

The present work is structured as follows. The remainder of this chapter introduces research related to the core question, embedding it into a wider research context. Section 2.1 and 2.2 provide an overview on organizational visions and related constructs from leadership disciplines. Section 2.3 explores vision-related research from psychological disciples. Section 2.4 introduces a dual concept of motivation, providing the framework for the core hypotheses of the present work. Section 2.5 explores the commitment and inspiration constructs. Sections 2.6 and 2.7 depict vision attributes and the perceived organizational context as confounding factors for followers' commitment and inspiration. Lastly, Section 2.8 integrates the previous elements into the present research, outlining the unique contribution of this work.

 Chapters 3, 4, and 5 cover three empirical studies. Each study is theoretically framed, followed by a description of its methods, results, and discussion. In Chapter 6, the overall results are discussed, including limitations of this work, a further research agenda, and implications for practitioners.

2.1 Organizational Visions and Related Constructs

Following leadership research, *organizational visions* have been defined as an image of the future (Kouzes & Posner, 1987) or as an ideal that represents the values

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of an organization (House & Shamir, 1993), articulating the purpose and identity of followers (Boal & Bryson, 1988). Besides organizational visions, which refer to the organization as a collective, visions can focus on individuals. The latter are termed personal visions (Strasser, 2011).

Furthermore, organizations and researches frequently combine the vision construct with other constructs like mission, value, or strategy statements. The definition and purpose of these constructs vary depending on the source or origin, though they are difficult to distinguish (cf. Collins & Porras, 1991). Nonetheless, this research addresses the integration and differentiation of visions and other constructs. Thus, two frequently mentioned complementary core elements of visions offer a starting point. Accordingly, visions represent (1) distal goals in the future (Latham & Locke, 1991) and (2) mental images of the future (Kouzes & Posner, 1987; Kehr, 2005).

(1) The first element of visions is derived from leadership research. Accordingly, a corresponding construct to visions is goals (e.g., Conger, 1999; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996). Recently, Strasser (2011) emphasized the similarity of visions to complex goals. Further comparisons refer to visions and goals as desirable end states in the future (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996). Other scholars have referred to visions as a subclass of goals: visions are seen as "idealized goals" to be achieved in the future (Conger, 1999, p. 153) or as "distal goals," giving a sense of purpose to followers (Latham & Locke, 1991, p. 240). Similarly to distal goals, visions do not exhibit a definite time frame and are rather long-term oriented (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996). Both distal goals and visions need to be backed up with proximal goals to be effectively implemented (Latham & Locke, 1991). Even though the aforementioned scholars used different attributes (idealized, desirable, distal, and complex) to specify

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the core characteristic of visions, the present study refers to visions as distal goals, as this expression seems to summarize the characteristic of visions as a specific subclass of goals sufficiently.

(2) The second element of visions encompasses their picture-like representation of the future. In contrast to other goals, several authors emphasize that the term "vision" implies an imaginative, mental component (i.e., Conger, 1999; Kouzes & Posner, 1987; Kehr & Rawolle, 2007; Rawolle, 2010). Rawolle (2010, p. 5) defined visions as "mental images of a desirable yet attainable future," emphasizing the imaginative component of visions without contradicting the definition of visions as distal goals. Moreover, the "mental image" definition replaces rather broad attributions (e.g., idealized) with a more precise description. Claiming the mental image to be attainable, Rawolle's (2010) definition circumvents potential confusions with other constructs, such as hallucinations.

Taken together, the present work uses a dual definition of organizational visions: Organizational visions are desirable mental images representing the long-term objective of the organization.

Based on this definition, visions can be differentiated from related constructs: visions are different to other goals, because visions are rather long-term oriented (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996); and visions are not only represented in a verbal format, but also represented as mental images (Conger, 1999; Kehr & Rawolle, 2007; Strasser, 2011). In addition, organizational visions are different from mission and strategy statements, which are defined as "set[s] of propositions that guide the policy and behavior of a company" (Campbell & Yeung, 1991, p. 18), because this definition does not involve mental images. However, other scholars include the notion of visualization in their concepts for mission and strategy statements. For example,

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missions and strategy statements representing a projection of the organizational purpose (Desmidt & Prinzie, 2008) are conceptually closer to the definition of organizational visions as mental images.

In addition to the content-based definition of organizational visions, the present study differentiates *vision statements* as a sub-construct of organizational visions. Usually, the leaders of an organizational create an organizational vision, which is condensed in a vision statement. Thus, even though leaders can explain their organizational vision in detail using many sentences, they can only provide one vision statement to their followers. This vision statement is often used in the internal and external communication of an organization. The present research uses the term "vision statement" strictly in reference to the condensed version of an organizational vision. Vision, mission, and strategy statements are widespread across organizations, but not used and labeled homogeneously; thus, for the purposes of the present work, all such statements are considered equally worthy of study whenever the dual character of organizational visions as distal goal and mental image is met by the statement. This approach should sufficiently address the main purpose of the study, which is to determine whether and how followers' commitment and inspiration is affected by these common and widespread statements.

To further understand underlying motivational processes of visions, the present paper presents a discussion of findings in two fields of research: motivational effects from organizational visions as a core component of most influential leadership theories (see Chapter 2.2) and motivational effects of envisioning the future on an individual level from psychological research (see Chapter 2.3). Theories for explanation of these motivational effects are provided in both sections.

2.2 Organizational Visions as a Motivational Instrument in the Leadership Context

In the present section, motivational effects of visions in the organizational context and explanations for these effects are separately discussed.

Motivational Effects of Organizational Visions on Followers

A considerable amount of leadership research supports the notion of motivational benefits of visions as a leadership instrument. Accordingly, leaders motivate followers by articulating and implementing a vision (Baum et al., 1998; Yukl, 1998). This idea is shared among the most influential leadership theories of the last decade: charismatic leadership (House, 1977; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1989; Conger & Kanungo, 1998), visionary leadership (Sashkin, 1988), and transformational leadership (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1993). The most notable effects of organizational visions across the theories are followers' increase of satisfaction, self-efficacy, and commitment to the organization (Bryman, 1992; Shamir et al., 1993; Yukl, 1998). In the context of these theories, it is important to distinguish the root cause of the effects. Most studies in this section did examine the effect of leadership as a multidimensional construct, rather than isolating the effects of visions as a subcomponent of leadership. For example, Bass (1985) distinguishes four components of transformational leadership: idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, individual consideration, and motivational inspiration. However, only the latter component included the communication of a vision.

In addition, the theories focus on the role of leaders as an important factor for effective vision communication (Bass, 1985; Shamir et al., 1993; Conger & Kanungo, 1998), undervaluing the role of followers. Research that isolates the effects of visions

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from leaders' behavior is scarce. Two studies provide empirical support for positive outcomes on the organizational level: visions promote venture growth (Baum et al., 1998) as well as acceleration of organizational change (Larwood, Falbe, Kirger, & Miesing, 1995). Another two studies provide empirical support on an individual level that visions promote followers' performance, ideal-self, and their attitudes (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996; Stam, van Knippenberg, & Wisse, 2010).

In line with calls from other scholars for more knowledge about underlying processes of followers in leadership research (Shamir et al., 1993; Ehrhart & Klein, 2001; Howell & Shamir, 2005), the focus of the present research is on followers. In particular, a better understanding of the motivational mechanisms of followers in the context of organizational visions may be beneficial for both organizational leaders and their followers.

Follower-Centered Explanations of Motivational Effects

The body of research reviewed above provides the notion that followers benefit from organizational visions. However, the theoretical explanation of the underlying processes remains open. The present subsection focusses on explanations that involve follower-centered motivational theories.

(1) Path-goal theory (Evans, 1970; House, 1971) offered one of the first follower-centered explanations for motivated behavior. Evans (1970) emphasized the connection between followers' beliefs and behavior with leaders' behavior. According to the theory, outcomes result from a complex interaction of leadership behavior with followers' characteristics and situational attributes. Even though empirical evidence is scarce (for a meta-analysis, see Evans, 1995), the theory clearly highlights the role of followers' personality characteristics in the underlying motivational process. The present research adds to this theory, empirically exploring the role of selected

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personality characteristics – like followers' implicit and explicit motives. These are specified in more detail in following chapters.

(2) Self-concept theories distinguish followers' self and self-concepts (Higgins, 1987, 1996; Markus & Wurf, 1987). In the context of leadership theories, the main idea builds on the assumption that leaders' behavior affects self-concepts of followers, which, in turn, affects motivation. According to Shamir and colleagues (1993), the articulation of a vision may be used to make actions oriented towards a subordinate goal more meaningful, because followers can better align their actions with their own self-concept. The authors argue that visionary leaders increase the intrinsic value of followers' efforts, positively influencing self-expression, self-consistency and self-esteem.

However, as in in the previously mentioned leadership theories, the articulation of a vision is not explicitly considered as distinct leadership behavior; moreover, this has not been explicitly empirically tested. Exceptions are the experimental work of Stam and colleagues (2010). In that work, students were more likely to create an ideal-self image of the future, if a vision statement addressed them personally compared to one that did not. Moreover, students were more motivated to perform when they had a tendency to focus on ideals instead of duties and responsibilities. The authors argue that visions as ideal images of the future can be personalized into an "ideal future self-image" of followers (Stam et al., 2010, p. 458).

Self-concept theories as motivational explanations have limitations. Weinberger and McClelland (1990) argue that these theories overemphasize conscious cognitive preferences of followers and that unconscious affective preferences are underestimated (for a review of similar lines of argumentation, see Kehr, 2004c).

Nevertheless, the present work will add to this theory, considering explicit motives as a related construct to self-concepts.

(3) Another motivational explanation for the effectiveness of visions comes from Ilies, Judge, and Wagner (2006). They explicitly separate a cognitive and affective process influencing followers' motivation. Accordingly, the articulation of a vision cognitively influences goal setting such that followers demonstrate higher commitment to the vision-derived goals. These goals, in turn, affect followers' self-efficacy. On the affective side, leaders' charisma is responsible for transmitting leaders' emotions, which in turn lead to positive emotions of followers. Even though Ilies and colleagues (2006) not only acknowledged but also integrated affective processes into their motivational explanation, they did not discuss a direct influence of the vision itself on followers' emotions and affective preferences. According to their theory, isolated effects from the articulation of a vision are solely explained with the cognitive process mentioned earlier. Furthermore, this theory has not been empirically tested. The present work will add twofold to this explanation. First, leader-independent affective processes are integrated as an additional source for followers' motivation. Second, the influence of cognitive processes on followers' motivation is empirically tested.

(4) Choi's (2006) explanation of motivational effects integrates the influence of charismatic leadership on followers' motives. More specifically, the author describes three basic motives of followers that should be addressed by complementary leadership strategies: the need for achievement should be addressed by envisioning, the need for power should be addressed by empowerment, and the need for affiliation should be addressed by empathic behavior. Accordingly, motivational effects of visions relate to followers' need for achievement. Choi argues that visions stimulate

the need for achievement of followers, since they are greatly discrepant from the status quo. These isolated effects appear during vision articulation and are independent from the vision content. The author did not discuss potential interactions of the vision content and followers' motives. Again, to the best knowledge of the author, the theory has not been empirically tested. The present work will add to this explanation, integrating the vision content as a further moderator.

(5) One further explanation for motivated behavior of followers comes from Mio, Riggio, Levin, and Reese's (2005) research on the effect of metaphoric language. The authors emphasize the effects of metaphoric language in presidential speeches as a filter, leaving the main idea more vivid and clear to followers. They argue that the use of a metaphoric language triggers emotional reactions in followers. The present work will also draw on this explanation, since metaphoric language (or "mental images") is part of vision statements, too.

In sum, various motivational mechanisms for the effectiveness of visions are suggested. However the following issues remain:

(1) Within leadership research there is a lack of empirical vision research backing up theoretical frameworks.

(2) Most of the motivational explanations focus on cognitive processes, undervaluing the effects of affective processes.

(3) Empirical studies isolating the influence of organizational visions from leaders attributes are scarce. In particular, the effects of followers' implicit and explicit motives on motivational outcomes have not yet been examined in field studies.

For a better understanding of the intra-personal processes of followers, the following section discusses findings from psychological research on individuals envisioning the future.

2.3 Envisioning the Future: Effects and Explanations from Psychological

Research

On an individual level, a substantial amount of psychological research supports

the assumption that envisioning a desired future relates to motivational benefits

(Sherman, Skov, Hervitz, & Stock, 1981; Taylor & Pham, 1996; Ruvolo & Markus,

1992). However, scholars do not usually refer to the term "vision" directly.

Nevertheless, existing research on *goal imagination* (Schultheiss & Brunstein, 1999),

goal fantasies (Job & Brandstätter, 2009), and *mental contrasting* (Oettingen et al.,

2009) may help to understand underlying mechanisms of visions in an organizational

context.

A shared finding across several studies is that individuals who envision the

future or future actions show higher levels of motivation and performance. In this

context, envisioning is meant as a form of complete indulgence in thoughts about the

future or future actions. Empirical evidence of this is given for anagram tasks

(Sherman et al., 1981), students' midterm exams (Taylor & Pham, 1996), and

persistence tasks (Ruvolo & Markus, 1992). In these studies, participants who

imagined a desirable outcome showed higher levels of motivation and performance

than participants who did not imagine a positive outcome. Taylor and colleagues

(Taylor, Pham, Rivkin, & Armor, 1998) assumed that envisioning the outcome

increases emotional involvement, expectations of success, and motivation, whereas

envisioning the process prompts concrete action plans and problem-solving activities.

In their explanation on positive effects of goal imaging, Schultheiss and

Brunstein (1999) ascribed a major role to followers' motives. The authors highlighted

the importance of envisioning as a "catalyst in connecting individuals' goals to their

motives" (p. 29). The results of their experimental studies underline the notion that

envisioning a goal is a prerequisite to predicting individuals' motivation and performance by the individuals' implicit motives (for more details on implicit vs. explicit motives, see Chapter 2.4).

A similar line of reasoning is provided in Kehr's (2004b) compensatory model of work motivation and volition. The model suggests that individuals can compensate for a lack of motivation in two ways: consciously, with volitional strategies or unconsciously, with volitional mechanisms (Kehr, 2004c). According to this model, (unconsciously) imaging a future or a future outcome represents a volitional mechanism that helps overcome motivational deficits. If used consciously, imaging the future represents a volitional strategy. Transferring the previously described mechanism into an organizational context means that envisioning a desirable future state (i.e., an organizational vision) might connect the individuals' motives to the situation. Thus, individuals should be more able to act according to their motivation and the situation.

Furthermore, Oettingen and colleagues (Oettingen & Mayer, 2002; Oettingen, Pak, & Schnetter, 2001) showed that mental contrasting of a desired future with the present reality is a strategy that increases goal attainment. According to Oettingen and colleagues (2001), envisioning a desired future and contrasting it to the present reality creates expectations, which determine the strength of commitment to the imagined future. Despite the focus on explicit motivational mechanisms (i.e., self-efficacy), the authors concede that envisioning also elicits unconscious motivational processes.

Strasser (2011) explicitly examined the linkage between personal visions and personal goals. Her results show that personal visions were associated with unconscious (implicit) motives and supported goal progress of vision-derived goals. Furthermore, personal visions enabled participants to derive personal goals that

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matched their unconscious motives. Thus, envisioning triggered an automatic comparison between personality characteristics and goals that were derived from personal visions (Strasser, 2011).

Another research found remarkable results concerning the interaction of visions and unconscious motivational processes. Rawolle (2010) provides evidence that mentally imaging a personal vision arouses unconscious motives' that match with the motive content of the vision statement. Her results of three laboratory experiments show that indulging in motive-specific visions increases the corresponding motive imagery, motivation-related affect, and motive-specific physiological indicators. Taken together, these findings suggest that envisioning a mental picture of the future arouses implicit motivational processes leading to affective reactions (Kehr et al., 2010).

In sum, a considerable amount of psychological research supports the notion that envisioning the future results in positive motivational outcomes. Furthermore, various motivational mechanisms were suggested. In particular, the link to individuals' motives was frequently considered as a predictor in the previously mentioned studies. To further integrate findings from psychological research with findings from leadership research, a two-system approach to individuals' motives is introduced in the next section.

2.4 Dual System of Motivation: Explicit and Implicit Motives

In the classical approach to motivation, the interaction between situational and personal variables, such as incentives and motives, led to motivation, and motivation led to behavior (Rheinberg, 2008). Furthermore, McClelland, Koestner, and Weinberger (1989) proposed a two-system approach of personal motives,

differentiating between a more primitive (*implicit*) emotional system derived from affective preferences and a self-attributed (*explicit*) system based on cognitive elaborated constructs. These two motivational systems have been shown to relate to different classes of behavior and act independently (Brunstein & Hoyer, 2002; Brunstein & Maier, 2005; Kehr, 2000, 2004b; Schultheiss & Brunstein, 2010).

Major structural differences between implicit and explicit motives exist (cf. Brunstein, Schultheiss, & Grässman, 1998; McClelland, 1985, 2009; McClelland et al., 1989):

(1) Implicit motives represent recurrent non-conscious needs for affectively rewarding experiences, whereas explicit motives embody cognitive schemata, such as goals and strategies to accomplish these goals.

(2) Implicit motives predict spontaneous behavioral trends over time, whereas explicit motives predict respondent behavior in the sense that they influence conscious attitudes, choices, judgments, and decisions.

(3) Implicit motives are represented in a non-verbal pictorial format, whereas explicit motives are dependent on a language-mediated structure (e.g., self-concepts: Weinberger & McClelland, 1990).

(4) Since implicit motives are not consciously accessible – they are subconsciously aroused and lead to affective preferences –, they cannot be assessed with self-report measures. Instead, projective measurements such as the *Picture Story Exercise* (PSE: McClelland et al., 1989) or semi-projective measures such as the Multi-Motive-Grid (MMG: Sokolowski, Schmalt, Langens, & Puca, 2000) are deployed. Explicit motives are consciously accessible. If activated, they generate cognitive preferences (Kehr, 2004b). Explicit motives can be reflected by the individual. Thus, they can be assessed by self-report methods like questionnaires (e.g.,

Personality Research Form: Jackson, 1984; Unified Motive Scale: Schönbrodt & Gerstenberg, in press).

Motives as a relative stable preference for a certain incentive (McClelland, 1985) are traditionally separated into three "big" motive domains: (1) the affiliation motive as recurrent preference for establishing and maintaining a relationship between individuals (Atkinson, Heyns, & Veroff, 1958), (2) the power motive as recurrent preference to have impact on others or the world at large (Winter, 1973), and (3) the achievement motive as recurrent preference to surpass a standard of excellence (McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, & Lowell, 1953). The big three motive domains are used as classifications in the implicit as well as the explicit motive domain (Brunstein et al., 1998). Furthermore, the power and achievement motives are sometimes subsumed in an agency motive (e.g., Brunstein et al., 1998; Job & Brandstätter, 2009).

In the following chapters, I will describe why motivational effects of organizational visions can be better understood when they are interpreted twofold: (1) as mental images, which relate to the implicit motive system, and (2) as distal goals, which relate to the explicit motive system.

Organizational Visions as Mental Images – Correlates to Implicit Motives

A unique element of the vision construct, its representation as mental image, is considered in recent research as an underestimated cause for motivational effects (Kehr & Rawolle, 2007; Rawolle, 2010; Strasser, 2011). Visions, in their original meaning, appear as a mental image in the stream of thought (Rawolle, 2010). Moreover, results from psychological research suggest that mental images arouse implicit motives (i.e., McClelland, et al., 1989; Schultheiss & Brunstein, 1999; Kehr et al., 2010).

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Schultheiss and Brunstein (1999) found that the intentional translation of goals into an image yielded to an alignment of goal commitment and task performance consistent to the participants' implicit motives. The authors argued that mental pictures have a similar function to that of real pictures (for similar lines of argumentation, see Kehr & Rawolle, 2007).

Furthermore, projective-measures in psychology utilize the same effect: The PSE (McClelland et al., 1989) is a well-established instrument in psychological research. Its external validity in goal contexts is given for goal progress (Schultheiss, Jones, Davis, & Kley, 2008) and success of mastery goals in the achievement domain (Thrash & Elliot, 2002) (for an overview of additional validation criteria, see Schultheiss, 2008). In a PSE, individuals write imaginative stories based on real pictures given to them. Afterwards stories are content coded to receive an indicator for the participants' implicit motives. Hereby, real pictures are used to elicit unconscious motivational processes.

Several authors (Kehr et al., 2010; Rawolle, 2010; Strasser, 2011) have transferred the idea of similar functionalities between real and mental images to personal visions. Their studies provided initial evidence that mental imaging of a vision statement arouses individuals' implicit motives. Rawolle (2010) varied the motive content of personal visions in three lab experiments and measured the resulting implicit motivation with physiological, behavioral, affective, and mental content indicators. Her results provide evidence that a motive-thematic personal vision arouses the corresponding implicit motive in a lab environment. The results of Strasser's (2011) studies with visionaries provide insight into the relation of personal visions and visionaries' implicit motives. She found a strong match of visionaries' implicit motives with the motive-content of their personal visions. Furthermore, the

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motive-content in participants' personal vision mediated the relation of implicit

motives and corresponding personal goals. Participants who imagined their personal

vision (compared to people without a personal vision) formulated goals closer to their

implicit motives.

Moreover, the findings of Naidoo and Lord (2008) indirectly support the

importance of pictures for the arousal of followers' implicit motives. In an experiment,

the scholars manipulated presidential speeches into high imagery and low imagery

versions. In this context, high imagery speeches led to higher charisma ratings; and

even more important, this effect was partially mediated by positive affect – a core

characteristic of implicit motivation (Weinberger & McClelland, 1990).

Taken together, it was expected that followers' implicit motives relate to

motivational outcomes in the context of organizational vision statements, because an

effective imagination of a vision statement leads to affective preferences (aroused

implicit motives) in followers (cf. Kehr, 2005).

Vision Statements as Distal Goals – Correlates to Explicit Motives

Goals are a core element of several motivational theories (Heckhausen, 1977;

Locke & Latham, 1990; Kehr, 2004b). In the dual system of motivation, goals

represent a distinct element of the explicit motive system (Brunstein et al., 1998; Kehr,

2000, 2004b; McClelland et al., 1989; Schultheiss & Brunstein, 1999). According to

the above-mentioned considerations (see Chapter 2.1), visions can be interpreted as a

distinct class of goals: distal goals. Consequently, visions should be represented in the

explicit system, too. To understand potential underlying mechanisms, the links

between explicit motives, goals, and visions need to be considered in more detail.

Whereas explicit motives represent individuals' self-ascribed, abstract, and

cognitive preferences (McClelland et al., 1989), goals are described as specific

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cognitively elaborated representations that a person adapts to their current life situation (Austin & Vancouver, 1996; Brunstein & Maier, 1996). In other words, explicit motives can be viewed as a determinant of goals, but not as a synonym (Kehr, 2004b). Following the idea of goals as midlevel motivational units (Emmons, 1989), visions, as distal goals, represent high-level motivational units.

Traditionally, goal research was focused on midlevel goals (i.e., task performance: Locke & Latham, 2002). Compared to midlevel goals, visions aggregate less complex goals into one distal goal that is relatively high in complexity. Even though one can assume that effects from explicit motives in goals research can be transferred to visions as distal goals, the empirical evidence for visions is not yet conclusive.

Taken together, it was expected that followers' explicit motives relate to motivational outcomes in the context of organizational vision, because visions, like goals, encompass an activation potential for followers' explicit motives, leading to cognitive preferences.

The next chapter integrates these considerations on implicit and explicit motives, suggesting a mechanism to explain why a well-articulated vision leads to followers' commitment and inspiration.

2.5 Followers' Inspiration and Commitment to a Vision

Several factors suggest that followers' inspiration relates to the implicit motive system, whereas followers' commitment relates to the explicit motive system. The present section offers a brief overview of the underlying considerations.

Followers' Inspiration

Traditionally, inspiration in the context of organizational visions is mentioned when visions are utilized as a leadership behavior gaining workforce support (Bass, 1985). In this context, inspiration encompasses the energization of followers and the arousal of their emotions (Conger, 1991) or, more generally, followers' activation and positive valence (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). Thrash and Elliot (2003, p. 957) conceptualized a tripartite model of inspiration, including transcendence, evocation, and motivation. Transcendence refers to seeing better possibilities beyond one's own capacities; evocation includes an object of influence as the cause for inspiration (i.e., a vision statement); and subjects' motivation is expressed as an "appetitive motivational state".

Similar to positive affect, inspiration involves above-baseline levels of motivation. Thrash and Elliot (2004) provide empirical evidence that inspiration and activated positive affect are indistinguishable with regards to motivation-relevant outcome variables. In addition, one can assume a mediation role of positive affect on the relation between the implicit motives and motivational outcomes (Weinberger & McClelland, 1990).

In the present research, the cause for positive affect and inspiration is induced by a vision statement – and, more precisely, by the motive-content of the vision statement. Thus, it was expected that imaging a vision statement gives rise to followers' affective preferences, especially if the motive content of the vision statement matches with followers' implicit motives. It was expected that these different affective preferences would be observed on a proximal level as positive affect and on a distal level as followers' perceived inspiration.

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Followers' Commitment to a Vision

The commitment construct in goal research is defined as followers' "determination to reach a goal" (Locke & Latham, 1990, p. 125). Moreover, goal commitment has been traditionally used as a predictor of performance. Locke and colleagues (1988) suggested a model with goal commitment as the most relevant indicator for performance. Goal commitment as a construct has been defined as "the extent to which goals are associated with a strong sense of determination, unwillingness to abandon or lower the original goal, willingness to invest effort, and effortful striving for goal implementation" (Nenkov & Gollwitzer, 2012, p. 108; see also Brunstein, 1993; Hollenbeck & Klein, 1987; Klein, Wesson, Hollenbeck, Wright, & DeShon, 2001; Oettingen et al., 2001; Kruglanski et al., 2002).

In the present research, followers' commitment refers to a vision statement. Since visions represent distal goals, commitment to a vision is encompassed (ceteris paribus) in Klein's conceptualization of goal commitment (Klein et al., 2001). Hence, followers' commitment to a vision can be defined as an indicator for followers' willingness to pursue the vision and to take action to realize it.

The commitment construct represents a cognitive rather than an affective preference of followers. Furthermore, cognitive preference or cognitive choices have their origin in activated explicit motives (Kehr, 2004b). In the current research, the vision statement (and, more precisely, the motive content of the vision statement) serves as an incentive for activation of the explicit motive system. Taken together, it was expected that envisioning a vision statement gives rise to followers' cognitive preferences, especially if the motive content of the vision statement matches with followers' explicit motives. Further, it was expected that these different cognitive

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preferences would be observed as followers' commitment to the vision (henceforth, *vision commitment*).

Besides the influence of followers' affective and cognitive preferences on their inspiration and vision commitment, respectively, additional predictors need to be considered. In the next two sections, I will discuss two categories of predictors: specific vision attributes (see Chapter 2.6) and followers' perceived organizational context (see Chapter 2.7).

2.6 Vision Attributes Affecting Followers' Perception of a Vision

Not only followers' motives as an attribute of followers' personality, but also attributes of the vision statement itself, may influence followers' perception of the vision statement, and thus their motivation to pursue it. Baum and colleagues (1998) showed a positive correlation between seven vision attributes and visions' effectiveness: brevity, clarity, abstractness, stability, desirability, challenge, and future orientation. Before the connection of outcome measures to vision attributes, Larwood, Falbe, Kirger, and Miesing (1995) were the first to classify reoccurring vision content across corporate visions along 26 vision attributes. In addition, Rawolle, Strasser, and Kehr (2012) developed a scale to further differentiate and characterize vision statements (the Munich Vision Scale [MVS]).

Taken together, it was expected that not only followers' motives, but also selected vision attributes, relate to followers' vision commitment and inspiration. Further, followers' perceived organizational context needs to be considered as a further predictor.

2.7 Organizational Context Affecting Followers' Perception of a Vision

This research has the focus on the effects of followers' motives on followers' vision commitment and their inspiration induced by a vision statement. In this context, the confounding influence of followers' perceived relation to the organization and its leaders, such as followers' trust in management and their commitment to the organization in general, need to be considered.

Traditionally, visions are created by the leaders of an organization with the intent to influence followers to adjust to new organizational circumstances. To understand followers' response to new vision statements, the present section draws a comparison to research on the question of how individuals respond when organizational decisions are imposed on them.

The imposing party in an organization is very often the organization's management, frequently viewed as the organization itself (Oreg & Sverdlik, 2011). Moreover, followers' orientations towards the organization and towards the leaders of the organization are closely interlinked (Oreg & Sverdlik, 2011). The first is represented in followers' *organizational commitment*; the second is represented in followers' *trust in management.* Allen and Mayer (1990, p. 1) defined organizational commitment as followers' "emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization". Trust in management, also called trust in authority, is determined by the leaders' integrity, benevolence, and ability (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). Furthermore, trust in management is one lever to increase followers' adaptation to new organizational circumstances (Duckitt, 1989; Roccas, Sagiv, Schwartz, Halevy, & Eidelson, 2008). Thus, both constructs (organizational commitment and trust in management) are related to followers' identification with the

organization. In addition, the present author assumes that the vision of an organization is a prominent object of identification.

Taken together, it was expected that followers' organizational commitment and trust in management relate to followers' inspiration and vision commitment, because all constructs emphasize followers' identification with the organization. More specifically, the present study explores the question as to when trust in management and followers' organizational commitment predict their inspiration and vision commitment.

The following section integrates the introduced concepts into the present research and outlines the design of three empirical studies accordingly.

2.8 Integration into the Present Research

The present research is split into three field studies complementing the variety of empirical methods of related research from Rawolle (2010) and Strasser (2011) on personal visions. This work contributes several new aspects to the existing research landscape. The duality of an organizational visions' nature as a distal goal and a mental image of the future has not yet been integrated into an empirical study. Furthermore, this work is placed among existing leadership and psychological research on visions and related constructs. This work contributes to both disciplines theoretically and empirically.

For leadership researchers, the present research specifically addresses explanations for the motivational effectiveness of visions as correlates to explicit and implicit motives. Moreover, the studies examine the isolated effects of visions, independent from leaders attributes, and transfer findings from goal theory to the vision construct for the first time.

For psychologists, the present research specifically addresses a lack of field research. More precisely, the studies presented here examine whether theories and results from Rawolle (2010) and Strasser (2011) can be transferred to organizational settings. There are fundamental differences in organizational settings compared to Rawolle's and Strasser's laboratory settings; these differences are addressed in the present research.

Conceptually, the following differences from these two scholars needed to be considered: (1) Both Rawolle (2010) and Strasser (2011) focused on the effects of personal visions on individuals. The focus of the following studies is on organizational visions, which are setup for groups – not individuals. (2) Additionally, the target group of organizational visions is employees, while in each of the studies of Rawolle (2010) and Strasser (2011) at least two thirds of the participants were students. Hence, the present study used field settings over laboratory settings, replaced student samples with organizational samples, and examined organizational visions instead of personal visions.

In addition, and for the first time, the popular construct of organizational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990) is separated from followers' commitment to the vision of the organization (vision commitment). Even though both concepts emphasize followers' attachment and identification, they can be distinguished: Vision commitment is different from organizational commitment because a vision encompasses an *idea of the organization's future*, whereas organizational commitment reflects followers' emotional attachment and identification with the *current* organization. Moreover, vision commitment is more specific than organizational commitment, since it reflects followers' commitment to one specific idea and not to the collective. In addition, Allen and Meyers' (1990) conceptualization

of organizational commitment did not encompass an action orientation of followers (Solinger, van Olffen, & Roe, 2008), whereas commitment to a specific idea like a vision, similarly to goal commitment, has a stronger notion of action orientation.

The following three chapters present three empirical studies. Each chapter follows the same structure. Each starts with the study-specific hypotheses based on the theoretical considerations presented in Chapter 2. Separate descriptions of the applied methods, results and discussions follow subsequently. All studies use a cross-sectional online setup, since it was necessary to consider the need of the organizations for an economic study design. In order to demonstrate the generalization of the effects, three different samples in two organizations were employed.

3. Study 1

Organizational Vision–Implicit Motive Match Predicts Followers' Inspiration

Results from Rawolle (2010) and Strasser (2011) suggest that mentally imaging a (personal) vision arouses individuals' implicit motives that match with the motive content of the vision. The present study (Study 1) transfers this idea to organizational visions for the first time.

Vision-Corresponding Implicit Motive

According to Rheinberg (2008), motivation is manifested through an interaction of a situation and an individual's motive disposition. More specifically, a situation involving a motive-specific incentive (e.g., the achievement motive) is more likely to lead to affective preferences (Kehr, 2004b) if the person's motive disposition matches with the motive-specific incentive (e.g., the person has a high implicit achievement motive). In the current research, the vision statement itself serves as the motive-specific incentive. Thereby, the vision statement can thematically focus on one or more motives – termed "mono-motive-thematic" or "multi-motive-thematic" vision statements, respectively (Kehr, 2005, p. 144). Followers' implicit motive(s) that thematically match with the predominant motive(s) of the vision statement are termed *vision-corresponding implicit motive(s)*.

Followers' Inspiration by the Vision Statement

The present author argues that the imagination of the vision statement will be more likely to lead to affective preferences for followers with a high rather than low vision-corresponding implicit motive. Further, it was expected that followers'

affective preferences would be observed as their perceived inspiration by the vision statement. Thus, in the present study, followers' inspiration represents a distal level of followers' affective preferences in contrast to followers' activated positive affect representing a more proximal level of their affective preferences (more details are discussed below).

In sum, a vision statement (and, more precisely, its representation as mental image) is likely to increase followers' inspiration – as a distal representation of their affective preferences – if they have a high vision-corresponding implicit motive. Hence, the following *implicit motive hypothesis*:

Hypothesis 1.1: Followers' vision-corresponding implicit motives are positively associated with followers' inspiration.

Positive Associations

On a proximal level, it was expected that followers' motive arousal would be observed as positive affect. Strack and Deutsch (2004) conceptually link the experience of positive (and negative) affect, the associative system, and motivational orientation. The authors postulate the existence of an associative (impulsive) and a reflective information-processing system, whereby the associative system influences individuals' motivational orientation (Strack & Deutsch, 2004). Hence, the present author suggests that followers' (positive) associations with the vision statement provide an approximation of (positive) affect, because positive associations relate to positive affect. Moreover, inspiration is an empirically validated correlate of positive affect (Thrash & Elliot, 2004).

Taken together, I expect that positive associations mediate the effect of followers' implicit motives on followers' inspiration, because positive associations are more likely to occur for followers' with high rather than low vision-corresponding implicit motives. In addition, associations that are more positive should relate to higher levels of inspiration than less positive associations do. Hence, the following *mediation hypothesis*:

Hypothesis 1.2: Positive associations regarding the vision statement mediate the effect of vision-corresponding implicit motives on followers' inspiration.

Vision Attribute: Vividness of the Vision

Considering that mental images arouse implicit motives similar to real pictures (Schultheiss & Brunstein, 1999), it seems likely that the *vividness* of the vision, representing its pictorial quality, has a confounding effect on followers' affective preferences. In communication, vivid messages are used to create attention, increasing the perceived importance of the messages (MacKenzie, 1986). Nisbett and Ross (1980) define vivid messages as emotionally interesting, imagery provoking, and proximal in sensory, temporal, or spatial ways. Following their line of reasoning, vivid messages hold people's attention by being more emotional intense than non-vivid messages are. Transferring this idea to vivid visions, it was expected that higher vividness rather than lower vividness intensifies recipients' emotional reactions. More precisely, the present author assumes that the affective preferences of followers, which can be observed as their positive associations with the vision, can be better

predicted by followers' vision-corresponding implicit motives when the vividness of

the statement is high rather than low. Hence, the following *vividness hypothesi*s:

Hypothesis 1.3: The vividness of the vision statement moderates the effect

of the vision-corresponding implicit motives on followers' positive

associations. Followers' positive associations are better predicted by the

vision-corresponding implicit motive when the perceived vividness of the

vision statement is high rather than low.

Perceived Organizational Context: Trust in Management

Even though Study 1 focuses on the relation of the implicit motive and

motivational outcomes, it also considered the organizational context as perceived by

followers. In Study 1, the perceived organizational context was operationalized as

trust in management.

The significance of trust in management for positive behavioral and attitudinal

outcomes has been recognized across new leadership theories (Kirkpatrick & Locke,

1996; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Since the vision statement as an idea of the management

is assigned and not determined by the followers, the followers have two options to

interpret this influence (Cha & Edmondson, 2006): in a constructive manner – i.e.,

providing a higher common purpose for many tasks – or more cynically, as a

manipulation to work even harder. The interpretation often depends on the perceived

trustworthiness of the organizational management (Cha & Edmondson, 2006). If trust

in management influences followers interpretation of leadership behavior

(constructive vs. cynical), the present author proposes that trust in management also

influences followers' inspiration induced by the managements' vision statement. It

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was expected that the influence of trust in management on followers' inspiration would show that the relationship of followers' positive associations and their inspiration is stronger when trust in management is high. Hence, the following *trust moderation hypothesis:*

Hypothesis 1.4: Trust in management moderates the effect of followers' positive associations on followers' inspiration. Followers' inspiration is higher when trust in management is high rather than low.

Statistical Considerations

To summarize the theoretical considerations in statistical terms, a positive main effect of the vision-corresponding implicit motive on inspiration was expected. In addition, an indirect effect with positive associations mediating the effect between the vision-corresponding implicit motive and inspiration, such that the direct effects of the vision-corresponding motive on followers' inspiration are reduced significantly, was expected. The vision-corresponding implicit motive should positively relate to positive associations, which, in turn, should positively relate to followers' inspiration. Further, the vividness of the vision was expected to moderate the relationship between the vision-corresponding implicit motive and followers' positive associations such that a high vividness amplifies the influence of the vision-corresponding implicit motive on positive associations. Lastly, trust in management was expected to moderate the relationship between positive associations and followers' inspiration such that trust amplifies the influence of positive associations on followers' inspiration. Figure 1 illustrates the conceptual hypotheses of the study.
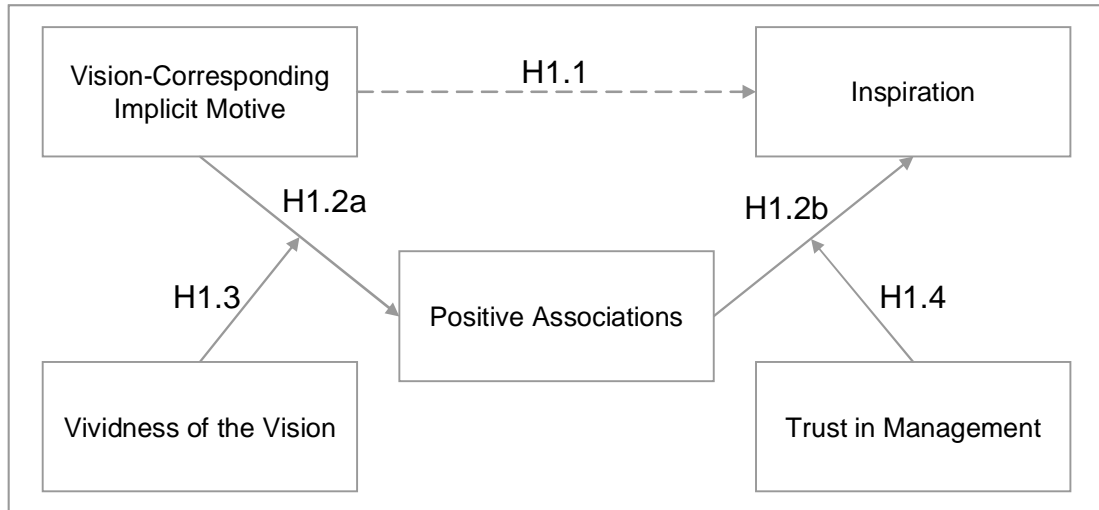
Figure 1. Conceptual Summary of Research Hypotheses, Study 1.

3.1 Method

A global business unit of a large multi-national engineering company volunteered for cooperation. A cross-sectional online design was administered considering specifics of field research in terms of an economical and executable study design. After a re-organization, the present author supported the global management team to develop a new vision statement in a two-day workshop.[1] For the formulation of the vision statement, workshop participants were encouraged to consider the attributes posited by Baum and colleagues (1998: see Section 2.6). This research complemented the initial global communication of the vision statement to the employees of the organization. In this study, the newly-created vision statement was used as stimulus materials to test the hypothesis. The study was conducted in the United States of America.

Predominant Motive Content of the Vision Statement: To examine the motive content of the new vision statement, the statement itself and supplementary material, provided by the organization, was content coded for the three motive domains: achievement, affiliation and power.[2] A mature coding system was used for motive coding in running text (Winter, 1991). Considerable efforts have been dedicated to its construction, refinement and validation. Moreover, this coding system has been used in previous research on implicit motives (e.g., Schultheiss & Brunstein, 2001).

According to this coding system (see also Schultheiss & Brunstein, 2001):

(1) *Need for achievement* is scored whenever a concern with a standard of excellence is expressed. Indications are adjectives that positively evaluate performances, other positive evaluations of goals and performances, mention of

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[1] In addition, a new global mission statement was developed in the same workshop. However, this statement is not part of this study.
[2] Note that this document does not contain the companies' vision and mission statements due to confidentiality reasons.

winning or competing with others, disappointment about failure, or mention of unique accomplishment.

(2) *Need for power* is scored whenever a concern with having impact on others is expressed. Indications are strong, forceful actions, as well as controlling, influencing, helping, impressing, or eliciting emotions in others.

(3) *Need for affiliation* is scored whenever a concern with establishing, maintaining, or restoring friendly relations is expressed. Indications are expressions of positive feelings toward others; sadness about separation; affinitive activities; or friendly, nurturing acts.

Four experts, including the present author, content-coded the material. Prior to coding, all scorers had undergone coding training using the materials contained in Winter (1991) until they had achieved percentage agreement of 85% or better with calibration materials. The four scorers coded the statement, including its supplementary material, independently. Thus, the scoring rules were applied in a consistent, unbiased manner. In a second step, scoring disagreements were resolved by discussion, and the agreed scores were used as the final motive scores for the vision statement. Table 2 summarizes the motive scores of the vision statement by each scorer.

Table 2
Predominant Motive Content of the Vision Statement, Study 1

Expert	Motive Scores		
	Achievement	Affiliation	Power
1	3	0	1
2	3	0	1
3	3	0	0
4	2	0	0
Expert Agreement	3	0	1

Note: Motive scores were derived according to Winter's (1991) coding scheme.

According to the analysis, the vision statement has one single predominant motive: need for achievement. In other words, the vision is markedly more "mono-

motive thematic" than "multi-motive thematic" (Kehr, 2005, p. 144). Hence, Study 1 focused on the achievement domain, testing the hypotheses regarding a mono-motive thematic statement.

Procedure

Potential participants were invited via email to give feedback to the new vision statement in an online survey. The invitation email conveyed that the management team would like to receive feedback on employees' initial perception of the new vision statement. Participation was on a volunteer basis and individuals were assured anonymity and confidentiality of the data. No monetary compensation was given to any of the participants. Test methods were administered to participants online via their workplace in English.

The survey started with the assessment of followers' implicit achievement motive. Then, the explicit achievement motive and trust in management were assessed. Afterwards, the vision statement was presented on the screen and participants were asked to carry out an association task to canvas their associations and ideas around the statement for a certain timeframe. Vividness of the vision statement and the dependent measure for inspiration were subsequently assessed. Then, participants were asked to provide some demographical data (gender, age, highest degree, type of employment, organizational tenure). Finally, participants were thanked for completing the survey.

Association tasks: After a short introduction to the task, the new vision statement was displayed for 30 seconds on the screen. Participants were asked to remember the statement and received the guiding question: "Reflecting on the vision, what impressions, emotions and pictures come to your mind?" On the following screen, only the question remained and participants wrote down their associations. Response time was limited to two minutes. The major objective of the association

tasks was to stimulate openly the attitudes of the participants. Afterwards, task

protocols were used to derive two measures for participants' positive associations.

Statistical Analyses

Mainly regression analyses of covariance (ANCOVA) were applied to

investigate the data of all three studies. Furthermore, t-tests and bivariate correlations

were involved. An alpha level of .05 (two-tailed) was employed across all studies. If

not otherwise stated, all analyses were conducted with SPSS[3] 20.0.

Participants

A total of 105 employees from one business unit participated in the survey.. Age

groups were relatively even distributed (18–25 years: 2.02%; 26–33: 20.20%; 34–41:

21.21%; 42–49: 19.91%, 50–57: 25.25%, older: 12.12%); 23.16% percent of the

participants were female. The majority, 91.67%, had a bachelor degree or higher;

96.04% were employed full time. Organizational tenure varied from less than 4 years

(38.61%), over 4 to 20 years (41.58%), up to over 20 years (19.80%).

Independent Measures

Implicit Achievement Motive (nAch).

I measured the implicit achievement motive (*nAch*) using the MMG (Schmalt,

Sokolowski, & Langens, 2000, 2001). The MMG is a semi-projective measurement

combining the advantage of using pictures to arouse unconscious motives with the

advantages of questionnaire measures of motives (Sokolowski et al., 2000; Schüler,

2010). The MMG presents 14 ambiguous pictures, each of which represents situations

arousing the implicit power, affiliation, or achievement motives. For every picture,

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[3] SPSS: Statistical Package for the Social Sciences – a computer program used for statistical analysis

subjects rate a set of statements according to whether the statement corresponds to the picture or not. Statements represent emotions, cognitions, and actions related to a specific motive domain (for achievement: "feeling confident to succeed at this task", "feeling good about one's competence").

The MMG allows assessment of a hope and a fear component of implicit motives. In the achievement domain, the two components are hope-for-success and fear-of-failure. The study was focused on the hope component of the achievement motive, since the research question addressed only the hope component. Motive scores are calculated by summing up the domain specific scores for 14 pictures. In this study, scores for nAch ranged from 1 to 12 with $M = 8.19$, $SD = 2.70$ with an internal consistency of Cronbach's $\alpha = .79$.

Predictive validity of the MMG has been demonstrated in several studies (e.g., Langens & Schmalt, 2002; Kehr, 2004a; Schüler, 2010). In addition, theoretical arguments and empirical findings suggest that the MMG measures aspects of the implicit rather than the explicit motive system (for a review, see Kehr, 2004a). For example, the MMG does not assess self-ascriptions about one's motive – according to McClelland and colleagues (1989), this is a necessary feature of the explicit motive domain.

Explicit Achievement Motive (sanAch).

The explicit achievement motive (*sanAch*) was assessed by the achievement subscale of Schönbrodt and Gerstenberg's (in press) Unified Motive Scale (UMS) in the 6-item-short version. Sample items are "Maintaining high standards for the quality of my work" or "Personally producing work of high quality." Schönbrodt and Gerstenberg (in press) derived the scale based on item response theory. The scale integrates several items of the more popular Personality Research Form (PRF:

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Jackson, 1984). Schönbrodt and Gerstenberg argue that this relatively new scale measures the dimension of achievement, power, affiliation, and intimacy with higher measurement precision, unbiased to gender and with fewer items than previous scales. Since Study 1 only focused on the achievement dimension, the subscales for the other three dimensions were skipped. All items of the subscale are formulated as goals and require an importance rating from 1 (*not important*) to 6 (*extremely important*).

In this study, scores ranged from 2.5 to 6 (*M* =5.18, *SD* = .76), with an internal consistency of Cronbach's α = .90. These relatively high mean scores may be put into perspective with a comment of the authors that items formulated as goals usually generate a very high level of agreement.

Positive Associations.

Two measures for positive associations were derived based on participants' associations with the vision statement. Participants were asked: "Reflecting on the vision, what impressions, emotions, and pictures come to your mind?" To analyze the text-based protocols, (1) an automated and (2) a manual measure were used.

(1) Automated measure: *autoPosAss.* Pennebaker, Chung, Ireland, Gonzales and Booth (2007) developed an automated and computerized measure to study cognitive, emotional, and structural components in written and verbal speech samples. Linguistic Inquiry and Word Count (LIWC) analyses the linguistic expressions along 32 categories covering psychological constructs (i.e., cognition, affect and biological processes) and 47 more categories (for more details, see Pennebaker et al., 2007). LIWC calculates the words of a text that match each category. Each category is composed of a list of dictionary words that define the respective scale. Moreover, LIWC allows derivation of a measure for affect in written text. In their validation study, Pennebaker and Francis (1996) suggest that LIWC successfully measures affect

in the dimensions of positive emotions and negative emotions, termed autoPosAss and autoNegAss (for negative associations), relatively, in the present study. Complementary to autoPosAss , autoNegAss serves as an indicator for negative affects. Thus, autoNegAss was included in the analyses as a covariate whenever autoPosAss was used.

Scores ranged from 0 to 6 for autoPosAss and from 0 to 1 for autoNegAss. Mean scores were $M = 1.37$ ($SD = 1.51$) for autoPosAss and $M = .09$ ($SD = .28$) for autoNegAss. Because protocol length was significantly correlated with autoPosAss, $r = .57$, $p < .005$, but not with autoNegAss, $r = .10$, ns., the influence of protocol length on autoPosAss was removed by regression, and, subsequently, the residuals were converted to z-scores (cf. Cohen, Cohen, Aiken, & West, 2003).

(2) Manual measure: *manPosAss.* Association protocols were content coded along six criteria to derive a three-step measure for negative (manPosAss = -1), neutral (manPosAss = 0), or positive (manPosAss = 1) protocols. The following criteria were used for classification of the association protocols: manPosAss = -1 was coded for (1) concerns, e.g., "unrealistic," "misleading statement," or "too academic"; (2) negative adjectives, e.g., "vague," "boring," or "not attainable"; or (3) negative meta messages, e.g., "unclear scope," "core message missing," or "poorly defined." manPosAss = 1 was coded for (4) positive solution and future oriented protocols, e.g., "trendsetter" or "innovator for a better word"; (5) positive adjectives, e.g., "exciting," "happy," "proud," or "friendly"; or (6) positive meta message, e.g., "no limits" or "everyone's interest at heart". manPosAss = 0 was coded when none of the positive or negative criteria were applicable or when conflicting criteria (positive {4,5,6} and negative coding {1,2,3}) have been applicable. Coding was executed by two coders independently from each other and without knowing the outcomes of any

other variables. After a calibration session with 15 samples, an inter-rater-reliability of 82% was achieved for the overall sample. Deviating scores were discussed and aligned in a joint session. Out of all protocols, 24.2 % were negative, 39.4 % neutral and 36.4 % positive.

Trust in Management.

The trust in management concept demonstrated predictive validity in organizational research (Cohen, 2009). Trust in management was measured with the management cynicism scale from Stanley, Meyer, and Topolnytsky (2005). The authors discussed factors for the resistance during organizational change and showed that cynicism in management can be used as a predictor for trust in management. In this context, cynicism in management is defined as "the disbelief in management's stated or implied motives for decisions or actions in general" (Stanley et al., 2005, p. 436). According to the authors, the scale sufficiently predicts mistrust as the antonym of trust. Hence, their cynicism scale (five-items) was reverse-coded to represent the trust scale. All items were coded on a seven-point-scale ranging from 1 (*I strongly disagree*) to 7 (*I strongly agree*). Sample items are "Management is always honest about its objectives" or "I often question the motives of management in this organization" (reverse item). In this study, scores ranged from 1.0 to 7.0 (*M* =4.41, *SD* = 1.30), with an internal consistency of Cronbach's α = .84.

Vividness of the Vision Statement.

The vividness of the vision statement was assessed with one item from the MVS (Rawolle et al., 2012): "When thinking about the vision, one can paint an image in front of the inner eye." The item was successfully used in several studies on vision statements before (Seeliger, Schattke, Schiepe, & Kehr, 2011a; Seeliger, Schattke,

Schiepe, & Kehr, 2011b; Strasser, 2011). A seven-point-scale from 1 (*I strongly disagree*) to 7 (*I strongly agree*) was used. In this study, scores ranged from 1 to 7 (*M* =4.40, *SD* = 1.8).

Dependent Measures

Inspiration

Followers' inspiration was assessed with three items from the MVS (Rawolle et al., 2012). The selected items relate to Thrash and Elliot's (2003) tripartite conceptualization of inspiration. According to this conceptualization, followers' apprehend something beyond their capacities, ("The vision inspires new ideas") because of an external event evoking positive valence ("The vision arouses enthusiasm") involving an appetitive motivational state ("The vision motivates"). These items have been successfully used in several studies (Seeliger et al., 2011a; Seeliger et al., 2011b, Strasser, 2011).

Participants responded on a seven-point-scale ranging from 1 (*I strongly disagree*) to 7 (*I strongly agree*). In this study, scores ranged from 1.0 to 7.0 (*M* =4.83, *SD* = 1.62), with an internal consistency of Cronbach's α = .95.

Since the dependent measure and the independent measure for the vividness of the vision are rooted in the same scale (MVS), an exploratory factor analysis was conducted to explore the construct validity, especially the multidimensionality. Principle Axis Factoring (PAF) was chosen over the Principal Components Extraction (PCE) method on the four-item correlation matrix, since the study was intended to explore the shared variance amongst the items (for a detailed comparison of the methods, see Warner, 2007, pp. 784ff). First, it was determined whether PAF could be applied to the data: a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin statistic of .840 and Bartlett's test of

sphericity, $\chi2$ (6, 105) = 401.8, $p < .001$, indicated that the data was sufficiently

amenable to PAF (cf. Warner, 2007). An oblique rather than an orthogonal rotation

method (Oblimin) was used, since there was no theoretical or empirical reason (r >.1)

that the factors are completely independent (cf. Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

As expected, the results supported the theoretical derived two-factor solution.

After rotation, only zero cross-loadings existed. Principal component loadings are

displayed in Table 3.

Table 3
Factor Pattern Matrix after Oblimin Rotation, Study 1

	Factor	
Item	1	2
enthusiasm	.90	
inspiration	.99	
motivation	.95	
vividness		.99

Note. Zero loadings (< .10) are not displayed. For a discussion of the thresholds, see Kline (2002, pp. 52ff).

3.2 Results

Initial Analyses

The vision statement was new to all participants. Nevertheless, participants were asked if they had encountered the vision statement before the survey, since the new vision statement could have spread across the organization even before the official communication within the survey. Regression analyses within the sample did not point to bias associated with a *previous knowledge* of the vision statement.[4] Regression of followers' inspiration on their previous knowledge showed no significant effects, $R^{2corr} = -.003$, $p > .1$. Controlling for previous knowledge in the following analysis affected the results only marginally and did not change the level of significance of the results. Furthermore, no statistically significant differences were found between women and men in the means and correlations of the measured variables. Controlling for gender in the following analysis affected the results only marginally and did not change the level of significance of the results. Hence, results are displayed without previous knowledge or gender as covariates. Table 4 displays the inter-correlations of all central variables. In accordance with typical findings (i.e., McClelland et al. 1989), explicit and implicit achievement motives were not significantly related ($r = .15$, ns).

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[4] Previous knowledge was assessed with one item: "Have you already come across the presented vision statement before the survey? (1) "Never." (2) "I'm not sure; I do not remember it." (3) "Occasionally; I read or talks about it briefly." (4) "Regularly." (5) "Intensively; I have been involved in a discussion about it."

Table 4
Summary of Inter-Correlations for Scores of Central Variables, Study 1

Measure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Inspiration	-						
2. nAch	.40***	-					
3. manPosAss	.49***	.32***	-				
4. autoPosAss	.14	.19	.28***	-			
5. vividness	.74***	.31***	.49***	.06	-		
6. trust	.55***	.30***	.38***	.12	.42***	-	
7. sanAch	.28***	.15	.20*	.14	.23*	.13	-
8. autoNegAss	-.17	-.05	-.14	.06	-0.20*	-.18	.08

Note. $N = 105$. nAch = implicit achievement motive; manPosAss = manually coded positive associations; autoPosAss = automatically coded positive associations; trust = trust in management; sanAch = explicit achievement motive; autoNegAss = automatically coded negative associations.
$^{†}p < .10$; $^{*}p < .05$; $^{**}p < .01$; $^{***}p < .005$.

Main Hypotheses

To test the hypotheses, several mediation analyses were conducted. First, two simple mediations were consecutively conducted, each with one of the measures for positive associations as mediator (Model A: autoPosAss; Model B: manPosAss). For each model the implicit achievement motive was entered as independent variable and followers' inspiration as dependent variable. The conceptual model for both analyses is displayed in Figure 2. In addition, autoNegAss was included as covariate in Model B as counterpart to autoPosAss.

According to Baron and Kenny (1986), mediation could be signified if regression of the dependent variable on the mediator (path a) and regression of the dependent variable on the predictor and mediator simultaneously results in a significant path from the mediator to the dependent variable (path b) but a reduced or

non-significant path from the predictor to the dependent variable (paths c $\rightarrow$ c').[5]

Furthermore, Hayes (2012) recommended basing inference about the indirect effect

on asymmetric bootstrap confidence intervals as a statistical test that respects the non-

normality of a sampling distribution.

Hence, regression analysis was combined with a Sobel test (Sobel, 1982) and

bootstrapping for the indirect effects. I used an SPSS Macro to conduct the analysis

(Hayes, 2012, Process Model 4). Bootstrap confidence intervals for the indirect effect

were bias-corrected (Efron, 1987; Efron & Tibshirani, 1994).
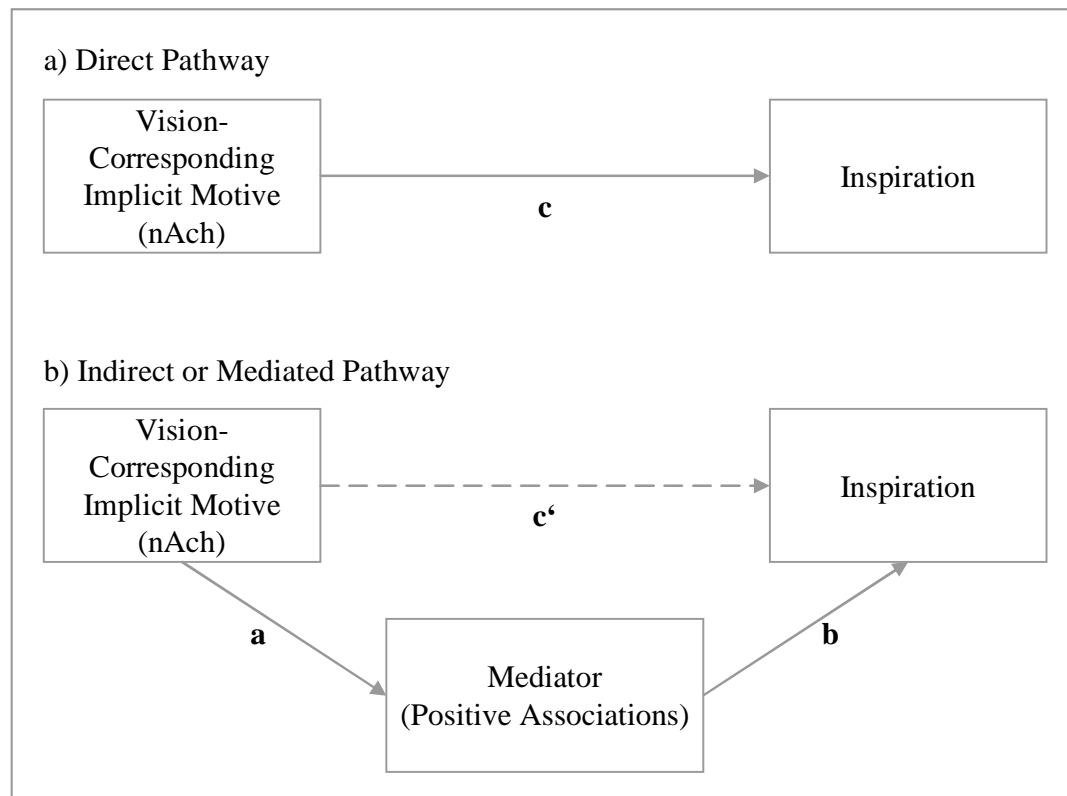
Figure 2. Generic Mediation Model Being Tested (on the basis of Baron & Kenny,
1986), Study 1. nAch = implicit achievement motive.

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[5] Note that several authors emphasize that modern mediation analysis does not require evidence of a
total effect (c) prior to the estimation of direct and indirect effects (see, e.g., Hayes, 2009; Rucker,
Preacher, Tormala, & Petty, 2011).

Table 5

Regression Results for the Mediation Predicting Followers' Inspiration from the Implicit Achievement Motive with Positive Associations, Study 1

| | Positive Associations Predicting Followers' Inspiration | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Model | Mediator A: autoPosAss | | | | | | Mediator B: manPosAss | | | | | |
	R^2	B	SE	t	p	CI	R^2	B	SE	t	p	CI
Model without mediator												
nAch → inspiration (c)		.63	.15	4.23	< .001			.64	.15	4.29	< .001	
autoNegAss → inspiration (cov)		-.25	.15	-1.66	.10							
$R^2_{inspiration, nAch}$	.18***						.16**					
Model with mediator												
nAch → Mediator (a)		.19	.10	1.94	.06			.25	.07	3.39	< .001	
Mediator → inspiration (b)		.13	.15	.88	.38			.84	.19	4.49	< .001	
nAch → inspiration (c')		.60	.15	3.98	< .001			.43	.18	2.98	.01	
autoNegAss → inspiration (cov)		-.26	.15	-1.72	.09							
Indirect effect (a x b)		.03	.04			[-.02, .12]		.21	.06			[.10, .36]
$R^2_{Mediator,nAch}$	.04*						.10***					
$R^2_{inspiration, Mediator, nAch}$	.19***						.30***					

Note: N = 105, regression weights a, b, c and c' are illustrated in Figure. $R^2_{Y,X}$ is the proportion of variance in Y, explained by X, and $R^2_{Y,M,X}$ is the proportion of variance in Y explained by X and M. The 95% CI for a x b is obtained by the bias corrected bootstrap with 1,000 resamples. nAch = implicit achievement motive, sanAch = explicit achievement motive, autoPosAss = automatically coded positive associations, manPosAss = manually coded positive associations, autoNegAss = automatically coded negative associations, cov = covariate. CI = 95% confidence interval.
[†]$p < .10$; [*]$p < .05$; [**]$p < .01$; [***]$p < .005$.

Implicit Motive Hypothesis.

The results for the regressions without the mediators show that the implicit achievement motive significantly predicted followers' inspiration, $\beta = .64$, $t(99) = 4.29$, $p < .001$[6]. These results support the implicit motive hypothesis. The values of the regression analyses are displayed in Table 5.

Mediation Hypothesis.

Results of Model A (autoPosAss) showed a marginally significant effect of nAch on the mediator (path a), $\beta = .19$, $t(99) = 1.94$, $p = .06$, and no significant effect of the mediator on inspiration (path b), $\beta = .13$, $p = .38$. The effect of nAch on inspiration remained significant (path c'), $\beta = .60$, $t(97) = 3.98$, $p < .001$. According to a Sobel Test (Sobel, 1982), the indirect effect was not significant ($Z = .73$, $p > .1$). The bootstrap analysis yielded the following results: the indirect effect of the implicit achievement motive through autoPosAss on inspiration was zero by a 95% bias-corrected bootstrap confidence interval based on 1,000 bootstrap samples with a point estimate of .03 (CI: [-.02 to .12]). For details about the bootstrap procedure, see Preacher and Hayes (2004). Because zero is in the 95% confidence interval, one can conclude that the indirect effect is not significantly different from zero. Thus, the results do not support the mediation hypothesis for automatically coded positive associations.

Results of Model B (manPosAss) showed a significant effect of nAch on the mediator (path a), $\beta = .25$, $t(99) = 3.39$, $p < .001$, and a significant effect of the mediator on inspiration (path b), $\beta = .84$, $t(98) = 4.49$, $p > .001$. The effect of nAch on

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[6] Reported results were calculated without autoNegAss as covariate. Results included autoNegAss as covariate were also significant on a similar level: $\beta = .63$, t(98) = 4.23, *p* < .001.

inspiration (path c') decreased to $\beta = .43$ and remained significant on a lower level,

$t(98) = 2.98$, $p = .01$. According to a Sobel Test (Sobel, 1982) the indirect effect was

significant ($Z = 2.66$, $p = .01$). The bootstrap analysis yielded the following results:

the indirect effect of the implicit achievement motive through manPosAss on

inspiration was not zero by a 95% bias-corrected bootstrap confidence interval based

on 1,000 bootstrap samples with a point estimate of .21. (CI: [.10 to .36]). Because

zero is not included in the 95% confidence interval, one can conclude that the indirect

effect is significantly different from zero at the value $p < .05$. Accordingly, these

results suggest a partial mediation by manually coded positive associations, with a

remaining main effect of nAch on inspiration. Figure 3 displays the results of the

mediation analysis for manPosAss. Table 5 displays the regression results for both

mediators.
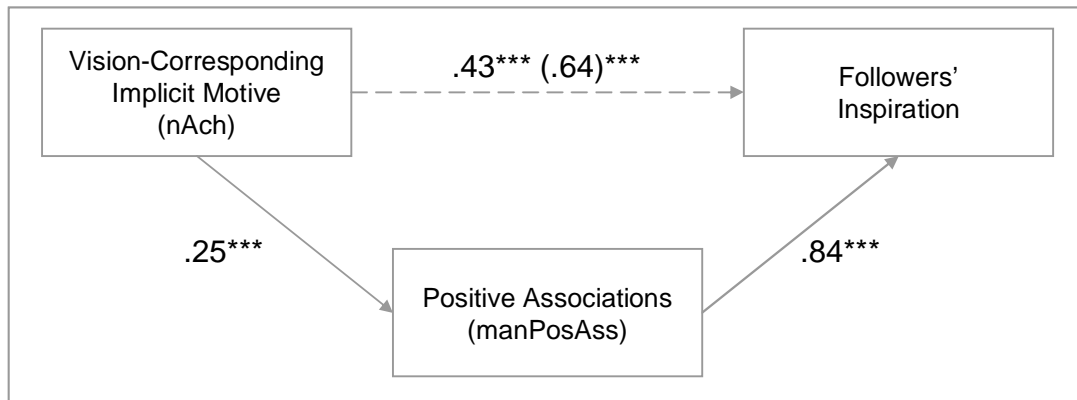
Figure 3. Results of the Simple Mediation Model Predicting Inspiration from the Implicit Achievement Motive (nAch) with Manually Coded Positive Associations (manPosAss), Study 1. $R^2_{\text{Inspiration, manPosAss, nAch}} = .30^{***}$; $R^2_{\text{manPosAass, nAch}} = .10^{***}$
$\dagger p < .10$; $*p < .05$; $**p < .01$; $***p < .005$

Vividness and Trust Hypotheses.

To further understand the mechanism pathway of the implicit achievement

motive with positive associations on inspiration, vividness and trust in management

were included, allowing a combined moderated mediation /mediated moderation

analysis. The model was tested only for manPosAss, since no simple mediation could

be signified for autoPosAss (see above). The statistical model, which corresponds to

the previously developed conceptual model (see page 34) is displayed in Figure 4.

The model was tested using an SPSS Macro (cf. Hayes, 2012, Process Model 21).[7]
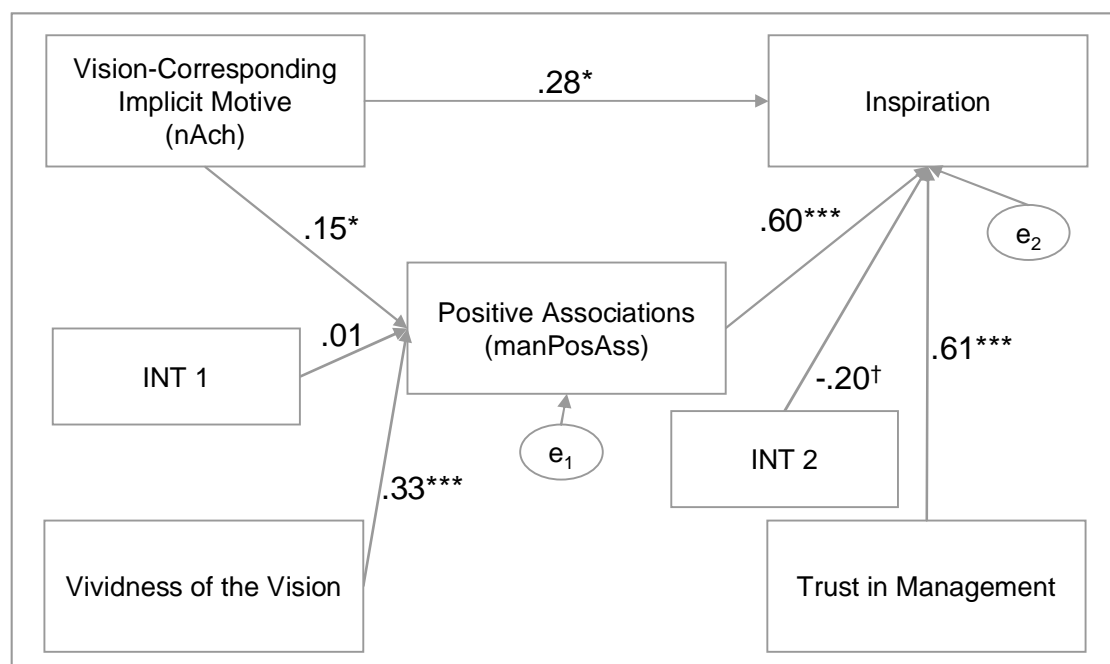
Figure 4. Results of the Combined Moderated Mediation/Mediated Moderation Model, Study 1. $R^2_{inspiration, nAch, manPosAss, trust}$ = .47***, $R^2_{manPosAss, nAch, vividness}$ = .28***; nAch = implicit achievement motive; manPosAss = manually coded positive associations; INT1 = nAch X Vividness of the Vision; INT2 = manPosAss X Trust in Management; e_i = standard error i; $^\dagger p < .10$; $^* p < .05$; $^{**} p < .01$; $^{***} p < .005$.

Vividness of the vision significantly predicted positive associations, β = .33,

$t(97) = 5.00$, $SE = .07$, $p < .001$. The effect of the implicit achievement motive on

manPosAss was significant as before, β = .15, $t(97) = 2.07$, $SE = .07$, $p = .04$.

However, the interaction of the implicit achievement motive and visions' vividness

did not significantly predict inspiration, β = .01, $p > .1$. Thus, the results do not

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[7] Additionally overall fit indices were calculated with the statistical analysis software MPlus (Muthén & Muthén,1998–2010). Overall fit indices: $\chi 2(97) = 46.51$, $p < .001$, comparative fit index (CFI) = .64, root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .33.

support the vividness moderation hypothesis but suggest a main effect of visions'

vividness on followers' positive associations.

Trust in management was the strongest predictor for followers' inspiration, β

$= .61$, $t(96) = 4.10$, $SE = .15$, $p < .001$., followed by manPosAss, $\beta = .60$, $t(96) = 3.72$,

$SE = .16$, $p < .005$, and nAch, $\beta = .28$, $t(96) = 1.83$, $SE = .15$, $p = .06$. Further, the

interaction of manPosAss with trust in management marginally contributed to

followers' inspiration, $\beta = -.20$, $t(96) = -1.66$, $SE = .12$, $p = .09$. A simple slope test at

values of one standard deviation above and below the means of manPosAss and trust

in management was performed (Aiken & West, 1991; Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken,

2003). This analysis revealed that only for low trust in management the slope was

significantly different from zero, $t(96) = 3.59$, $\beta = .87$, $p < .001$. Figure 5 illustrates

the effect.

The conditional indirect effects of the implicit achievement motive on

followers' inspiration at the values of the moderators, vividness and trust in

management, were analyzed with the bootstrap method. The results show that

conditional effects for low levels of vividness ($SD = -1$) were significantly different

from zero when trust was low ($\beta = .12$, CI [.02 to .30]) or medium ($\beta = .12$, CI [0.02,

0.20]). No significant effects were found when vividness was high ($SD = +1$). The

conditional effects are displayed in Table 6.

Thus, the results suggest that the influence of positive associations on followers'

inspiration is higher for low (rather than high) trust in management. This result is

opposite to the expected direction of the hypothesis and needs to be discussed.
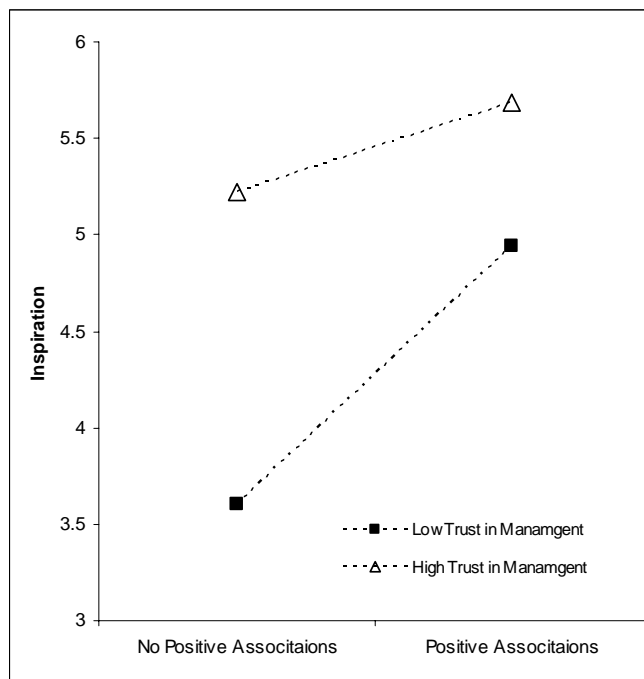
Figure 5 Interactions of Manually Coded Positive Associations with Trust in Management Predicting Inspiration, Study 1.

Table 6
Conditional Indirect Effects of the Implicit Achievement Motive on Inspiration at the Values of the Moderator (Vividness and Trust in Management), Study 1

Vividness SD	Trust in Mgmt. SD	*b*	*Boot SE*	*CI (lower)*	*CI (upper)*
-1	-1	.13	.06	.02	.30
-1	0	.09	.04	.02	.20
-1	1	.04	.04	-.01	.14
1	-1	.14	.10	-.04	.37
1	0	.09	.06	-.02	.23
1	1	.05	.04	-.01	.18

Note. *SD* = Standard Deviation, *SE* = Standard Error; CI (lower) = lower bound of a 95% confidence interval; CI (upper) = upper bound.

Supplemental Analysis of Inference with the Explicit Achievement Motive.

Even though the explicit and implicit achievement motives were not significantly related ($r = .15$, ns), the explicit motive in addition to the implicit achievement motive was significantly correlated with followers' inspiration ($r = .55$, *p*

< .001). To avoid any bias associated with the explicit achievement motive and

followers' inspiration, the previous analysis was reconducted including sanAch as

covariate. The results were only marginally affected without a change in the level of

significance of the results.

3.3 Discussion

These results shed light on the hypotheses in the achievement domain. First, the implicit motive hypothesis is supported. Followers facing an achievement-oriented vision statement express higher levels of inspiration when they have a high implicit need for achievement. Phrasing it independently from a specific motive domain, the results show that a match of an organizational vision with followers' implicit motives predicts followers' inspiration. For the first time, this effect is reported in field research. Moreover, these results are in line with previous research on the capabilities of (personal) visions to arouse implicit motives (Kehr et al., 2010).

Second, the results partially support the mediation hypothesis. The effect of the vision content corresponding with achievement motive on followers' inspiration is partially mediated by positive associations. Positive associations' are more likely to occur when followers are high in the vision-corresponding achievement motive. In addition, followers who express positive associations with the vision statement show a higher level of inspiration. One can speculate why this effect has only been found for the manual but not the computerized measure. In the present author's opinion, the manual coding of followers' associations offers a more precise approximation of positive affect in this specific context than the computerized measure does. This is because manual coding, but not the computerized measure, allowed consideration of the content and context of the specific vision statement.

Third, the vividness of the vision predicted followers' positive associations. Higher rather than lower vividness relate to associations that are more positive. However, the results do not support the predicted moderating effect of the vividness and the vision-corresponding implicit motives on positive associations. Even though participants had a vivid picture of the vision in mind and the implicit achievement

motive predicted positive associations, the vividness of the statement did not additionally interfere with the effect of the vision-corresponding implicit achievement motive on positive associations. Taylor and colleagues (Taylor & Thompson, 1982; Taylor & Wood, 1983) identified three conditions that undermine an effect of vivid messages: (1) the vivid message did not produce an affective or emotional response; (2) the inference of a vivid message depended on other judgments about the message like source credibility; and (3) the vivid message was not personally relevant to the recipients. The data justifies an affective response on a vivid vision (1); however, inference with other judgments (2) and the personal relevance of the organizational vision (3) remain as potential reasons for the results.

Forth, trust in management moderated the effect of positive associations on followers' inspiration. However, the interaction pattern was opposite to that of the hypothesized direction. Followers' inspiration was more strongly predicted by their positive associations for followers low in trust. One reason for this might be rooted in a more internalized processing of the vision when followers have only little trust in their management. Higher levels of trust in management represent a closer relationship between followers and leaders. If followers' trust their management, they might also trust the idea (vision) of their management, leading to a positive bias of their self-attributed inspiration. If followers mistrust their management, they rely more thoroughly on their own perception of the vision, manifested in their positive (and negative) associations with the vision.

Besides the general concern with cross-sectional studies, which is addressed with the integration of established theories and related causal research (cf. Rawolle, 2010; Strasser, 2011), some study-specific limitations apply. Conceptually, there was only one pre-dominant motive, the achievement motive, to test the hypotheses.

Nevertheless, it is reasonable to assume that the findings can be transferred to the other motive domains, too (for similar lines of reasoning, see Rawolle, 2010, and Strasser, 2011). Furthermore, the main hypotheses is retested once more in the agency domain in Study 3.

Even though practitioners prefer single-item measures like the measure for vividness in this study, they are not theoretically-based but, rather, minimize participants' refusal during the survey. According to Rossiter (2002), a single-item measure is only sufficient when the object (e.g., the vision statement) is "concrete singular" and the item attributes are "easily and uniformly imagined." The present author believes that these propositions are sufficiently met for the vividness item.

Another conceptual concern is the focus on only one vision statement. However, this approach is rooted in the focus of the research on the interaction of vision statements with followers' personality measures. To avoid error variation between different vision statements, one vision statement made for one group of followers within one company was analyzed instead of a multi-organizational design. Furthermore, the data base is extended with more statements, including a larger and more international sample (in Study 2) and data from a second organization (in Study 3).

This study focused on followers' inspiration as one specific dependent measure. Further dependent measures are required to embed the findings into a wider research context. This limitation is addressed in Study 2, adding (vision) commitment as a new dependent and far more popular measure.

Despite these limitations, the study revealed new empirical findings, which are embedded in the development of further hypotheses for the following studies:

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(1) The results suggest a predictive influence of the vision-corresponding explicit motive in addition to the predictive influence of the vision-corresponding implicit motive on vision-related motivational outcomes. To further understanding the role of the explicit motive, Study 2 will focus on the vision-corresponding explicit motives.

(2) Furthermore, the results suggest a predictive influence of the perceived organizational context on vision-related motivational outcomes. In the study context, the influence of trust in management on inspiration was shown as a main effect as well as a moderator. To further understanding the influence of the perceived organizational context, followers' organizational commitment is added as a second contextual variable (in Study 2 and Study 3).

In the following chapter, the research hypotheses, applied methods, and results for Study 2 are presented. Study 2 complements the focus of this study on followers' inspiration, examining a more cognitive (rather than affective) construct: followers' vision commitment.

4. Study 2

Organizational Vision–Explicit Motive Match Predicts Followers' Vision Commitment

It is expected that followers' vision commitment, as an expression of their cognitive preferences, is associated with their explicit motives, because visions encompass an activation potential for the explicit motive system. More precisely, it is assumed that visions are effective when the motive-content of the vision statement corresponds to followers' explicit motives, leading to cognitive preferences. This effect should be moderated by the vision attributes vividness and challenge as well as by the perceived organizational context (i.e., organizational commitment and trust in management).

Vision-Corresponding Explicit Motive

Strasser (2011) distinguished between personal goals and personal visions. Whereas goals are rather represented in a language based format (Schultheiss, Patalakh, Rawolle, Liening, & MacInnes, 2011), personal visions were rather represented in a picture-like format (Strasser, 2011). This classification is certainly appropriate for personal visions. However, for organizational visions, the classification might be mixed due to the different characteristics compared to personal visions. (1) Organizational visions are given to followers and not determined by them, as personal visions are. This is especially the case for followers in large organizations and in globalized work environments. In these contexts, small leadership teams create visions, which are afterwards broadly communicated to their followers. (2) Organizational visions are communicated twofold: directly and indirectly. Direct

communication takes place in face-to-face meetings between the leaders and their followers. Indirect communication, which is even more popular in large organizations, takes place across several media channels. In this context, followers encounter a vision statement via online media (e.g., the intranet) or traditional media (e.g., flyers and posters). In both cases, organizational visions are represented in a language-based format, since they are condensed into a vision statement, which can easily be communicated. According to Schultheiss and Brunstein (1999), language-based formats are processed in a rational, analytical way based on logical reasoning. Hence, the language-based format manifests the notion of a catalyst connecting individuals' explicit motives with the organizational vision.

Furthermore, activated explicit motives result in cognitive preferences or cognitive choices (Kehr, 2004b), which can be systematically measured (e.g., as followers' vision commitment). Followers respond to motive-specific incentives (Rheinberg, 2008). Consequently should followers with a high (rather than low) explicit motive evaluate a situation as more rewarding when the situation stimulates the respective explicit motives. In the context of this research, the content of the vision statement serves as the motive-specific incentive (i.e., the articulation of an achievement-oriented vision).

In sum, I expect that followers express higher vision commitment when they report higher levels of the vision-corresponding explicit motive. Consequently, the following *explicit motive hypothesis* is formulated:

Hypothesis 2.1: Followers' vision-corresponding explicit motives are positively associated with followers' vision commitment.

Vision Attributes: Vividness and Challenge

In addition to the predictive influence of the explicit motives, I consider two vision attributes as further predictors of followers' vision commitment.

Following the argumentation in Study 1 (see p. 29), vivid messages are used to create attention, increasing the perceived importance of a message (MacKenzie, 1986). Further, it was argued that vividness helps followers to internalize a vision statement. More precisely, vividness helps followers to understand the aim of the vision statement unambiguously. Thus, if a vision statement is vivid, followers can be expected to commit to the vision statement as long as the vivid vision statement matches with their explicit motives. Conversely, if the vision statement is vivid but conflicting with followers' explicit motives, vision commitment is expected to be low.

Findings of goal-theory suggest a further influencing factor on followers' vision commitment. As noted earlier, challenging goals lead to the highest performance of followers (Locke & Latham, 1990). This has been shown for physical (Bandura & Cervone, 1983) and cognitive goals (Bryan & Locke, 1967). In the present study, it is that these findings are transferrable to the vision research based on the present definition of visions as distal goals (see p. 18). In this context, *challenge* describes the extent to which the goal or vision is discrepant from the status quo. Challenging visions, like challenging goals, create higher demand effects (cf. Shantz & Latham, 2009) in the sense that challenging visions expose followers to a motive-specific incentive with higher intensity compared to normal visions. However, some boundary conditions need to be considered. A vision cannot be infinitely challenging – otherwise, it becomes unrealistic. These practically unrealistic fantasies, also termed utopia (Langdridge, 2006), are excluded from current considerations.

Taken together, the vision attributes, vividness and challenge are expected to support followers in the activation of their explicit motive. Consequently, it is assumed that there is an interaction of both attributes with the explicit motives of followers on their vision commitment. In sum, this argumentation leads to the following *vividness and challenge hypothesis*:

Hypothesis 2.2: Vividness and challenge of the vision statement moderate the effect of the vision-corresponding explicit motives on followers' vision commitment. Vision commitment is more strongly predicted by the vision-corresponding explicit motive for vision statements high in vividness and challenge compared to vision statements low in vividness and challenge, respectively.

Perceived Organizational Context: Trust in Management and Organizational Commitment

In Study 1, the predictive influence of the perceived organizational context has been demonstrated for followers' trust in management on their inspiration. Study 2 extends the discussion twofold: (1) the influence of trust in management on vision commitment instead of inspiration is considered. (2) Organizational commitment as a second construct representing followers' relation with the organization in general is considered.

(1) For the relation of trust in management and vision commitment, conclusions similar to those drawn before for the relation of trust in management and inspiration are drawn (see p. 30). If trust in management influences followers' interpretation of leadership behavior (constructive vs. cynical), it is expected that trust in management

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will also influence followers' commitment towards the management's vision (vision commitment). Further, Grant and Sumanth (2009) support the notion that trust in management has a moderating role between personality measures and performance outcomes. The scholars studied organizations that have an overall purpose of promoting and protecting human well-being (i.e., organizations that are prosocially motivated). Their results showed a positive relationship between employees' prosocial motivation and performance. In addition, higher trust strengthened the relationship of prosocial motivation and performance. Unfortunately, the authors did not draw a conclusion with respect to motivational psychology. However, the following parallels can be identified, transferring their construct into the present research: (a) followers' prosocial motivation can be interpreted as a distinctive explicit motive (e.g., like the explicit achievement motive).[8] (b) The organizational purpose serving as the motive-specific incentive for the employees can be transferred and condensed into a vision statement. (c) Furthermore, the outcome measure of this research is followers' vision commitment, serving as an indicator for followers' performance (cf. Locke et al., 1988).

According to Grant and Sumanth (2009), and above-mentioned considerations (see Chapter 3, p. 30), it is expected that the relationship of the vision-corresponding explicit motive and followers' vision commitment can be better predicted when trust in management is high. Consequently, the following *trust hypothesis* is formulated:

Hypothesis 2.3: Trust in management moderates the effect of the vision-corresponding explicit motives on followers' vision commitment. Vision

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[8] Note. Grant and Sumanth (2009) assessed the prosocial behavior in a self-report. Thus, transferring the findings to the explicit and not the implicit motive domain is appropriate.

commitment is more strongly predicted by the vision-corresponding explicit motive when trust in management is high rather than low.

(2) Besides trust in management, followers' organizational commitment is used here as a second representation of the perceived organizational context. Organizational commitment as a distinct form of workplace commitment has been studied over the last 25 years (e.g., Allen & Meyer, 1990, 1996; Cohen, 2009). The concept separates three components of organizational commitment (normative, continuance, and affective) (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The present research focuses on the affective organizational commitment component, since it has the highest convergence of the three components with other (work-) attitudes (for a review of other work-attitudes like job satisfaction, turn-over intentions, and/or positive affect, see the meta analysis of Allen & Meyer [1996] or the recent commitment re-conceptionalization of Klein, Molly, & Brinsfield [2012]). For the sake of brevity, the label "organizational commitment" instead of "affective organizational commitment" is used here.

Even though organizational commitment is related to trust in management, it is conceptually different. Whereas trust reflects followers' orientation towards the leaders of the organization, organizational commitment integrates psychological and behavioral aspects of followers' orientation towards the collective (for a more thorough theoretical and empirical discussion of the link between the two concepts, see Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007). To interlink organizational commitment with the vision construct, the purpose of a vision needs to be considered once more. A vision statement reflects an image of the future for the organization, which is perceived as a collective distal goal; organizational commitment is an expression of followers'

attitudes towards the collective. Thus, it is assumed here that followers' vision commitment relates to their organizational commitment, in the sense that followers are more committed to a vision statement when they show higher levels of organizational commitment. Further, inferences between organizational commitment and followers' explicit motives on vision commitment are expected, since organizational commitment helps followers' to give meaning and direction to a situation like a new vision statement. Thus, enhanced meaning and direction of a vision supports the activation of followers' explicit motives.

Taken together, it is expected that the explicit motives of followers will better predict their vision commitment when their organizational commitment is high rather than low. Thus, the *organizational commitment hypothesis* is derived as follows:

Hypothesis 2.4: Organizational commitment moderates the effect of the vision-corresponding explicit motives on followers' vision commitment. Vision commitment is more strongly predicted by the vision-corresponding explicit motive when followers' organizational commitment is high rather than low.

Statistical Considerations

To summarize the theoretical considerations in statistical terms, a positive main effect of the vision-corresponding explicit achievement motive on vision commitment was expected. Moreover, moderation effects between the explicit achievement motive (high versus low) and the moderators (trust in management, organizational commitment, vividness and challenge) were expected, with all moderators amplifying

the influence of the explicit achievement motive on vision commitment. Figure 6

illustrates the hypotheses of the study conceptually.
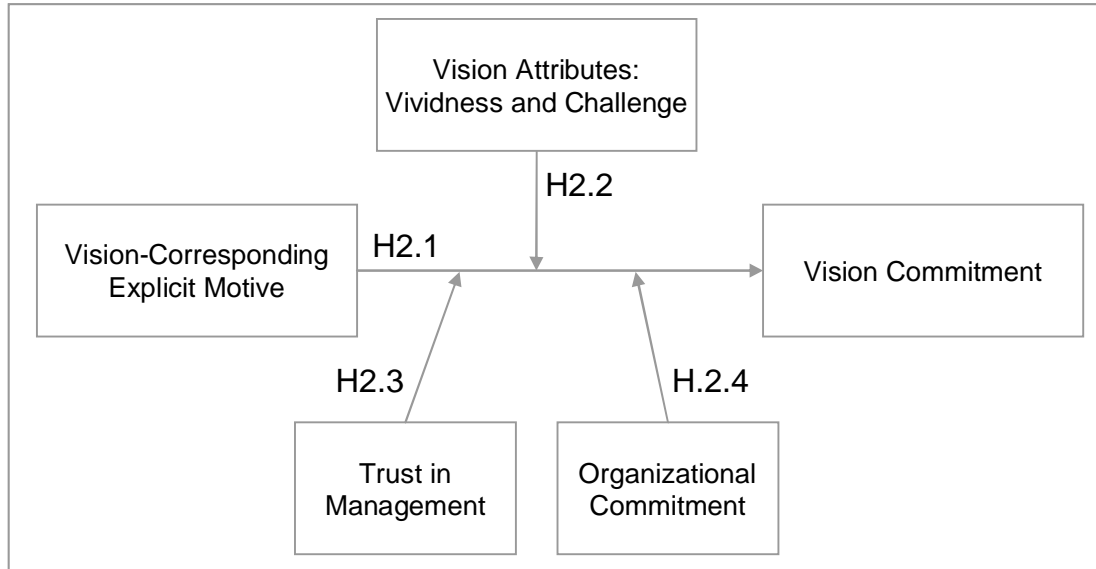
Figure 6. Conceptual Summary of Research Hypotheses, Study 2.

4.1 Method

The same global business unit of the large multi-national engineering company as in Study 1 participated in this study. This study was conducted in Brazil (BRA), China (CHN), and India (IND), allowing for generalization of the empirical findings across cultures.

A cross-sectional online design was administered. Stimulus material from Study l (the newly created vision statement) was reused and extended with a second statement to test the hypotheses.[9] Even though, the company's management had not explicitly labeled both statements as *vision statements* – the second was actually labeled *mission statement* –both statements were considered equally worth studying in line with my theoretical definition and considerations expressed in Chapter 2.[10] The two statements were studied in two independent groups (vision and mission) for each country (BRA, CHN, and IND).

Predominant Motive Content of the Mission Statement: The same procedure as for the vision statement in Study 1 was used to identify the predominant motive content of the mission statement (see p. 33). Motive scores of each scorer for the mission statement are summarized in Table 7 (for the vision statement, see Table 2).

According to the analysis, the mission statement - as before the vision statement - had one single predominant motive: need for achievement. In other words, both the vision and mission statement are markedly more mono-motive thematic than multi-motive thematic. Hence, Study 2 once more focused on the achievement motive of

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[9] Note that this document does not contain the companies' vision and mission statements due to confidentiality reasons.

[10] Content wise the two statements expressed the new direction of the business unit, with slightly different foci. However, both statements were formulated long-term oriented and due to their idealized nature, it seemed unlikely that followers confuse these statements with other constructs like strategic goals.

followers, since it allowed testing of the hypotheses regarding a mono-motive

thematic statement in the achievement domain.

Table 7
Predominant Motive Content of the Mission Statement, Study 2

	Motive Scores		
Expert	Achievement	Affiliation	Power
1	4	0	0
2	4	0	1
3	3	0	1
4	3	0	1
Expert Agreement	3	0	1

Note: Motive Scores were derived according to Winters' (1991) coding scheme.

Procedure

As in Study 1, participants were invited via email to give feedback to the new

vision and mission statements in an online survey. Moreover, the same pre-

information and setup (volunteer basis, anonymity, confidentiality, no compensation)

as in Study 1 were used. Participants were randomly assigned to the vision or mission

group. Test methods were administered to participants online via their workplace in

the official business language of their local organization. Hence, the study was

conducted in English in Brazil and India and in simplified Mandarin in China. A

translate–retranslate methodology with independent native translators was used to

develop the Chinese version and to ensure that the translated items accurately

reflected the original items.

Having finished the self-report on explicit achievement motivation, followers

stated their trust in management and organizational commitment. Afterwards, the

plain vision or mission statement was introduced on the screen without further

explanation or supplementary information on its background. Participants were asked

to carry out an association task (see Study 1, p. 35). Then vividness and challenge of

the vision (mission) statement were assessed, followed by followers' vision (mission)

commitment[11]. Afterwards, participants were asked to provide some demographical data (gender, age, highest degree, type of employment, organizational tenure). Finally, participants were thanked for completing the survey.

Participants

In total, adequate data were collected from 255 employees: 44.31% from China, 26.67% from Brazil, and 29.02% from India; 62% of the employees were assigned to the vision group and 38.00% to the mission group.[12] Age groups were distributed as follows: 18–25 years (12.50%), 26–33 (42.34%), 34–41 (32.26%), 42–49 (9.68%), 50–57 (2.82%), older (.40%); 82.73% of the participants were male; 45.97% had a bachelor degree or higher. Almost all (95.98%) participants were employed full time. Organizational tenure varied: less than 1 year (28.13%), 1–4 years (41.52%), over 4 to 7 years (14.73%), 7–10 (6.25%), and over 10 years (9.38%). More details about each subsample can be found in the Appendix (Table 18).

Independent Measures

Explicit Achievement Motive (sanAch).

As in Study 1, a short version of the Unified Motive Scale (UMS-6; Schönbrodt & Gerstenberg, in press) was used to assess followers' explicit achievement motive (sanAch). In this study, scores ranged from 2.0 to 6.0 ($M = 4.89$, $SD = .90$), with an internal consistency of Cronbach's $\alpha = .90$.

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[11] For the sake of a consistent naming of the dependent variable, the term „vision commitment" is used from now on onwards, even though for the mission group „mission commitment" would be more precise.
[12] Please note that the number of participants per group is different, since the first participants were all allocated to the vision group due to an organizational reason. After one week, participants were randomly assigned to one of either groups.

Trust in Management.

As in Study 1, Stanley's cynicism scale (Stanley et al., 2005) was reverse-coded to measure trust in management. In this study, scores ranged from 1.0 to 7.0 ($M =$ 4.89, $SD = 1.12$), with an internal consistency of Cronbach's $\alpha = .69$.

Organizational Commitment.

The three highest loading items of Meyer and Allen's commitment questionnaire were used (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993). Sample items are "This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me" and "I do not feel emotionally attached to this organization" (reverse-coded). The scale was coded on a seven-point scale ranging from 1 *(I strongly disagree)* to 7 *(I strongly agree)*. Participants' responses to the three items were averaged to create an overall measure of organizational commitment. In this study, scores ranged from 1.67.to 7.0 ($M = 5.35$, $SD = 1.14$). With Cronbach's $\alpha = .66$, the internal consistency is slightly lower but acceptable, compared to reported consistency levels of the 8-item scale ranging from .74 and .89 (Allen & Meyer, 1996).

Vision Vividness and Challenge.

As in Study 1, vividness of the vision statements was assessed with one item ("When thinking about the vision, one can paint an image in front of the inner eye"). The two new items measuring challenge were "The vision is ambitious" and "The vision is challenging." All items for vividness and challenge were taken from the MVS (Rawolle et al., 2012). The items were evaluated on a seven-point-scale ranging from 1 (*I strongly disagree*) to 7 (*I strongly agree*). Furthermore, the items have been

successfully used in several studies (Seeliger et al., 2011a; Seeliger et al., 2011b; Strasser, 2011).

In this study, scores for vividness ranged from 1 to 7 ($M = 5.43$, $SD = 1.36$). Scores for challenge were averaged, and ranged from 1.5 to 7.0 ($M = 6.00$, $SD = 1.10$), with an internal consistency of Cronbach's $\alpha = .79$.

Since the vision attributes vividness and challenge are rooted in the same scale (MVS), a factor analysis was conducted to explore the construct validity for the sample. As in Study 1, I chose PAF over PCE on the four-item correlation matrix (for more information, see Study 1, p. 41). A Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin statistic of .608 and Bartlett's test of sphericity, $\chi2$ (3,255) = 203.48, $p < .001$, indicated that PAF could be applied to the data (Warner, 2007, pp. 784ff). As in Study 1, an oblique rather than an orthogonal rotation method (Oblimin) was used, since there was no theoretical or empirical reason (r >.1) that the factors were completely independent (cf. Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

As expected, the results supported the theoretical derived two-factor solution. After rotation, only non-salient (< .30) or zero (< .10) cross-loadings existed. For details, see principal component loadings in Table 8.

Table 8
Factor Pattern Matrix after Oblimin Rotation, Study 2

	Factor	
Item	1	2
vividness	.53	
ambitious		.84
challenging	.28	.63

Note: Zero loadings (< .10) are not displayed; non-salient loadings are displayed in grey (< .30). For a discussion of the thresholds, see Kline (2002, p. 52).

Dependent Measure: Vision Commitment

For the assessment of followers' vision commitment, Hollenbeck and Klein's validated goal commitment scale was adjusted (Hollenbeck & Klein, 1987; Klein et al., 2001) by exchanging the word *goal* through *vision* (or *mission*, respectively) for each of the five items. Sample items are "It's hard to take this goal/vision/mission seriously." and "I think this is a good goal/vision/mission to shoot for". Answers were given on a seven-point scale ranging from 1 (*I strongly disagree*) to 7 (*I strongly agree*).

In the majority of research studies, the scale has been used to assess goal commitment to task-oriented or at least medium-complex goals; nevertheless, the scale is robust against varying goal complexity (Klein et al., 2001) and, thus, robust against testing visions as distal goals. Furthermore, a second characteristic discussed in goal literature was considered in the selection of the scale: goal commitment might depend on the origin of the goal (self-set versus assigned). Serendipitously, the scale makes allowance for the origin of the goal, too (Klein et al., 2001). Taken together, Klein and colleagues' adjusted goal commitment scale was suitable for assigned (and not self-set) vision statements representing distal goals (and not task goals). In this study, scores ranged from 2.60 to 7.0 (*M* =5.66, *SD* = .99) with an internal consistency of Cronbach's α = .78.

4.2 Results

Initial Analyses

As in Study 1, both statements were new to all participants. Nevertheless, participants were asked whether they had encountered the vision statement before the survey, since the final statement could have spread across the organization even before the official communication within the survey. Regression analysis within the sample did not point to bias associated with *previous knowledge* of the vision or mission statements.[13] Regression of followers' previous knowledge on their commitment showed no significant effect, $R^{2corr} = -.001$, $p > .1$. Controlling for previous knowledge in the following analysis on vision commitment affected the results only marginally and did not change the level of significance of the results. Hence, results are displayed without continuously controlling for previous knowledge as a covariate.

No statistical differences were found between women and men in the means and correlations of the measured variables, besides for the means of the explicit achievement motive: on average, men reported higher scores for the explicit motive to achieve ($M_{men} = 5.00$, $SD_{men} = .83$) than women ($M_{women} = 4.40$, $SD_{women} = 1.07$) did. This difference was significant $t(247) = -3.49$, $p < .01$, with a medium effect size of $r = .21$. Controlling for gender in the following analyses affected the results only marginally and did not change the level of significance of the results. Hence, results for both dependent variables are displayed without continuously controlling for gender as covariate.

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[13] Previous knowledge was assessed with one item: "Have you already come across the presented vision statement before the survey? (1) "Never." (2) "I'm not sure; I do not remember it." (3) "Occasionally; I read or heard about it briefly." (4) "Regularly." Or (5) "Intensively; I have been involved in a discussion about it."

Table 9
Summary of Inter-correlations for Scores of Central Variables, Study 2

Measure	1	2	3	4	5
1. Vision Commitment	-				
2. sanAch	.40***	-			
3. Vividness	.43***	.23***	-		
4. Challenge	.41***	.30***	.40***	-	
5. Trust in Management	.15*	-0.08	.30***	.16*	-
6. Organizational Commitment	.41***	.20***	.30***	.20***	.26***

Note: $N = 255$. sanAch = explicit achievement motive.
$^{\dagger}p < .10$; $^{*}p < .05$; $^{**}p < .01$; $^{***}p < .005$.

Table 9 displays the inter-correlations of all variables. Furthermore, the six

subgroups (vision, mission x CHN, BRA, IND) concerning the central variables of the

research question were compared. Table 10 shows the descriptive statistics for all

central variables, including mean comparisons between the subgroups. It is beyond

the scope of the present study to analyze and thoroughly interpret potential underlying

cultural differences. However, the following analysis controlled for the six conditions

to account for significant statistical differences between the conditions affecting the

results. Furthermore, the consequences of country differences between central

variables of this study are discussed with regards to the usage of visions in global

organizations.

Table 10

Mean (and Standard Deviation) with Mean Comparisons for Central Variables by Subgroup, Study 2

Variable	Vision Statement			Mission Statement		
	Brazil	China	India	Brazil	China	India
1. Vision Commitment	6.07_a (0.68)	5.84_a (1.04)	5.99_a (0.95)	$5.90_{a,b}$ (1.04)	5.37_b (1.33)	6.24_a (0.66)
2. sanAch	5.30_a (0.6)	4.47_b (0.89)	5.27_a (0.63)	5.40_a (0.59)	4.10_b (0.9)	5.42_a (0.55)
3. Vividness	5.23_a (1.45)	5.75_a (1.08)	5.66_a (1.25)	4.86_a (1.05)	5.05_a (1.37)	5.56_a (1.2)
4. Challenge	5.82_a (1.11)	6.10_a (1.08)	6.11_a (1.01)	6.02_a (1.08)	5.79_a (1.22)	6.12_a (1.16)
5. Trust in Management	4.55_a (0.95)	5.20_b (1.22)	$4.97_{a,b}$ (0.91)	4.09_a (0.71)	5.21_b (0.98)	4.59_a (1.24)
6. Organizational Commitment	5.67_a (0.96)	5.14_b (1.1)	5.81_a (0.99)	5.38_a (1.33)	4.91_a (1.12)	5.35_a (1.28)

Note: $N = 255$. Values in the same row and subtable not sharing the same subscript (*a* or *b*) are significantly different at $p < .05$ in the two-sided test of equality for column means. Cells with no subscript are not included in the test. Tests assume equal variances. Tests are adjusted for all pairwise comparisons within a row of each innermost subtable using the Bonferroni correction. sanAch = explicit achievement motive.

Main Hypotheses

To test the hypotheses, a linear regression analysis (simultaneous entry method) with vision commitment as dependent variables was conducted. To control for variations across the two statements and three countries, dummy variables were entered for the statement group D1 (Vision = 1 vs. Mission = -1) and country comparisons D2 (CHN = -1 vs. BRA = 1; IND = 0) and D3 (CHN = -1 vs. IND = 1; BRA = 0) (Step1). In the next step, sanAch was entered as predictor into the regression. Furthermore, the variables vividness and challenge as well as trust in

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management and organizational commitment were entered (Step 2). In Step 3,

interactions between sanAch with vividness, sanAch with challenge, sanAch with

trust, and vividness with challenge were included. The final step included a three-way

interaction for sanAch, vividness, and challenge.

Controlling for country and statement-specific differences affected vision

commitment only in the first step of the regression analysis. Followers in India

showed statistically significantly higher commitment than followers in China did,

$t(251) = 2.12$, $\beta = .16$, $p < .05$. This effect disappeared in the following steps of the

regression analysis (p > .1 for D1, D2, D3). For the sake of clarity, results are

displayed without detailed values for the control variables, even though they were

kept in the regression analysis during all steps. Results of the regression analysis are

displayed in Table 11.

Explicit Motive Hypothesis.

The results showed a statistically significant main effect of sanAch on vision

commitment. Adding sanAch in the second step significantly increased the percentage

of explained variance, $t(246) = 3.36$, $\beta = .22$, $p < .005$. Moreover, the effect remains

significant, $t(241)= 4.40$, $\beta = .30$, $p < .001$, in step four. These results support the

explicit motive hypothesis: the higher followers' explicit achievement motive, the

higher their commitment to the motive-corresponding vision statement. Since

supplementary analyses of interactions between sanAch with statement and country

variables (D1, D2, and D3) did not increase the explained variance (*ps* > .1), this

relationship of sanAch and vision commitment is stable across the two statements and

three countries.[14]

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[14] I tested whether the relationship between sanAch and vision commitment varies across countries (D2, D3) or the different statements (D1). Therefore, all interactions of Steps 3 and 4 were dropped, and the

Table 11

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for Vision Commitment, Study 2

Predictor	ΔR^2	Vision Commitment		
		B	$SE\ B$	β
Step 1	.05**			
Control Variables (D1, D2, D3)				
Step 2 (Main Effects)	.33***			
Control Variables				
sanAch		.25	.07	.22***
Vividness		.22	.06	.21***
Challenge		.19	.05	.21***
Trust in Management		.02	.05	.02
Organizational Commitment		.22	.05	.25***
Step 3 (Two-Way Interactions)	0.03*			
Control Variables				
sanAch		.26	.08	.23***
Vividness		.21	.06	.21***
Challenge		.18	.05	.20**
Trust in Management		.04	.05	.04
Organizational Commitment		.23	.05	.26***
sanAch X Vividness		.02	.06	.02
sanAch X Challenge		.01	.06	.01
Vividness X Challenge		.08	.06	-.08
sanAch X Trust		-.17	.06	-.16**
sanAch X Org. Commitment		-.06	.06	-.06
Step 4 (Three-Way Interaction)	.03***			
Control Variables				
sanAch		.34	.08	.30***
Vividness		.25	.06	.25***
Challenge		.21	.05	.23***
Trust in Management		.04	.05	.04
Organizational Commitment		.21	.05	.24***
sanAch X Vividness		.02	.06	.02
sanAch X Challenge		-.11	.06	-.12
Vividness X Challenge		-.07	.05	-.08
sanAch X Trust		-.18	.06	-.16***
sanAch X Org. Commitment		-.05	.06	-.05
sanAch X Vividness X Challenge		-.17	.05	-.26***
Total R^2	.44***			

Note. $N = 255$; sanAch = explicit achievement motive. Control variables were effect coded (D1: Vision = 1, Mission = -1; D2: CHN = -1, BRA = 1, IND = 0; D3: CHN = -1, BRA = 0, IND = 1). †$p < .10$; *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .005$.

following interactions terms were entered: sanAch x D1, sanAch X D2, sanAch X D3, sanAch x D1 x D2, sanAch x D1 x D3. None of the interaction terms was significant ($ps > .1$).

Trust Hypothesis.

Step two of the regression showed no effects for trust in management on follower's commitment, $\beta = .02$, *ns*. Adding the two-way interactions in step three marginally increased the percentage of explained variance for vision commitment, $\Delta R^2 = .03$, $\Delta F(5, 241) = 2.29$, $p < .05$. Thus, the interaction of sanAch X trust had a significant influence, $t(241) = -2.79$, $\beta = -.15$, $p < .01$, on vision commitment. The interaction pattern is illustrated in Figure 7.

Figure 7. Interactions of the Explicit Achievement Motive with Trust in Management Predicting Vision Commitment, Study 2. sanAch = explicit achievement motive, *SD* = standard deviation.

A simple slope test at values of one standard deviation above and below the means of sanAch and trust in management was performed (Aiken & West, 1991; Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). This analysis revealed that only for low trust in management was the slope significantly different from zero, $t(241) = 4.60$, $\beta = .49$, *p*

< .001. These results contradict the trust hypothesis, suggesting that vision commitment can be better predicted by sanAch when followers have low rather than high trust in management.

Organizational Commitment Hypothesis.

Further, the results showed a main effect for organizational commitment on vision commitment, $t(246)= 4.27$, $\beta = .25$, $p < .01$. Again, the effect remains significant, $t(241)= 4.33$, $\beta= .25$, $p < .001$, in step four. The two-way interaction of sanAch X organizational commitment did not significantly explain additional variance, $\beta = -.05$, *ns.* These results suggest that higher organizational commitment is associated with higher commitment to the vision of the organization. However, the results do not support the predicted moderation effect of the organizational commitment hypothesis.

Vividness and Challenge Hypothesis.

In step two of the regression, both vividness and challenge contributed statistically significantly to the explained variance of vision commitment (vividness: $t(246) = 3.55$, $\beta = .21$, $p < .005$; challenge: $t(246) = 3.63$, $\beta = .21$, $p < .005$). In step three, none of the two-way interactions involving vividness or challenge were statistically significant ($ps > .1$). However, the three-way interaction of sanAch, vividness, and challenge in step four significantly increased the percentage of explained variance for vision commitment, $\Delta F(1, 240) = 8.80$, $\Delta R^2 = .03$, $p < .001$. The interaction patterns are illustrated in Figure 8.
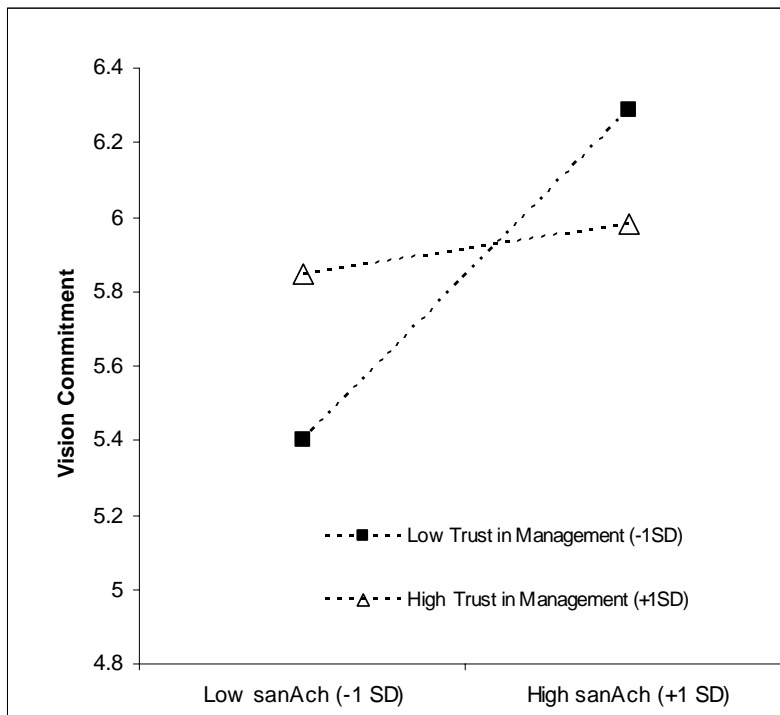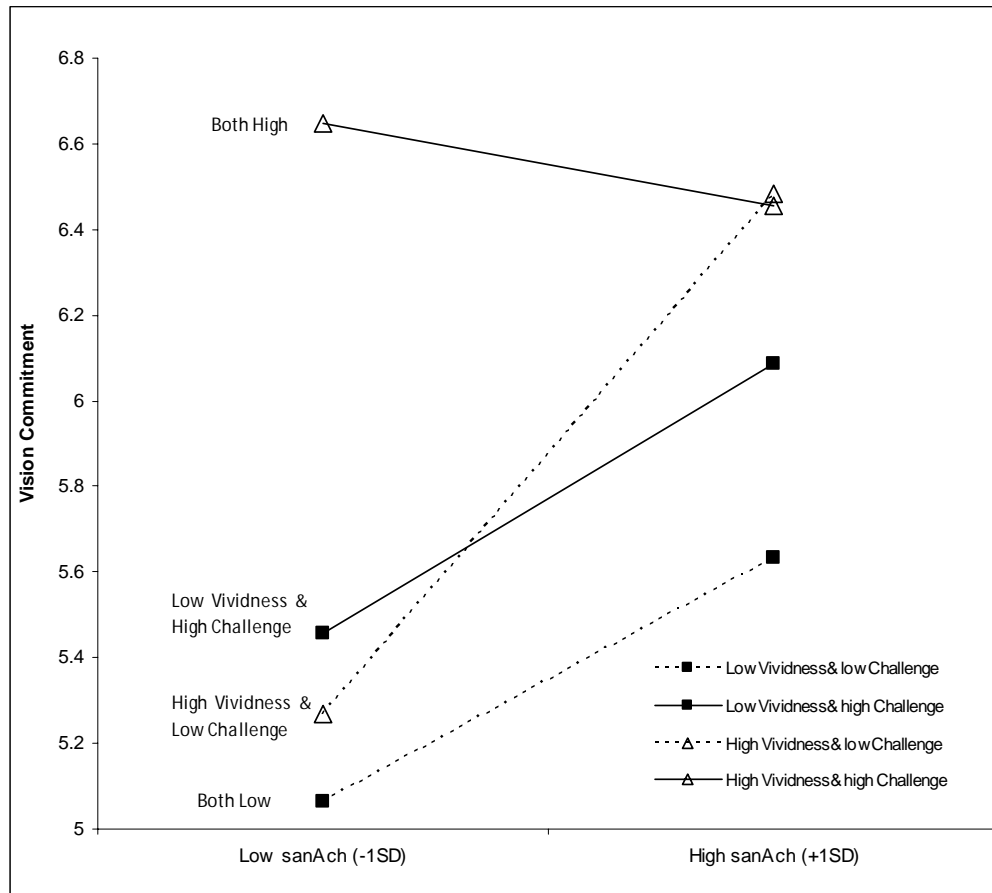
Figure 8. Interactions of the Explicit Achievement Motive with Vision Vividness and Challenge Predicting Vision Commitment, Study 2. sanAch = explicit achievement motive, *SD* = Standard Deviation

A simple slope test at values of one standard deviation above and below the means of sanAch, vividness, and challenge was performed (Aiken & West, 1991; Cohen et al., 2003). The results show that only for high vividness and challenge was the slope not statistically significant, $\beta = .001$, $p > .1$. All other slopes were statistically significant. The values are displayed in Table 12. This pattern only partially confirmed the predicted results. The positive relationship between sanAch and vision commitment disappeared for followers with high ratings for challenge and vividness.

Table 12

Conditional Effect of Explicit Achievement Motive Predicting Vision Commitment at the Values of Vision Challenge and Vividness

Challenge (*SD*)	Vividness (*SD*)	sanAch Predicting Vision Commitment			
		b	*SE*	*t*	*p*
-1	-1	.31	.09	3.36	< .001
-1	1	.67	.17	3.85	< .001
1	-1	.35	.11	2.65	< .01
1	1	-.11	.13	-0.82	0.42

Note: sanAch = explicit achievement motive, *SD* = Standard Deviation, *SE* = Standard Error.

4.3 Discussion

In line with the hypotheses, the findings provide initial support to the contention that a match of the organizational vision and followers' explicit motives predicts followers' vision commitment. Commitment to an achievement-oriented vision was higher for followers high rather than low in the vision-corresponding explicit achievement motive. This effect is stable across three countries and two different statements. For the first time, this effect is reported in research. Moreover, due to the multi-country design, the results suggest that this effect is generalizable across cultures.

Furthermore, trust in management moderated the effect of the vision-corresponding explicit achievement motive on followers' vision commitment. However, the interaction pattern was opposite to the hypothesized direction. Followers' vision commitment was more strongly predicted by their vision-corresponding explicit achievement motive for followers low in trust.

This result is similar to findings from Study 1, where the vision-corresponding implicit motive predicted inspiration for followers low (rather than high) in trust. It seems that these followers do not base their judgments on their vision-corresponding explicit motive. When they trust their leaders, followers' commit themselves to the idea (vision) of the leaders independently from their own explicit motives. In turn, these results suggest that explicit motives are utilized when followers need to compensate for lack of external incentives (like lack of trust in management).

As expected, higher organizational commitment was associated with higher vision commitment. Even though the two types of commitment relate to each other, the results empirically support their differentiation, suggesting that commitment to an

idea of the organization's future is different from followers' *current* commitment to the organization in general. The moderating effects of organizational commitment and the vision-corresponding explicit motive on vision commitment could not be confirmed. Trust in management or the vision attributes interacted more with followers' explicit motives than with organizational commitment.

In addition, the vision attributes of vividness and challenge predicted followers' vision commitment directly. Higher vividness and higher challenge of the vision resulted in higher vision commitment. Moreover, the vision attributes vividness and challenge moderated the relationship between the vision-corresponding explicit achievement motive and commitment. However, the moderation pattern was not exactly as expected. The moderation effect of vividness and challenge was exclusively confirmed for one or the other attribute. Followers' vision commitment is more strongly predicted by a vision-corresponding explicit achievement motive, when either vividness or challenge of the vision is high – but not if both are high. Thus, the expected moderation of vision challenge and vividness with the vision-corresponding achievement motive could not be confirmed. Instead, if both vision vividness and challenge are high, the positive relationship between the vision-corresponding achievement motive and commitment disappeared.

Since vision commitment ratings were already on a relatively high level, one potential explanation of this result is a ceiling effect. The results could also be explained with a similar rationale as before for the interaction of the explicit motives and trust in management: followers utilize their explicit motives to express their vision commitment, when they need to compensate for a lack of external criteria, like low challenge or the vividness of the vision. At the same time, a threshold of these

external criteria needs to be available to activate the vision-corresponding explicit motive at all.

Altogether, the effects from the vision-corresponding explicit motive, the vision attributes, and the perceived organizational context suggest a three-fold approach of followers: (1) followers directly and indirectly link their vision commitment to their perceived organizational context; (2) followers base their commitment to the vision on formal criteria like vividness and challenge of the vision statement; and (3) followers utilized their cognitive resources for introspections, aligning their vision commitment with their explicit motives.

Even though some of the limitations from Study 1 were addressed theoretically and empirically in this study (new dependent variable, focus on the explicit motive domain, additional stimulus material, larger sample), some Study 2-specific limitation apply. The sample of this study was new, though from within the same organization as in Study 1. To allow for generalization, two agency related visions from another organization are analyzed in the next study. Conceptually, the international sample could be criticized, since controlling for the country differences with covariates is only one method to setup multi-country studies. Since a primary aim of the present work is to explore the effects of the explicit motives on followers' vision commitment and not intercultural differences, this approach is (again) a result of the research focus.

Taken together, the study revealed some remarkable results. (1) The popular goal commitment construct was applied to vision statements for the first time in research, embedding the results of this study into a wider research context. (2) The results support the conceptual differentiation between organizational commitment and vision commitment. Even though the two concepts closely relate to each other, the data suggests that the two constructs can still be separated empirically. (3) Followers'

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vision commitment was sufficiently predicted by follower's vision-corresponding explicit motives.

In the next chapter, Study 3 retests the main hypothesis in a new sample with two agency-related vision statements. In addition, vision-related goals as an additional moderator of followers' explicit motives and their vision commitment are considered.

5. Study 3

Organizational Vision–Implicit and Explicit Motive Match Predicts Followers' Inspiration and Vision Commitment, Respectively

Study 3 examined two agency-focused vision statements in a new organizational sample. The focus of the study was threefold: first, it extended the empirical data sample to a second company. Second, it retested my main hypotheses of Study 1 and Study 2. Third, it examined inferences of vision-derived goals on followers' vision commitment.

Transfer of Main Hypotheses to the Agency Domain

The results of Study 1 and 2 tested the hypotheses in the achievement domain, suggesting that the vision-corresponding implicit motive predicts followers' inspiration (Study 1) and that the vision-corresponding explicit motive predicts vision commitment (Study 2). However, organizations also formulate vision statements, which do not exclusively focus on the achievement domain. Furthermore, my implicit and explicit motive hypotheses are not restricted to one specific motive-domain. This study retested the hypothesis, inducing an agency-related vision. The hypotheses are briefly recalled below:

Hypothesis 3.1: Followers' vision-corresponding implicit motives are positively associated with followers' inspiration.[15]

Hypothesis 3.2: Followers' vision-corresponding explicit motives are positively associated with followers' vision commitment.[16]

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[15] Hypothesis 3.1 equals hypothesis 1.1

Recall of the Mediation and Organizational Commitment Hypotheses

Study 3 retested the postulated mediation effect of followers' positive associations and the vision-corresponding implicit motive on followers' inspiration (see Study 1) in the agency domain. The corresponding mediation hypothesis is:

Hypothesis 3.3: Positive associations regarding the vision statement mediate the effect of vision-corresponding implicit motives on followers' inspiration.[17]

In Study 2, the strongest predictor for vision commitment besides the vision corresponding motive was followers' organizational commitment. Furthermore, the interference of vision commitment and organizational commitment should apply independently from the motive theme. Thus, the organizational commitment hypothesis is retested in Study 3:

Hypothesis 3.4: Organizational commitment moderates the effect of the vision-corresponding explicit motives on followers' vision commitment. Vision commitment is more strongly predicted by the vision-corresponding explicit motive when followers' organizational commitment is high rather than low.[18]

Vision-Derived Goals – Correlates to the Explicit Motives

Goals represent a distinct class of the explicit motive system (McClelland et al., 1989; Brunstein et al., 1998; Schultheiss & Brunstein, 1999; Kehr, 2000, 2004b).

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[16] Hypothesis 3.2 equals Hypothesis 2.1
[17] Hypothesis 3.3 equals Hypothesis 1.1
[18] Hypothesis 3.4 equals Hypothesis 2.4

Furthermore, to be effective, visions need to be backed up with proximal goals that reflect and implement the visions (Latham & Locke, 1991, p. 240). Goals that are derived from the vision statement guide actions and make the vision concrete to followers. In this research, these goals are termed *vision-derived goals*. Vision-derived goals differ in the degree of correspondence with the vision. For example, goals and visions can encompass similar (or conflicting) motive-themes. In the context of the present research, goals match with a vision when the motive-content of goals correspond to the motive-content of the vision.

In total, vision-derived goals represent a motive-specific incentive - comparable to the vision statement itself. It is assumed here that vision-derived goals activate followers' (explicit) goal-corresponding motives. This additional incentive can intensify (or buffer) the motive-specific incentive of the vision statement on followers' reactions. If the vision-derived goals match (and do not conflict) with the vision-corresponding explicit motives, vision commitment increases. Thus, the following *goal hypothesis* is derived:

Hypothesis 3.5: Vision-derived goals moderate the effect of the vision-corresponding explicit motives on followers' vision commitment. Vision commitment is more strongly predicted by the vision-corresponding explicit motive when the vision-derived goals match rather than conflict with the motive-content of the vision.

Statistical Considerations

To summarize the theoretical considerations in statistical terms, a positive main effect of the vision-corresponding explicit motive and a moderation effect of

organizational commitment with the vision-corresponding explicit motive on vision commitment were expected. In addition, a moderation effect between the vision-corresponding explicit motive and the vision-derived goals was expected, such that a match between the vision-derived goals and followers' vision-corresponding explicit motives amplifies the influence of these motives on vision commitment.

Further, a main effect of the vision-corresponding implicit motive on followers' inspiration, which is mediated by followers' positive associations with the vision statement, was expected. Figure 9 illustrates the conceptual hypotheses of Study 3.
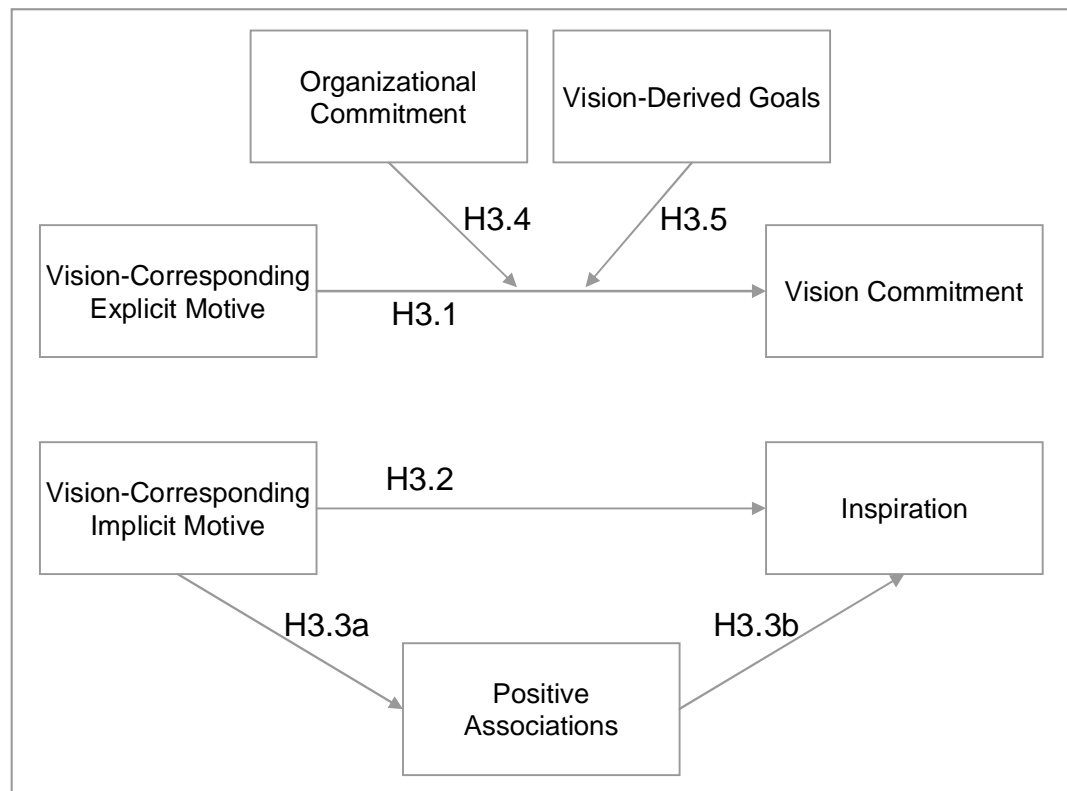

Figure 9. Conceptual Summary of Research Hypotheses, Study 3.

5.1 Method

A cross-sectional online design was conducted in Canada with employees from one business unit. A Canadian subsidiary of a German-based international blue-chip tech company volunteered for cooperation. The company was chosen because it operates in the security business. It was assumed that there would be a vision statement that is focused on the agency domain as a combination of achievement and power motivation.[19] This was guided by the rationale that a company in the security industry not only focuses on achievement, as a rather common motive theme in organizational visions, but also on power. It was assumed that operating in the security business is reflected in a higher need for control – a core characteristic of the power motive (cf. Winter, 1973). The company had renewed its global and local vision statements recently. An first communication of statements had already taken place before this survey. However, an initial feedback processes for the top management was supported by this research.

Participants were randomly split into two groups: the first group worked with the global vision statement of the company and the second group worked with the vision statement of the local organization.[20] Even though the study used a two-group design, there was no intention to compare the statements with each other. Furthermore, the two-statement design accounted for mono-operation bias (Cook & Campbell, 1979), similarly to the design of Study 2.

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[19] Please note that the data collection of this study was conducted in conjunction with a master thesis (see Stein, 2012).

[20] Please note that, even though both statements had been labeled as *mission statement* and not *vision statement*, I treated them equally worth to study in line with my theoretical definition and considerations (see p.4). To avoid confusion, the label *vision statement* was used for both within this work.

Predominant Motive Content: as in Studies 1 and 2, trained coders coded both statements and the supplementary material provided by the organization.[21] The same procedure as in Studies 1 and 2 was used (expert training, independent coding following the criteria of Winter [1991]; disagreements were resolved in a joint discussion). The motive scores of each scorer for both statements are summarized in Table 13.

Table 13
Predominant Motive Content of the Vision Statements, Study 3

Expert	Global Statement			Local Statement		
	Achievement	Affiliation	Power	Achievement	Affiliation	Power
1	5	0	3	4	0	4
2	4	0	4	5	0	3
Final Scores	5	0	3	4	0	4

Note. Motive Scores were derived according to Winter's (1991) coding scheme.

As expected, the results suggest that both statements are more power- and achievement-oriented than affiliation-oriented. Considering the themes of achievement and power as two different but complementary indications for the agency domain (cf. Brunstein et al., 1998), the statements were appropriate to test the hypotheses in this domain.

Procedure

A in Studies 1 and 2, participants were invited via email to give feedback to the new statements. Moreover, we used the same pre-information (survey purpose: feedback on the statements for the management) and setup (volunteer basis, anonymity, confidentiality, no compensation) as in Study 1 and 2. Test methods were administered to participants online via their workplace in the official business

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[21] Note that this document does not contain the companies' vision statements due to confidentiality reasons.

language (English). As in Studies 1 and 2, any effects associated with participants'

previous knowledge were also controlled for. Unlike in Studies 1 and 2, this company

had already communicated the renewed statement to its local followers before the

research took place.

As in Study 1, participants' implicit and explicit motives were assessed first,

followed by their organizational commitment. After the association task (see Study 1,

p. 35) participants stated their vision-derived goals in a new task. Therefore,

participants were asked to write down their work goals, which fit to the vision

statement. Finally, the dependent measures were assessed for followers' inspiration

and commitment to the vision statement, followed by demographic data (as in Studies

1 and 2).

Participants

In total, adequate data were collected from 60 employees (n_{global}=34; n_{local}= 26).

Twenty-seven of the participants were women, 32 men; one did not specify her/his

gender. Age groups were distributed as follows: 18–25 years (1.80%), 26–33

(20.00%), 34–41 (30.90%), 42–49 (18.20%), 50–57 (23.60%), older (5.50%); five

participants did not state their age. Organizational tenure varied: Less than 1 year

(15.52%), 1–4 years (27.59%) over 4 to 7 years (18.97%), 7–10 (5.17%) and over 10

years (12.07%). The majority of the sample was Canadian (78.3%); three were

European, two Indian, and one each Chinese, Russian, and Philippine.[22]

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[22] See appendix (Table 18) for a summary of all demographic varaibles

Independent Measures

Implicit Agency Motive (nAg).

To assess nAg, a *Picture Story Exercise* (PSE) was administered. In a PSE, participants are asked to write whatever stories come to mind when a set of pictures is presented. The pictures typically show multiple actors in ambiguous interpersonal situations. In the present study, the picture-set showed (1) a woman and a man on a bench next to a river, (2) a man and a boy playing chess, (3) two women in a laboratory, and (4) a captain talking to a man. With the exception of the second picture (see Appendix), all pictures were taken from Smith (1992). All pictures have been used in varying combination with other pictures in past research on implicit motives (Lundy, 1988; Zurbriggen, 2000; Pang & Schultheiss, 2005)

Participants followed the standard instructions for computer administration of the PSE described by Schultheiss and Pang (2007). Each picture was displayed for ten seconds and then replaced by a screen with writing instructions (Schultheiss, Liening, & Schad, 2008). Participants were instructed to type their stories directly into a window on the screen with the guiding questions appearing above the writing window. After four minutes had elapsed, participants were prompted to stop writing and to move on to the next picture.

The sum of the implicit power motive (nPow) and the implicit achievement motive (nAch) were combined as nAg. The PSE protocols were content coded for nPow and nAch by two trained coders according to Winter (1991). The scoring algorithm has already been explained on page 35. Percentage agreements (also called inter-rater reliability) between the two scorers across all four picture protocols were estimated by the index of concordance ([2 × number of agreements between scorers] / [Scorer A's scores + Scorer B's scores]; see Schultheiss & Brunstein, 2001). On

average, the inter-rater reliability was 85% for nAg (nAch: 94%, nPow: 73%). Scoring disagreements were resolved by discussion, and scores from these joint sessions were used as final scores. To minimize errors the same two trained scorers were used for all scoring material (consisting of PSE stories, the vision statements, and the vision-derived goal protocols).

Mean raw scores were $M = 2.50$ ($SD = 2.01$) for nAg. Moreover, protocol length was determined by counting the number of words over all four stories. On average, participants wrote 254.81 words ($SD = 131.57$). Because PSE protocol length was significantly correlated with participants' overall scores for nAg ($r = .56$, $p < .01$), the influence of protocol length on the motive scores was removed by regression and the residuals were subsequently converted to z-scores (cf. Cohen et al., 2003).

Explicit Agency Motive (sanAg).

As in Studies 1 and 2, a short version of the UMS was used (UMS-3, Schönbrodt & Gerstenberg, in press), measuring sanAg as mean score of the explicit achievement motive (sanAch) and the explicit power motive (sanPow). Each of the two motives was measured with three items on a 6-point Likert scale. Example items are "I like to have the final say" (sanPow), and "I consider it important to maintain high standards for the quality of my work" (sanAch).

In this study, scores for sanAg ranged from 2.67 to 5.67 ($M = 4.23$, $SD = 0.63$), with an internal consistency of Cronbach's $\alpha = .71$.

Positive Associations.

The same two measures as in Study 1 were used for positive associations based on the text protocols of participants' associations (see p. 38).

(1) Automated measure: *autoPosAss.* Scores ranged from 0 to 8 for autoPosAss and from 0 to 2 for negative associations (autoNegAss), which was used as covariate. Mean scores were $M = 1.92$ ($SD = 1.79$) for autoPosAss and $M = .08$ ($SD = .34$) for autoNegAss. Because protocol length was significantly correlated with autoPosAss, $r = .54$, $p < .005$, but not with autoNegAss, r = -.06, ns., the influence of protocol length on autoPosAss was removed by regression and the residuals were subsequently converted to z-scores (cf. Cohen et al., 2003).

(2) Manual measure: *manPosAss.* The same coding criteria as in Study 1 (see p. 39) were used. Two independent coders blindly coded the material. An inter-rater-reliability of 83% was achieved for the overall sample. Deviating score were discussed and aligned in a joint session. Out of all protocols, 13.7 % were negative, 39.2 % neutral, and 47.1 % positive.

Vision-Derived Goals (goalAg).

Participants were asked to derive three work goals based on the vision statement presented. The instruction encouraged participants to leave existing goals and target agreements completely out of consideration, but to make sure that their goals match with the purpose of the vision statement. This approach has been used for previously personal goals (Strasser, 2011). Participants were asked to formulate three goals that contribute to reach the vision. More specifically, participants were asked to specify one group goal for their organization, one personal goal, and a third goal that they could freely formulate. For each goal, participants were asked to specify the goal in six-to-eight sentences. To assess the match of the vision-derived goal with the vision-corresponding agency motive, goal protocols were content coded for achievement and power content according to Winter (1991). The sum of achievement and power scores result in a raw score for goalAg.

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Mean raw score was $M = 4.33$ for goalAg ($SD = 1.92$). Moreover, protocol length was determined by counting the number of words over all three goals. On average, participants wrote 160.34 words ($SD = 77.97$). Because goal protocol length was significantly correlated with participants' overall scores for goalAg ($r = .53$, $p < .01$), the influence of protocol length on the motive scores was removed by means of a regression analysis and subsequently converted to z-scores (cf. Cohen et al., 2003).

Organizational Commitment.

The same three items from Meyer and Allen (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993) as in Study 2 were used (see p. 68). In this study, scores ranged from 2.0 to 7.0 ($M = 5.64$, $SD = 1.40$) with an internal consistency of Cronbach's $\alpha = .85$.

Dependent Measures

Vision Commitment.

As in Study 2 (see p. 70), the adjusted goal commitment scale was used to measure vision commitment (cf. Hollenbeck, Williams, & Klein, 1989; Klein et al., 2001). In this study, scores ranged from 4.00 to 7.0 ($M = 6.00$, $SD = .88$), with an internal consistency of Cronbach's $\alpha = .64$.

Inspiration.

Inspirational capabilities of the statements were assessed with the same scale as in Study 1 (see p. 41; MVS; Rawolle et al., 2012). In this study, scores ranged from 1.0 to 7.0 ($M = 5.26$, $SD = 1.44$), with an internal consistency of Cronbach's $\alpha = .96$.

5.2 Results

Initial Analyses

Conceptually, a sample size of 60 participants raises the question on the statistical power of the results. Calculating the margin of error for continuous variables (Bartlett, Kotrlik, & Higgins, 2001) amounts to 4.2% for a 7-point-likert scale, given a 95% confidence interval. Hence, for the subsequent analysis it should be kept in mind that the accuracy of participants' answers is limited to the first decimal place.

Regression analyses of followers' inspiration on *previous knowledge* of the two statements (for the item, see Study 1, p. 43) did not point to bias associated with participants' prior knowledge of the statements, $R^{2corr} = -0,013$, $p > .1$. However, regression analysis of previous knowledge on followers' vision commitment showed marginal significant effects, $R^{2corr} = .043$, $p < .1$, such that followers' with more knowledge about the statement reported higher vision commitment. Furthermore, followers differed significantly in their previous knowledge about the two statements. Reported mean values for previous knowledge of the local statement ($M = 3.85$, $SD = .94$) were significantly higher than for the global statement ($M = 3.00$, $SD = 1.17$; $t(58) = 3.05$, $p < .01$). Means of the central variables did not differ between the two statements ($p > .1$). Table 14 shows descriptive statistics and mean comparisons of all variables for both groups. To control for the effects of previous knowledge and the two statements groups, both variables were included in the following analysis as covariates. Thereby, an effect coding for the statement groups was used (Global = -1, Local = 1). Table 15 displays the inter-correlations of all variables.

Table 14

Mean and Standard Deviation with Mean Comparisons for Central Variables by Subgroup, Study 3

Variable	Local Statement		Global Statement	
	Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*
1. Vision Commitment	5.85$_a$	.98	6.12$_a$	.81
2. Inspiration	5.02$_a$	1.60	5.46$_a$	1.29
3. nAg	2.19$_a$	2.00	2.76$_a$	2.02
4. sanAg	4.35$_a$	.61	4.15$_a$	.64
5. autoPosAss	2.35$_a$	2.23	1.65$_a$	1.40
6. manPosAss	.50$_a$	.76	.23$_a$	.67
7. autoNegAss	.05$_a$	.22	.10$_a$	.40
8. goalAg	4.65$_a$	1.92	4.06$_a$	1.92
9. prevKnow	3.85$_a$	.95	3.00$_b$	1.17
10. orgCom	5.36$_a$	1.59	5.87$_a$	1.20

Note: Values in the same row and subtable not sharing the same subscript (*a* or *b)* are significantly different at *p* < .05 in the two-sided test of equality for column means. Tests assume equal variances. Tests are adjusted for all pairwise comparisons within a row of each innermost subtable using the Bonferroni correction; 49 < N < 60, due to missing data. nAg = implicit agency motive, sanAg = explicit agency motive, autoPosAss = automatically coded positive associations, manPosAss = manually coded positive associations, autoNegAss = automatically coded negative associations, goalAg = vision-derived goals, prevKnow = previous knowledge of the statement, orgCom = organizational commitment.

Main Hypotheses

To test the hypotheses, several regression analyses were conducted. First, a hierarchical multiple linear regression analysis (simultaneous entry method) was conducted with vision commitment as dependent variable. Second, two simple mediation analyses were conducted with followers' inspiration as dependent variable.

Table 15
Summary of Inter-correlations for Scores of Central Variables, Study 3

Measure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Vision Commitment	-									
2. Inspiration	.64***	-								
3. nAg	-.15	-.08	-							
4. sanAg	.19	.01	.13	-						
5. autoPosAss	.39***	.34*	-.15	.01	-					
6. manPosAss	.21	.30*	-.05	-.09	.15	-				
7. autoNegAss	-.04	-.35*	.18	.13	-.07	-.28*	-			
8. goalAg	.23	.04	.16	.29*	.01	.13	.09	-		
9. prevKnow	.24	.07	-.05	.29*	-.01	.10	.03	.12	-	
10. orgCom	.44***	.43**	.10	.19	.24*	-.11	.19	.17	-.06	-
11. Group	.16	.15	.19	-.15	.00	-.19	.07	-.13	-.37***	.18

Note: $49 < N < 60$, due to missing data. nAg = implicit agency motive, sanAg = explicit agency motive, autoPosAss = automatically coded positive associations, manPosAss = manually coded positive associations, autoNegAss = automatically coded negative associations, goalAg = vision-derived goals, prevKnow= previous knowledge of the vision statement, orgCom = organizational commitment, group was effect coded: Local Vision= 1, Global Vision = -1). $^{†}p < .10$; $^{*}p < .05$; $^{**}p < .01$; $^{***}p < .005$.

Hypotheses including Followers' Vision Commitment.

In a first step, previous knowledge and the dichotomous group variable were entered into the regression to control for their influence on vision commitment (Step 1). Second, the explicit agency motive, vision-derived goals, and organizational commitment were entered as predictor (Step 2), followed by interaction terms for sanAch with goalAg and sanAch with organizational commitment (Step 3), as well as sanAch with goalAg and with organizational commitment (Step 4). Results of the regression analysis are displayed in Table 16.

Table 16

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Followers'
Commitment to the Vision, Study 2

		Vision Commitment		
Predictor	ΔR^2	B	$SE\ B$	β
Step 1	.16**			
Group		.25	.12	.28*
Previous Knowledge		.32	.10	.41***
Step 2 (Main Effects)	.17**			
Group		.19	.11	.22†
Previous Knowledge		.30	.10	.40***
sanAg		-.03	.11	-.04
goalAg		.12	.10	.13
orgCom		.33	.11	.38***
Step 3 (Two-Way Interactions)	0.04			
Group		.19	.11	.21†
Previous Knowledge		.31	.10	.41***
sanAg		-.07	.12	-.08
goalAg		.14	.12	.16
orgCom		.34	.11	.38***
sanAch X goalAg		.05	.11	.07
sanAch X orgCom		-.11	.10	-.14
orgCom X goalAg		.15	.15	.14
Step 4 (Three-Way Interaction)	.07*			
Group		.17	.10	.20
Previous Knowledge		.36	.10	.47***
sanAg		-.08	.12	-.09*
goalAg		.23	.12	.26†
orgCom		.34	.10	.39***
sanAch X goalAg		-.06	.11	-.08
sanAch X orgCom		-.13	.09	-.17
orgCom X goalAg		.06	.15	-.06
sanAch X goalAg X orgCom		-.32	.13	-.36*
Total R^2	.44***			

Note: $49 < N < 60$, due to missing data. sanAg = explicit agency motive, goalAg = vision-derived goals,
orgCom = organizational commitment, group was effect coded (Local Vision = 1, Global Vision = -1).
$^{†}p < .10$; $^{*}p < .05$; $^{**}p < .01$; $^{***}p < .005$.

Controlling for previous knowledge and the statement groups in step one had a

statistically significant influence on vision commitment, $\Delta F(2, 55) = 5.21$, $p = .01$,

$\Delta R^2 = .16$. The influence of previous knowledge remained significant in the following

steps (Step 4: $\beta = .47$, $t(48) = 3.58$, $p < .005$).

Step two explained significantly more variance of vision commitment than step one, $\Delta F(3, 52) = 4.34$, $p = .01$, $\Delta R^2 = .17$. However, neither sanAg, $\beta = -.04$, $p = .76$, or goalAg, $\beta = .13$, $p = .27$ did significantly predicted vision commitment, whereas the effect of organizational commitment was significant, $\beta = .38$, $t(52) = 3.20$, $p < .005$. Thus, these results do not support the explicit motive hypothesis.

The two-way interactions in step three did not significantly explain additional variance of vision commitment, $\Delta R^2 = .04$. $p = .34$. However, the three-way interaction in step four between sanAg X goalAg X orgCom significantly explained the additional 7% variance of the model, $\Delta F(1, 48) = 5.81$, $p = .02$, $\Delta R^2 = .07$.

A simple slope test at values of one standard deviation above and below the means of sanAg, goalAg and orgCom was performed (Aiken & West, 1991; Cohen et al., 2003). The analyses revealed that the slope for high organizational commitment and low vision-derived goals was marginally different from zero, $\beta = .35$, $SE = 0.18$, $t(48) = 1.92$, $p = .06$. The slope for low organizational commitment and high vision-derived goals pointed into the same direction, but was not statistically significant, $t(48) = 1.44$, $p = .15$. The other slopes (high x high, low x low) were not statistically significant, $ps > .1$. Figure 10 displays the results.

Taken together, these results support the organizational commitment and goal hypotheses only within restrictions (discussed in the next chapter). Moreover, the results suggest that followers show higher vision commitment when they have more knowledge about the vision.
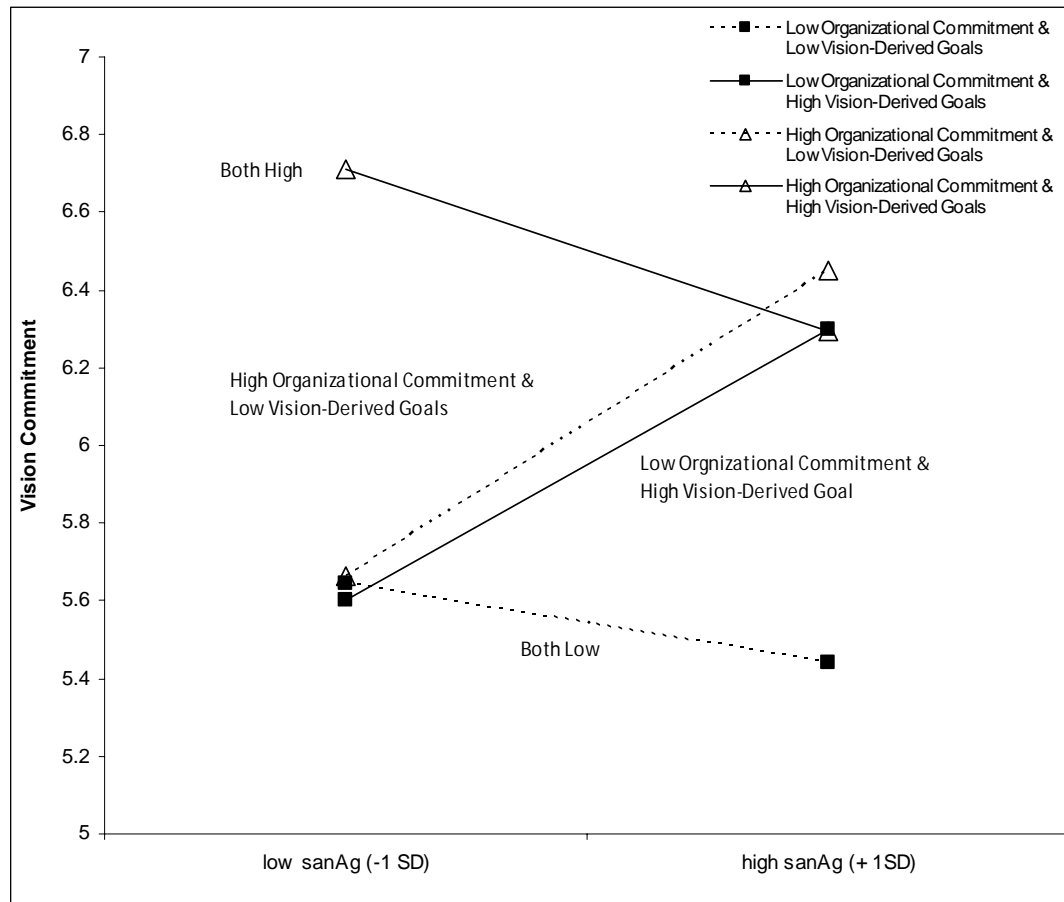
Figure 10. Interaction of the Explicit Agency Motive with Vision-Derived Goals and Organizational Commitment Predicting Vision Commitment, Study 3. sanAg = explicit agency motive, goalAg = vision-derived goals, orgCom = organizational commitment, *SD* = standard deviation.

Hypotheses including Followers' Inspiration.

In two simple mediation models, the mediation hypothesis was retested (Model A: autoPosAss; Model B: manPosAss). For each model, the implicit agency motive was entered as an independent variable (for the conceptual model, see Figure 2). As in Study 1 (see p. 39), I entered autoNegAss as covariate in Model A complementing the measure for autoPosAss. In addition, the statement group was entered in both models as covariate.

Results of Model A show that the implicit agency motive did not predict followers' inspiration (path c), $\beta = -.26$, $p = .14$. Results of Model B show a marginal influence of the implicit agency motive on followers' inspiration (path c), $\beta = -.33$,

$t(46) = -1.85$, p = .07. Thus, these results do not support the implicit motive hypothesis rather suggest a slightly negative influence of the implicit agency motive on followers' inspiration. The main results for the mediation analyses are displayed in Figure 11.

Regression results for the mediator autoPosAss showed no significant effect of nAg on the mediator, $\beta = -.15$, $p = .31$, but a significant effect of the mediator on inspiration, $\beta = .38$, $t(44) = 2.34$, $p = .02$. The effect of nAg on inspiration decreased to $\beta = -.20$, $p = .23$. Neither a Sobel Test (Sobel, 1982) nor a bootstrap analysis testing the indirect effect was statistically significant ($p > .1$). Controlling for the statement group did not influence the explained variance of followers' inspiration ($p > .1$). However, negative associations were significantly related to followers' inspiration, $\beta = -.40$, $t(44) = -2.45$. $p = .02$. Even though the results do not support the mediation hypothesis for automatically coded positive associations, they suggest a predictive influence of (positive and negative) associations on followers' inspiration.

Regression results for the mediator manPosAss showed no significant effect of nAg on the mediator, $\beta = -.05$, $p = .73$, but a significant effect of the mediator on inspiration, $\beta = .41$, $t(45) = 2.38$, $p = .02$. The effect of nAg on inspiration remained on the previous level $\beta = -.32$, $t(45) = -1.91$, $p = .06$. Neither a Sobel Test (Sobel, 1982) nor a bootstrap analysis testing the indirect effect was significant ($p > .1$). Controlling for the statement group did not influence the explained variance of followers' inspiration ($p > .1$). Even though the results do not support the mediation hypothesis for manually coded positive associations, they once more suggest a significant relation between followers' positive associations and their inspiration.

a) Mediation Model A: autoPosAss
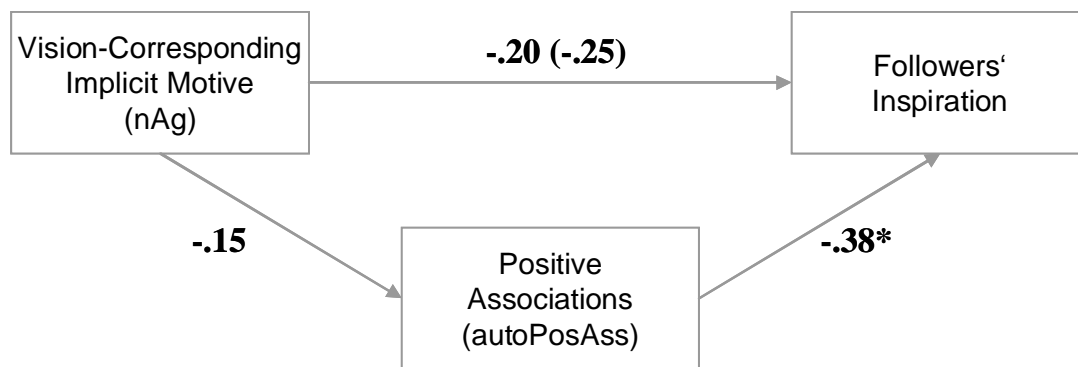
$R^2_{\text{Inspiration, nAg, autoPosAss}} = .28^{***}$; $R^2_{\text{Inspiration, nAg}} = .19^{*}$; $R^2_{\text{posAss, nAg}} = .02$

b) Mediation Model B: manPosAss
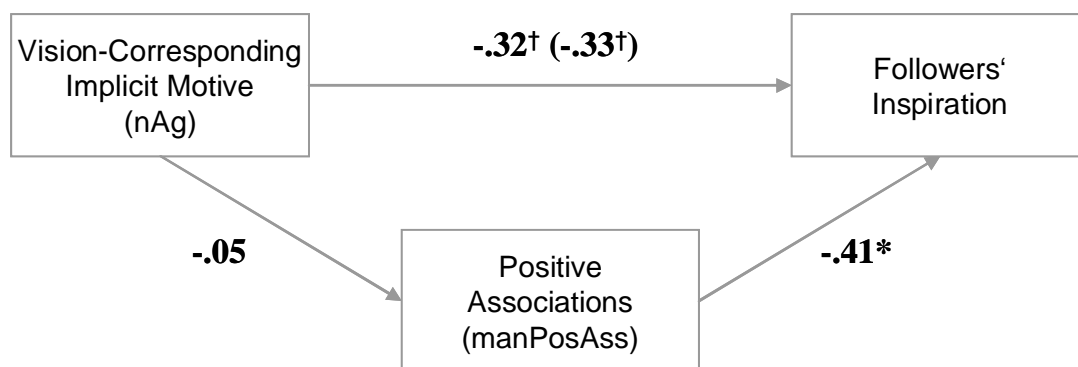
$R^2_{\text{Inspiration, nAg, manPosAss}} = .18^{*}$; $R^2_{\text{Inspiration, nAg}} = .08$; $R^2_{\text{posAss, nAg}} = .01$

Figure 11. Results of the Simple Mediation Models Predicting Inspiration, Study 3. Values next to arrows: β. nAg = implicit agency motive, sanAg = explicit agency motive, manPosAss = manually coded positive associations, autoNegAss = automatically coded negative associations.
$^{\dagger}p < .10$; $^{*}p < .05$; $^{**}p < .01$; $^{***}p < .005$.

Supplemental Analysis: Delineating the Effects of the Vision-Corresponding

Implicit Agency Motive on Inspiration

To understand the root cause of the unexpected negative relationship between

nAg and followers' inspiration, another multiple linear regression analysis with

followers' inspiration as dependent variable was performed. Again, the statements

groups were controlled for (Step 1). This time the implicit agency motive was entered

as two separate variables: the implicit achievement motive and the implicit power

motive (Step 2).[23] The results of the regression analysis are displayed in Table 17.

Table 17
Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Followers' Inspiration from the
Implicit Achievement and Power Motive with Control Variables, Study 3

	Predictor	ΔR^2	B	SE B	β
			Followers' Inspiration		
Step 1		.01			
	Group				
Step 2		.09			
	Group				
	nAch		.07	.17	.05
	nPow		-.37	.17	-.29[*]
Total R^2		.10			

Note. $N = 60$; nAch = implicit achievement motive, nPow = implicit power motive; group was effect coded (Local Vision = 1, Global Vision = -1); [†]$p < .10$; [*]$p < .05$; [**]$p < .01$; [***]$p < .005$.

The second step marginally explained more variance than the first step of the

regression on followers' inspiration, $\Delta F(2, 52) = 2.43$, p = .09, $\Delta R^2 = .09$[†]. The

implicit achievement motive was positively related to followers' inspiration, but not

statistically significantly, β = .09, $p = .52$. The implicit power motive statistically

significantly and negatively predicted followers' inspiration, β = -.29 $p = .03$. These

results suggest that the unexpected results in the agency domain are rooted in some

unexpected (negative) relationship in the power domain, which needs to be discussed.

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[23] Because PSE protocol length was significantly correlated with participants' overall scores for nAch ($r = .30$, $p < .05$) and nPow ($r = .55$, $p < .01$), the influence of protocol length on the motive scores was removed by regression and the residuals were subsequently converted to z-scores (cf. Cohen et al., 2003). Z-Scores were entered into the regression analysis.

5.3 Discussion

Even though the results should be treated with caution due to the small sample size, they shed some light on the main hypotheses in the agency domain.

The expected effects of the vision-corresponding agency motive on followers' vision commitment were only found in conjunction with vision-derived goals and followers' organizational commitment. More precisely, followers did utilize their explicit agency motive to express their vision commitment, if vision-derived goals or organizational commitment (but not both at the same time) were pronounced. These results suggest that followers' explicit motives are taken into consideration when followers lack other resources (e.g., due to low organizational commitment or lack of vision-derived goals) supporting their commitment to a vision. These findings are in line with the results of the previous studies, suggesting a similar motive-based compensation mechanism for insufficient non-motive-based incentives. However, at least one additional incentive, high organizational commitment or vision-derived goals, needed to be pronounced to activate followers' vision-corresponding explicit motives.

Furthermore, the results show that more knowledge about a vision is positively related to followers' vision commitment. This result seems reasonable, since better knowledge should come with a clearer understanding of the vision, which relates to message effectiveness (Paces & Faules, 1989; Witherspoon, 1997).

For followers' inspiration and positive associations, the results support the prediction that positive associations are a prerequisite for inspiration. This result is stable across the manual and the automated measure for positive associations. Moreover, negative associations had an adverse effect on followers' inspiration. Following the above-mentioned considerations that positive associations with the

vision approximate followers' positive affects, these results fit to the existing research on inspiration, wherein positive affect is the strongest known correlate to inspiration (Thrash & Elliot, 2003).

Further, the results do not support the implicit motive or mediation hypothesis in the agency domain. Followers' implicit agency motives did not predict their positive associations or their inspiration. Moreover, the data suggest a slightly negative effect of the implicit agency motive on followers' inspiration. This result is mainly rooted in the influence of followers' implicit power motive. One can question the reasons for this result, since Rawolle's (2010) results in a lab environment indicate that a power-related vision arouses the corresponding implicit power motive. Nevertheless, one conceptual and one content related consideration are discussed to explain the present results.

(1) Conceptually, the validity of the implicit measurements could be insufficient, since only the minimum set of four picture stories was applied to derive an indicator for followers' implicit agency motives. Furthermore, the challenge of the PSE in a field experiment is that participants are not used to writing imaginative stories at their work desk, even though they might be used to participating in online surveys. For further studies, a more controlled environment, like a classroom setting, and time for two more pictures to assess the implicit motives would be desirable.

(2) Under the assumption that the measure provides sufficient validity, the question remains as to why the power motive negatively predicted followers' inspiration. A potential explanation could lie in the vision construct itself: organizational visions are made for groups of people and not individuals. In contrast to personal visions, the vision is assigned to followers. However, people with a high implicit power motive seek to have control and impact on others (cf. Winter, 1973). If

the study design did not sufficiently allow for participants' control or impact, the vision statement might not have aroused their implicit power motive within the applied setting. All participants, including individuals high in implicit power, were "forced" to express their level of inspiration to given and not self-set visions. This situation is rather opposite to a desirable situation for someone with a need for control and impact. Hence, for future studies, it seems necessary to redesign the setup to be more suitable to the power domain.

      This study is not without limitations. In particular, the small sample size means that the results should be treated with caution and the strong influence of the covariates on the results should be further considered. The covariate previous knowledge significantly predicted followers' vision commitment. Future studies should consider this contextual factor more systematically or avoid inference inherent in the study design (see Study 1 and 2).

6. General Discussion

The present research provides a motive-based empirical and theoretical explanation for followers' commitment to an organizational vision and the induced inspiration by this vision. Thus, the dual character of organizational visions as distal goals and mental images activated and aroused followers' explicit and implicit motives, respectively. Three field studies in five countries largely support the prediction that a match of the organizational vision and followers' explicit or implicit motives leads to vision commitment and inspiration, respectively. These results are in line with previous research on experimentally constructed or personal visions and motives (Kehr et al., 2010; Rawolle, 2010; Strasser, 2011). For the first time in research, authentic organizational visions in a field environment were used to test the motive-based mechanisms on vision-related outcomes.

The findings regarding a cause for followers inspiration induced by a vision are quite encouraging. Study 1 offers the first empirical evidence that individuals with a high (rather than low) need for the vision-corresponding achievement motive feel more inspired by the vision. These findings complement previous research that already demonstrated the capability of (personal) visions to arouse the corresponding implicit motives (Kehr et al., 2010; Rawolle, 2010; Strasser, 2011). Furthermore, these results are in line with the idea of early theories (e.g., path-goal theory; Evans, 1970) that highlighted the role of followers' characteristics beyond leaders' behavior and attributes for followers' beliefs and motivated behavior.

In line with the findings of Thrash and Elliot (2004), Study 1 and Study 3 empirically support the predicted influence of followers' (positive) and (negative)

affect on their inspiration. Furthermore, the results of Study 1 underline the role of positive affect – and, more precisely, positive associations with the vision – as a mediator for followers' implicit motives on their inspiration.

In contrast to Study 1, where the aroused vision-corresponding implicit (achievement) motive predicted followers' inspiration, this effect was not substantiated for the agency domain in Study 3. Potential reasons within the sample or setup were discussed (see p. 104). In addition, Choi's (2006) theory suggests that visions stimulate the need for achievement of followers, but not the need for power, as part of the agency-oriented vision. Nevertheless, results in the power domain from Rawolle (2010) and Strasser (2011) substantiate the postulated mechanism, whereby the motive-content of the vision aroused the corresponding implicit power motive.

Study 2 offers explanations regarding the interaction between followers' vision-corresponding explicit motives and their commitment to the vision. Followers are more likely to commit themselves to a vision if their explicit motive preferences match with the pre-dominant motive content of the vision. The present findings are consistent with results from previous research: participants with higher levels of self-reported achievement reported higher levels of energization induced by an experimentally manipulated achievement vision (Rawolle, 2010). In the context of goal research, these findings provide evidence that followers' commitment to a distal goal, like a vision, relate to their explicit motives. These findings complement existing research, which showed an influence of explicit motives on the development of goals (Brunstein et al., 1998) and task choice (Spangler, 1992).

In light of the self-concept theory (Higgins, 1987, 1996; Markus & Wurf, 1987), these results suggest an effect of organizational visions on followers' self-concept. Accordingly, followers have the ability to personalize organizational visions into an

"ideal future self-image" (Stam et al., 2010, p. 458), leading to higher commitment to the organizational vision. Furthermore, results of Study 3 underline the important role of vision-derived goals on followers' ability to internalize the organizational vision. Vision-derived goals support followers' tendencies to align their explicit motives with their commitment to the organizational vision. This result complements the notion of Latham and Locke (1991) that vision needs to backed up with proximal goals to be effective. Furthermore, the results extend Ilies et al.'s (2006) goal-based explanation of vision effectiveness in the sense that not only do visions foster goal commitment but also vision-derived goals foster followers' commitment to the overall organizational vision.

Findings across all studies emphasize a strong influence of contextual factors, like followers' general organizational commitment or their previous knowledge about the vision on vision-related motivational outcomes. These (expected) findings highlight the sensitivity of followers' implicit and explicit motives to non-motive-related vision or contextual characteristics. Visions attributes like vividness and challenge, as well as trust in management, organizational commitment, or vision-derived goals, interfere with followers' commitment and inspiration. Furthermore, interdependencies between these variables and followers' implicit and explicit motives suggest that followers utilize more than one (but not all) attributes and personality characteristics at the same time to derive their commitment to an organizational vision and inspiration. Previous research on vision attributes (Baum et al., 1998) and the organizational context (Allen & Mayer, 1990; Duckitt, 1989) underlines the influence of the non-motive related predictors for vision commitment and inspiration.

In sum, the findings imply that organizational visions can be used as motivational incentives for followers, as long as some boundary conditions are met. Followers respond to language-based and pictorial motive cues of vision, as long as the motive-specific incentive is strong enough. Motivational effects of visions can be stimulated by the creation of positive affect and are supported by selected vision attributes and contextual factors. However, the challenge for organizational leaders (as well as for researchers) is to formulate and communicate visions in such a way that the motive incentive is strong enough to arouse and activate followers' implicit and explicit motives.

6.1 Limitations and Future Directions of Research

Apart from the replication of the findings of the present research with other visions and other samples, the following limitations need to be addressed in future research.

In terms of statistical relevance of the results, the three studies have different boundary conditions, since all studies were based on different sample sizes. Thus, the increased likelihood of errors for smaller sample sizes should be kept in mind, especially when interpreting the results of Study 3. Furthermore, replications of the studies with larger samples are suggested.

Study 1 and Study 3 assessed the implicit motives of followers; however, different measures were used. These measures offer different advantages and disadvantages. The semi-projective measure of Study 1 is superior to the projective measure of Study 3 in terms of an economical study design, which is desirable in a field setting, whereas the projective-measure is superior in terms of ecological validity. To broaden the foundation of the hypotheses, the application of additional projective

measures is desirable. For example, the measures indicating followers' positive affect (in Study 1 and 3) could be complemented with a projective measure, like the implicit positive and negative affect test (IPANAT: Quirin, Kazén, & Kuhl, 2009).

All studies were carried out in a cross-sectional online setup, since it was necessary to consider the needs of the organizations for an economical study design. As it is reasonable to assume that vision statements not only have a short term but also a long term effect on followers' motivation, it would seem promising to test the long-term effects with a longitudinal study design.

Furthermore, the studies' stimulus materials focused on the achievement and agency (combined achievement and power) domain. To generalize the hypotheses, more studies are required including a focus on the affiliation domain as well as an isolated focus on the power domain. Furthermore, a design that allows analyzing the effects of the vision attributes vividness and challenge independently from the motivational outcome (i.e., in a between-group design), is also desirable. Since a well-articulated organizational vision presumably differs from organizational goals, further research could compare the influence of these two constructs on motivational, attitudinal, and behavioral outcomes.

Though behavioral evidence that implicit motives energize and select instrumental behavior in the vision context has been given in a lab environment (Rawolle, 2011), the present research lacks analogous measures in a field environment. Future research needs to examine behavioral outcome measures in addition to the existing attitudinal measures of this research, answering the question:

What kind of vision-related behavior is ascribed to followers' inspiration and vision commitment?

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Hereby, it seems promising to focus on outcomes that are congruent to the vision-corresponding motives (e.g., a performance task should correspond to an achievement-oriented vision).

Nevertheless, saying it in the words of a motivational psychologist: "motivation is not the same as behavior, but motivation makes behavior much more likely to occur" (Schattke, 2011, p. 4). Thus, this research is a first step towards explaining underlying motivational mechanisms of organizational visions.

6.2 Implications for Practitioners

The findings of the present work are relevant for organizational practice, since organizational visions are often used in leader–follower communication. Since followers differ enormously in terms of their motive profiles, Kehr (2005) suggests developing multi-thematic visions that offer incentives for all three motive domains.

The results of this research offer three anchors for practitioners. (1) They emphasize that the organizational context is an important boundary condition for the effectiveness of vision statements. (2) They point to the attributes of a vision statement, which executives should consider during the development of an organizational vision. (3) They indicate how organizations, and especially their leaders, might need to adapt vision communication to be more effective.

(1) Follower' commitment to the organization and trust in their management influence how followers' deal with a new organizational vision. If organizational leaders are able to foster followers' commitment to the organization and maintain high levels of trust, these followers are more likely to commit to a new organizational vision.

(2) Furthermore, previous research has determined several attributes that increase vision effectiveness (Baum et al., 1998; Kantabutra & Avery, 2007; Strasser, 2011). The most prominent attributes are visions' brevity, clarity, abstractness, stability, desirability, challenge, and future orientation. In addition to these findings, the present work empirically supports that vividness and challenge of vision statements positively relate to followers' vision commitment. Moreover, the vividness of the vision statement plays an essential role for followers' underlying motivational mechanisms. Consequently, organizational leaders and their communication experts should formulate vision statements that are vivid and challenging to elicit mental images, trigger inspiration, and create commitment.

(3) In addition to the ideal attributes of effective organizational visions, the results of this work suggest rethinking the communication approach. Followers' positive associations with a vision statement are related to their inspiration. Thus, organizational leaders should offer opportunities for followers to create their own associations and, thereby, internalize and personalize the organizational vision. Another way to foster followers' commitment to an organizational vision might be for followers to be more involved during the definition of personal and group goals. Therefore, the organizational vision should serve as a boundary condition for the definition of goals. Besides the advantage that these goals would match with the overall vision, followers are more likely to align their commitment to the vision with their explicit motives in these circumstances.

All aforementioned aspects could be included in an intervention package for organizations, which should go along with every new development of a new organizational vision. It is crucial to understand that the development of a vision statement along predefined criteria like the aforementioned attributes should be

understood as the beginning of a "vision absorbing process" for followers. Especially in large organizations, where followers and leaders communicate across a greater distance, followers need support to internalize the picture of the organizations' future.

6.3 Conclusion

Not every organizational vision will lead people to the moon. However, organizational leaders have the choice of whether they actively promote a vision as a tool to inspire followers and create commitment, or they merely formulate a statement that is hardly remembered among followers. Since I recommend aiming for the first, avoiding the second, this research provides some guidance for visionary leaders. More concise guidance condensed into a vision for great organizational visions comes from Pablo Picasso, who said: "If I paint a wild horse, you might not see the horse... but surely you will see the wildness!"

7. References

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8. Appendix

Table 18

Summary of Demographic Variables for Brazil, China, and India, Study 2

	Vision Statement			Mission Statement		
Variable	Brazil	China	India	Brazil	China	India
Gender						
Female	6%	33%	5%	10%	26%	8%
Male	94%	67%	95%	90%	74%	92%
Age						
18-25	9%	37%	40%	14%	28%	41%
26-33	45%	49%	30%	52%	39%	26%
34-41	21%	11%	7%	33%	11%	11%
42-49	9%	3%	0%	0%	17%	7%
50-57	9%	0%	3%	0%	6%	4%
58 and over	2%	0%	20%	0%	0%	11%
Tenure						
Less than 1 year	9%	37%	40%	14%	28%	41%
1 to 4 years	45%	49%	30%	52%	39%	26%
4 to 7 years	21%	11%	7%	33%	11%	11%
7 to 10 years	9%	3%	0%	0%	17%	7%
Over 10 years	17%	0%	23%	0%	6%	15%
Highest Qualification						
A-Level or lower	13%	71%	62%	19%	74%	61%
Bachelor or higher	87%	29%	38%	81%	26%	39%
Type of Employment						
Part-Time	9%	3%	0%	10%	3%	3%
Full-Time	91%	97%	100%	90%	97%	97%
Nationality						
Country of Study	96%	92%	100%	95%	98%	100%
Other	4%	8%	0%	5%	3%	0%

Note. Due to missing data in the subsamples, demographic information is based 224 <= n <=255.

PSE Picture: Chess